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Wildfire, Evacuation, and Cardiovascular Events: A Spatial Exposure Approach

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Abstract

Increasingly, adverse health effects from wildfire exposure are not limited to select populations in the wildland-urban interface. As wildfires continue to grow in frequency and intensity, they are also continuing to encroach on urban areas, putting larger and larger populations at risk. In this study we develop an innovative research design in the wildfire and health literature, and report results for a small scale implementation on California's central coast. Instead of focusing on smoke exposure and PM 2.5 or PM 10 as the primary physiological pathway linking wildfire and adverse cardiovascular health outcomes, we draw on a stress pathway as a potential link between stress and heart health. We use a novel spatiotemporal definition of wildfire exposure that is directly measurable at the individual level and acutely stressful: evacuation orders. Combining longitudinal health data from the dominant local hospital system in southern Santa Barbara County, California, we directly determine exposure to an evacuation order and smoke plumes from three large fires in the 2017 - 2019 wildfire period. Controlling for additional known risk factors, such as diabetes status and smoking status, we model the risk of secondary cardiovascular events (CVE) for 2,411 patients with existing cardiovascular disease. Roughly 16.2% of patients ($n = 391$) were exposed to an evacuation order. We found evacuation order exposure was not significantly associated with an increased risk of cardiac events for the CVD population, but estimates hovered between 12.5-16.3% over un-evacuated cohorts. Smoke exposures were not significantly associated with CVE risk in models adjusted for evacuation orders nor unadjusted models, and estimates of effects varied widely. Both the method and the findings have implications for public health departments, clinicians and wildfire researchers.

keywords: wildfire, survival analysis, spatial data, heart disease, evacuation

1 Introduction

2 Increasingly, adverse health effects from wildfire exposure are not limited to select pop-
3 ulations in the wildland-urban interface. As wildfires continue to grow in frequency and
4 intensity, they are also encroaching on urban areas, putting larger and larger populations
5 at-risk. Adverse health outcomes associated with wildfires include various end points such
6 as increased rates of hospitalizations, emergency department visits, and deaths (Reid et al.,
7 2016a, Chang et al., 2022, Cohen et al., 2022, Heaney et al., 2022, Johnston et al., 2014), as
8 well as exacerbation of specific illnesses such as respiratory illnesses (like asthma) (Heaney
9 et al., 2022, Johnston et al., 2014, Brook et al., 2010, Chang et al., 2022, Mott et al., 2005),
10 cardiorespiratory-related illnesses (like congestive heart failure) (Mott et al., 2005, Delfino
11 et al., 2009, Reid et al., 2016a), and cardiovascular diseases/events (like stroke) (Heaney
12 et al., 2022, Henderson Sarah B. et al., 2011, Moore et al., 2006, Johnston et al., 2014, Wen
13 et al., 2022, Wettstein et al., 2018).

14 While research linking wildfire to health outcomes has blossomed across multiple fields
15 in recent years, findings related to cardiovascular disease (CVD) and cardiovascular events
16 (CVE) remain mixed (Wellenius et al., 2005, Delfino et al., 2009, Reid et al., 2016a, Wettstein
17 et al., 2018, Heaney et al., 2022, Reid et al., 2016b, Moore et al., 2006). This inconsistency
18 could be due to several common conceptual and methodological constraints in the CVE-
19 wildfire literature. Conceptually, much of the current literature focuses on smoke or particu-
20 late matter as the primary pathway linking wildfire and adverse health outcomes (Reid et al.,
21 2019, 2016a). From other disaster literature, there is evidence to suggest that earthquakes
22 (Chan et al., 2013, Bazoukis et al., 2018), tsunamis (Nakagawa et al., 2009, Nakamura et al.,
23 2013), hurricanes (Swerdel et al., 2014, Peters et al., 2014), and flood events (Ryan et al.,
24 2015) may be associated with higher risk of cardiovascular events. This mechanism may
25 manifest over longer periods than are typically studied in the smoke-exposure-motivated ap-
26 proaches (Nakagawa et al., 2009, Nakamura et al., 2013, Swerdel et al., 2014, Jordan et al.,
27 2013, Leor and Kloner, 1996, Peters et al., 2014). Additionally, conceptualization and mea-

28 surement of “exposure” to a wildfire varies widely across the literature, from purely temporal
29 comparisons of “pre-fire” periods to “post fire” periods (Cohen et al., 2022, Moore et al.,
30 2006), to a more nuanced spatial and temporal assignment of all persons in a statistical
31 area, zip code or grid cell to an observed particulate matter concentration for a given time
32 period (Delfino et al., 2009, Wettstein et al., 2018, Johnston et al., 2011, Thelen et al.,
33 2013, Aguilera et al., 2020, Reid et al., 2019). These approaches introduce an assumption of
34 homogeneity of exposure at the scale of analysis.

35 From a methodological viewpoint, most studies are also limited by indirect methods of
36 individual exposure and rely on counts of new hospitalizations or emergency department
37 visits in the aggregate. Within such counts, it is often not possible to disentangle those
38 who were actually exposed (for example, to a wildfire plume), from those who were not.
39 Additionally, these aggregate measures, as opposed to individual measures, cannot account
40 for compositional shifts of patient case-counts before and after events (such as changing mixes
41 of socio-demographic characteristics of the patient case-counts in the immediate aftermath
42 of an exposure event), and may dilute the size of the response given the stimulus (Heaney
43 et al., 2022, Reid et al., 2016b, Mott et al., 2005). Finally, some studies attempt to normalize
44 rates (of hospital admissions or emergency department visits) against an at-risk population
45 estimate for a specific areal unit (Wettstein et al., 2018). This approach introduces additional
46 variability into the denominator of these rates and it is not clear how such variation may
47 propagate into estimates of effects and standard errors.

48 In this study we pursue an alternative approach that addresses some of these constraints
49 and offers an innovative study design in the wildfire and health literature. Instead of focusing
50 on smoke exposure and PM 2.5 or PM 10 as the primary physiological pathway linking
51 wildfire and adverse cardiovascular health outcomes, we draw on a stress pathway as a
52 potential link between stress and heart health. Though the biological mechanisms are not
53 well understood, there is evidence to suggest one such mechanism may be neurocardiogenic,
54 linking acute emotional or physical stress states to stress cardiomyopathy and/or myocardial

55 infarction (heart attack) (Hollenberg, 2016, Boland et al., 2015, Chan et al., 2013, Swerdel
56 et al., 2014, Peters et al., 2014).

57 Taking this pathway as our baseline, we use a novel spatiotemporal definition of wildfire
58 exposure that is directly measurable at the individual level and acutely stressful: evacuation
59 orders. Combining longitudinal health data from the dominant local hospital system in
60 southern Santa Barbara County, California, we directly determine exposure to an evacuation
61 order and smoke plumes from three large fires in the 2017 - 2019 wildfire period. Controlling
62 for additional known risk factors, such as diabetes status and smoking status, we model
63 the risk of secondary cardiovascular events (CVE) for patients with existing cardiovascular
64 disease¹ after exposure to evacuation orders and smoke plumes. With an individual-level
65 approach, we can provide new insights into compositional shifts and disease exacerbation
66 after exposure. Additionally, because we focus on those with existing cardiovascular disease,
67 we are able to both narrow our at-risk pool for a cleaner interpretation of any uncertainty,
68 but also contribute existing research on CVE risk for a large² CDC-classified vulnerable
69 population (Tsao et al., 2023).

70 **2 Methods and Materials**

71 This study has been approved by the Santa Barbara Cottage Hospital Institutional Review
72 Board.

73 *2.1 Evacuation Order Data*

74 From October 2016 through the end of May 2019, there were a total of 24 named³ fires that
75 burned in Santa Barbara County (see Figure 1). Three of these fires necessitated evacuation

¹Cardiovascular disease diagnoses include Chronic Heart Disease, Heart Failure, stroke, and hypertension per the American Heart Association.

²Approximately 127.9 million Americans, or 48.6% of the population aged 20 years or older, have at least one cardiovascular disease diagnosis (Tsao et al., 2023).

³Fires that burn more than 300 acres receive a reference name from one of CAL FIRE, USDA Forest Service Region 5, USDI Bureau of Land Management, National Park Service and/or local agencies (CAL FIRE, 2022).

76 orders: the Alamo, Whittier, and Thomas fires. Due to local topographic features, vegetation
77 and wind patterns, wildfires on the Central Coast can move at very high speeds and quickly
78 consume structures. In this area, evacuations for wildfire are often sudden, unpredictable,
79 and urgent. For example, the Thomas Fire was the largest and fastest moving of the fires
80 that burned into Santa Barbara County during the study period. While it burned roughly
81 281,000 acres in total; 100,000 acres burned in the first 48 hours (CAL FIRE, 2022). The
82 final fire perimeters are mapped in Figure 1.

83 Evacuation orders issued in response to the Alamo, Whittier and Thomas fires were col-
84 lected from the County of Santa Barbara Evacuation Press Releases, official Twitter handles,
85 and personal correspondence with local departments (DePinto, 2017). For each press release,
86 written descriptions of street names and locations were digitized using QGIS version 3.16
87 (QGIS Development Team, 2009) to derive spatial extent. To the extent that evacuation
88 orders were repeated across press releases and days, evacuation zones were re-encoded as a
89 new polygon with a new date attribute to generate the daily evacuation order data set. Oth-
90 erwise, duration of evacuation orders were not recorded.⁴ Patients were considered exposed
91 if their electronic medical record derived date-referenced residential location(s) coincided
92 with any of the date-referenced evacuation zones. That is, patients were only exposed if
93 their current address location at the time of the evacuation order fell within an evacuation
94 zone polygon. Due to small sample sizes, mandatory versus voluntary orders were not dis-
95 tinguished, and the time-to-exposure was limited to the time of the first evacuation order
96 for each patient.

⁴We were unable to assess the duration of the evacuation orders because of data limitations. When residents were allowed back into the evacuated zones was not as clearly documented as the initial evacuation. Hence, our results are limited in their interpretation to those having experienced any evacuation order as opposed to being able to assess the effects of the duration of those orders. However, given the literature on CVE and other natural disaster, we are unsure that assessing the end of an evacuation order has a meaningful interpretation – it does not necessarily align with the end of a stress response.

97 *2.2 Electronic Medical Record Data*

98 In partnership with the predominant local hospital system, we obtained electronic medical
99 records for all qualifying cardiovascular event-related (CVE-related) patient visits between
100 October 1, 2016 and June 1, 2019. Qualifying CVE diagnoses were selected as diagnoses
101 likely to be exacerbated by increased stress per our physician partner and based on the Inter-
102 national Classification of Diseases Tenth Revision (ICD-10) system (see Table 1). Qualifying
103 ICD-10 codes were selected by our physician author and included all child codes within the
104 following: I10, I11, I13, I15, I20-I25, I40, I42-I52, I71, R00, R07.1, R07.2, R07.8, R07.9, and
105 R94.3. These codes encompass a range of cardiac dysfunctions including severe diagnoses
106 (stroke, cardiac arrest, acute myocardial infarction) and potentially less severe diagnoses
107 (hypertensive heart disease and chest pain). Included diagnosis codes generally align well
108 with other studies using similar methods (Reid et al., 2016a, Wellenius et al., 2005, Delfino
109 et al., 2009, Heaney et al., 2022, Cohen et al., 2022, Reid et al., 2016b, Henderson Sarah
110 B. et al., 2011, Chan et al., 2013, Swerdel et al., 2014, Lim et al., 2012, Yang et al., 2017,
111 Wen et al., 2022), and include common cardiovascular disease (CVD) as well as symptomatic
112 diagnoses (e.g. R07.9, “chest pain, unspecified”) to better capture a range of potential ex-
113 posure effects. For the duration of the paper, we refer to the “qualifying cardiac event” as
114 this initial CVE-related visit for each patient.

115 The data include 7,364 patient visits across 5,318 unique patients distributed over the
116 period. Though we initially requested dates of first qualifying CVD diagnosis for each patient,
117 due to an electronic medical record (EMR) system migration in the fall of 2016, retrospective
118 diagnosis dates were not available. Additionally, because our methods rely on accurate
119 time of both study entry (in this case initial CVD diagnosis date) and secondary CVE (if
120 observed), we limited our data to patients whose first CVE diagnosis in the EMR coincided
121 with their first visit in the EMR (n=3,867) This restriction is an assurance of accuracy and
122 data validity and is akin to imposing a sampling window on our study design. For the 3,867
123 patients there were 7,088 unique (and dated) associated addresses that overlapped the study

124 period. We removed addresses indicating homelessness or shelter housing, post office boxes,
125 listings of “No Address on File” and like statements (n=401). Using Santa Barbara County
126 Assessor parcel data from 2016, we matched⁵ addresses in an iterative fashion and extracted
127 point centroids of each polygonal parcel. We excluded addresses with no plausible match or
128 those outside of Santa Barbara County (n=933). Of the eligible addresses, we achieved a
129 90.3% match rate, or 5140 of 5693.

130 Additionally, because of the decentralized and fragmented nature of healthcare provision
131 in the United States, some patients may receive regular cardiovascular care from providers
132 outside the hospital system, but use the study hospital system locations for extreme cases
133 or emergencies. Such cases threaten the integrity of the research inference (interpreting
134 secondary CVE risk requires both onset and sequential event) as well as the effect size of
135 estimates (timing between visits could be artificially inflated as patients may receive care
136 for another CVE from a different system). In an attempt to control for these difficulties
137 in administrative data, we defined a geographic boundary for the study area that captures
138 commuting flows and the hospital catchment and is informed by the Regional Wildfire Mitigation
139 Project (extended RWMP) for the area (Wesolowski, 2021); we assume that residents
140 of this area are likely to travel to the study hospital system locations for cardiovascular care
141 (see Figure 1).⁶ To be included in the final patient sample, we required individuals to have
142 at least one valid (matched) address within the extended RWMP over the time period. The
143 final sample size was 2,411 patients, aged 18-87 years.

144 Using the same set of diagnosis codes, we restricted secondary CVEs to those that oc-
145 curred through an emergency department so as not to accidentally catch scheduled follow-
146 up care visits. Though conservative, this estimation method for secondary visits provides
147 a cleaner interpretation of events, and we can assume independent events for each visit.
148 In addition to date of hospital visit and dated address histories, the EMR records include

⁵The exact address matching schema is available on request.

⁶We conducted a sensitivity analysis using other areal units (full county, patient zip code, and census tracts) to better parse the effects of the distance decay on the model estimates. Our results suggested that the extended RWMP aligns best with our true hospital catchment area.

149 patient sex, date-of-birth, preferred language, insurance status, smoking history, history of
150 heart surgery, diabetes status and diagnosis. Diabetes status, smoking status, age and sex
151 are all associated with onset of CVD (Benjamin et al., 2019). Initially, investigators were
152 concerned that preferred language could be associated with stress levels hence its inclusion
153 in the final models. EMRs often do not provide a direct indicator of socio-economic status;
154 we used insurance type as an imperfect proxy. These variables are summarized in Table 2.

155 *2.3 Smoke Exposure Data*

156 Smoke data was collected from October 1st, 2016 through May 31st, 2019 from the National
157 Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) Office of Satellite and Product Opera-
158 tions (OSPO) Hazards Mapping System (HMS) Fire and Smoke Product (NOAA OSPO
159 HMS, 2018). Implemented in 2003, HMS relies on polar and geostationary satellite observa-
160 tions and expert image analysts who digitize the smoke plumes. Smoke plumes are further
161 categorized based on density of the plume (thin, medium, thick). Though the HMS data
162 do not directly measure particulate matter, they remain a common choice in the literature
163 (Wettstein et al., 2018, Henderson Sarah B. et al., 2011). The HMS data set contains several
164 readings per day (sometimes from different satellites). In processing the data, we chose to
165 create daily unions of smoke extents to capture the broadest spatial extents by density type.
166 On some days the extents of the polygons overlapped (that is a “medium” plume may have
167 been contained within a larger “thin” density plume), but other days some areas were ex-
168 posed to one density type (e.g. “medium”) without being exposed to “thin”. In light of this
169 phenomena, we also created an “any” density plume each day to capture exposure to any
170 density of plume. In each case (thin, medium, thick or any), patients were considered to have
171 been exposed to a day of smoke if their date-referenced residential location was contained
172 within a date-referenced smoke plume polygon.

174 The extended Cox Proportional Hazard Model (Cox PH) is an attractive method for an-
 175 alyzing time-structured exposures and outcomes for its ease of use and interpretation. In
 176 our case we may think of each individual having a set or triple $[T_i, \delta_i, [\mathbf{x}_i(t), 0 \leq t \leq T_i]]$,
 177 where $i = 1, \dots, n$ indexes the patients in the study, T_i is the time to the secondary CVE
 178 or end of study, δ_i indicates event status (1 if CVE observed or 0 if censored), and $\mathbf{x}_i(t) =$
 179 $[x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \dots, x_{ip}]$ the vector of p covariate values at time t . Following the work of Klein and
 180 Moeschberger as well as Aalen, Gjessing, and Håkon (Klein and Moeschberger, 2010, Aalen
 181 et al., 2008), the extended cox model hazard can be written:

$$h(t|x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \dots, x_{ip} = \mathbf{x}_i) = h_0(t)e^{\beta^T \mathbf{x}_i(t)} = h_0(t) \exp \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^p \beta_k x_{ik}(t) \right\}$$

182 where $h_0(t)$ is the baseline hazard rate which remains unspecified, and $\beta = (\beta_1, \dots, \beta_p)^T$ is
 183 the vector of regression coefficients that describe the effects of the covariates at time t . The
 184 $x_{ik}(t)$ terms may be time-dependent covariates (such as exposure to an evacuation order or
 185 smoke plume), or may be constant over the time period (such as sex or diabetic status) for
 186 the i^{th} individual. The extended Cox model assumes that the hazards between individuals
 187 of opposing covariate groups are proportional.

188 In this analysis, we made explicit choices about how to code the evacuation exposure
 189 and smoke plume exposure variables. The evacuation order exposure is coded as a binary
 190 variable. For any given patient, $evac_{it} = 0$ if $t < T_{\text{exposure}}$, for $t \geq T_{\text{exposure}}$, $evac_{it} = 1$; where
 191 T_{exposure} is the time from study entry to evacuation exposure. Similarly, we coded exposure
 192 to a smoke plume (of any density) as binary variables at several cumulative time points
 193 where $j = 1$ day, 3 days, 7 days, or 10 days of total exposure to a plume type. For any given
 194 patient, $smoke_{jit} = 0$ if $t < T_{\text{exposure},j}$ for $t \geq T_{\text{exposure},j}$, $smoke_{jit} = 1$; where $T_{\text{exposure},j}$ is the
 195 time from study entry to the j^{th} day of cumulative smoke exposure of a specified type (thin,
 196 medium, thick, or any). Ultimately, we present results from five separate models each with

197 a different smoke exposure specification.⁷ Model 1 is not adjusted for any smoke exposure
198 and only tests effects of evacuation orders and covariates on secondary CVE risk. Models
199 2-5 adjust for exposure to 1-day cumulative “thin”, “medium”, “thick”, or “any” smoke
200 exposure from the smoke polygon data as well as all covariates and evacuation orders.

201 As is recommended practice for studies with multiple events per subject or more than
202 one event type (Terry M. Therneau and Patricia M. Grambsch, 2000, Therneau, 2021) we
203 used robust standard errors in this analysis. We used traditional selection criteria (AIC,
204 BIC, Cox weighted residual tests for proportional hazards) for model specification, selection
205 and fit. We consider $\alpha = 0.1$ for Type I error control because of the exploratory nature of
206 this study design.

207 In our consideration of uncertainty, we use the evacuation order parameter estimates
208 from each model specification (none, thin, medium, thick, any smoke exposure) and the
209 associated standard errors as inputs into a lognormal distribution⁸ for which we simulated
210 values along a continuum. This is consistent with the parametric assumptions of the model.
211 We generated both cumulative density functions and probability density functions for each
212 estimate.

213 All analyses were completed in R version 4.1.3 (R Core Team, 2022).

214 **3 Results**

215 Within the study period, 2,411 patients had a qualifying cardiovascular event. Of these
216 patients, 425 developed a secondary event during the study period (17.6%). There were 146
217 total deaths (not all due to CVE), 12 of which were deaths on arrival. All deaths not due
218 to CVE were treated as censored in our data. While deaths clustered at the end of every
219 calendar year, there was no observed difference in the mean arrival rate of deaths between
220 December 1, 2017-January 15, 2018 (Thomas Fire period) and the year prior. However, in the

⁷We also include similar model results with smoke covariates but unadjusted for evacuation orders in the supplementary material.

⁸The lognormal transposed the estimates on the link scale to the odd-ratio scale for easier interpretation.

221 year following the mean rate of arrival was significantly lower ($t_{df=58} = -2.3291, p < 0.05$).
222 Of the 2,411 patients, a total of 391 went on to experience an evacuation order of any type:
223 109 patients experienced a mandatory evacuation order due to an encroaching wildfire, 368
224 patients experienced a voluntary order, and 86 would have experienced both (transition in
225 either direction). Because of small sample sizes, we chose not to pursue an analysis based
226 on the type of evacuation order exposure. Of the evacuation exposed cohort, 55 developed
227 a secondary CVE. The remaining 370 secondary events were observed in the unexposed
228 cohort. The median wait time until evacuation exposure was 213 days for patients who
229 were eventually evacuated. For patients who had an observed secondary CVE, the wait time
230 ranged from 1 to 438 days following the initial event and study entry.

231 Trends in diagnosis and visits around the fire periods are reported in detail in the sup-
232 plementary materials, but the evidence did not suggest a compositional shift (such as an
233 increase in visits by those with existing cardiovascular disease in the immediate wake of
234 evacuation exposure). There was a slight increase in diagnoses and visits during the active
235 evacuation order period around the Thomas fire, but not for the Alamo or Whittier fires
236 (which had concurrent evacuation orders). As compared to other years, the mean arrival
237 rate during the 6-week Thomas Fire period was not significantly different from the year prior
238 (mean rate of 3.1 per day), but was significantly more than the year post (2.1 per day, two-
239 sided t-test $p < 0.05$). The most frequent diagnosis code was atrial fibrillation and flutter
240 (33.4% of patients presenting), followed by heart failure (21.1%) and chest pain (17.9%).
241 Note that many of these diagnoses codes occurred in conjunction with other related (or un-
242 related) codes. The most common diagnosis codes for secondary cardiovascular events were
243 heart failure (44.7% of patients), atrial fibrillation and flutter (41.9%), followed by chronic
244 ischemic heart disease (19.1%).

245 3.1 Extended Cox Proportional Hazard Model Results

246 In the literature, it is common to test multiple day lags to assess the effects of wildfire smoke
247 exposure on hospital visits and/or admissions. While different researchers find different
248 results, several authors have suggested that 1-day lags are associated with an increase in
249 CVD-related visits and/or admissions (Wellenius et al., 2005, Heaney et al., 2022, Wettstein
250 et al., 2018). Hence, to keep our results aligned with these findings, we included a one-
251 day cumulative smoke exposure variable (thin, medium, thick, or any) in our final model
252 selections.⁹ After assessing model fit and diagnostics, we present five different specifications
253 based on the differing smoke plume densities (none, thin, medium, thick, and any). Note
254 that the time within the study each individual crossed the threshold of three days of plume
255 exposure depends on the spatial extent of each plume type. Additionally, the exact timing
256 of the exposure for each individual is not constant across plume types.

257 The parameter estimates are presented with respect to reference groups for each variable:
258 English-speaking, female, under 60 years of age, commercial insurance and no history of heart
259 surgery, diabetes, or smoking, and no smoke plume exposure or evacuation exposure. The
260 parameter estimates are interpreted as an increase in the hazard of secondary CVE with
261 respect to the reference group. The parameter estimates from these models are located in
262 Table 3, and are visually represented in Figure 2. With no smoke indicator included in
263 the model, we see a non-significant but positive effect of evacuation exposure on risk of
264 secondary CVE (0.124, 90%CI [-0.127,0.376]), which indicates a 13.2% increase in risk as
265 compared to the unevacuated group ($100 \cdot (e^{0.124} - 1)$). The increased risk effect stays positive
266 and relatively consistent across different smoke specifications, with increases in risk ranging
267 from 12.5-16.3% as compared to unexposed cohorts after controlling for all other covariates.

268 While the 90% confidence intervals contain zero, in an exploratory context it is useful to
269 further examine the uncertainty. Embedded in our study design, we have a strong prior that

⁹Estimates from both three-day cumulative smoke exposure model fits and model fits with only smoke exposures (no evacuation) are available from the authors.

270 evacuation orders can only increase CVE risk or not change the risk at all; evacuation orders
271 cannot be protective (or lower risk). Hence, we might consider the estimated parameter
272 distribution at or above an actionable increment. We consider a 10% increase in risk as a
273 clinical benchmark and threshold at which a clinician or emergency service provider may
274 consider the risk to be actionable. Figure 3 displays the cumulative distribution functions
275 and densities for the evacuation order effects under each smoke regime (none, any, thick,
276 medium or thin.) From the cumulative distributions (Figure 3 (a)), a 10% increase lies
277 between .36 and .44 probability depending on the smoke plume type specification, which
278 suggests that in more than 50% of random draws, the effect of evacuation exposure on risk
279 of secondary CVE for this population would be greater than a 10% increase. To summarize
280 this visually, Figure 3 (b) shows the density functions for each parameter estimate with
281 the dotted line indicating the 10% increase in risk. In each case, more than 50% of the
282 parameter's distribution lies to the right of the line.

283 Other expected covariate relationships hold. As age increases, the risk of secondary
284 cardiac event also increases. A concurrent diagnosis of diabetes mellitus is associated with
285 increased risk, as is smoking status and, to a lesser extent, history of heart surgery. There is
286 no apparent difference in risk by sex. There are significant increases in risk by insurance type
287 (though these distinctions are likely due to both coinciding changes in age and insurance as
288 well as unmeasurable differences in SES seeping through insurance type). Finally, during the
289 evacuation periods, particularly for the Thomas Fire period, there was some concern that
290 evacuation orders were not reaching Spanish-speaking populations, potentially contributing
291 to the stress of the period. However, preferred language did not appear to be related to CVE
292 risk.

293 To further understand the role of smoke in this model framework, we also ran models with
294 one-day cumulative smoke exposures and covariates without adjusting for evacuation order
295 exposure. These models generated very similar estimates of coefficient and standard errors
296 for all covariates (all estimates were within a tenth of evacuation-adjusted model estimates,

297 see supplementary materials for details). Given this, the 1-day cumulative smoke measures
298 do not appear to be associated with CVE risk, adjusted for evacuation order or otherwise.
299 While simpler models with evacuation order and cumulative smoke measures showed some
300 consistent directions of association across densities and exposure cutoffs, the adjusted models
301 do not. Estimates for smoke effects range in both magnitude and direction, and, with the
302 exception of the thin plume exposure, the standard errors are an order of magnitude larger
303 than the effect sizes.

304 4 Discussion

305 In this study we had two aims: the first was to provide a proof-of-concept for an innova-
306 tive study design to assess health risks related to wildfire exposure, and the second was to
307 implement the method in a small setting to assess the effects of wildfire evacuations and
308 smoke exposure on the risk of a secondary cardiovascular event for patients with existing
309 cardiovascular disease. In pursuit of these aims, we've carefully described the logic, data
310 sources and variable construction necessary to conduct such a study, and operationalized
311 the design within the Santa Barbara County context. We collected electronic medical record
312 data for CVE-related visits from October 1, 2016 through June 1, 2019, and combined pa-
313 tient addresses with county parcel extents, daily smoke extents, and evacuation order extents
314 for three fires that occurred within the time period. We then modeled the effects of these
315 constructed variables on cardiovascular event risk while controlling for known covariates.

316 Within the broader context of wildfire smoke exposure and CVEs, evidence of an effect
317 is mixed. Some studies have found slight increases in number of admissions or emergency
318 department visits for stroke, cerebrovascular disease and congestive heart failure (Wellenius
319 et al., 2005, Delfino et al., 2009, Reid et al., 2016a, Wettstein et al., 2018), where others have
320 found null results (Heaney et al., 2022, Reid et al., 2016b, Moore et al., 2006, Reid et al.,
321 2016a). Our study contributes to this open question; even for a CDC classified vulnerable
322 population (those with existing CVD), we find no evidence of a consistent association between

323 1-day smoke plume exposure and CVE risk. Given the open question in the literature about
324 the effects of smoke on CVD outcomes, had smoke been strongly associated with adverse
325 CVD outcomes, we would have expected consistent large positive estimates that generally
326 increased with both density of plume as well as days of exposure (j). After fitting our models,
327 the effects of smoke plume effects on risk of secondary CVE are inconsistent and noisy. This
328 could be due to our choice of the HMS smoke exposure variable, which as Feduda et al. (2020)
329 note, may not capture peak PM 2.5 exposures on the ground and offer no information with
330 regards to night-time plumes (Fadadu et al., 2020).

331 Alternatively, the inconsistency and noise could also be due to heterogeneity of experience
332 of individuals. There is a lack of quantification of avoidance behaviors for mitigating exposure
333 to poor air quality or smokey days in this context. While short-term wildfire smoke has
334 been shown to be detrimental in controlled environments (Brook et al., 2010), in natural
335 settings, air quality warnings, visible smoke, and adherence to risk-reduction strategies (such
336 as limiting outdoor time, masking, air filtration, relocation) may all mitigate the risk of
337 particulate matter exposure from wildfire smoke.

338 In the actual assessment of evacuation order effects, our data and modeling are, at best,
339 suggestive. The point estimates of the evacuation order effects range from 12-16% over the
340 unexposed population depending on the smoke specification, after controlling for known CVE
341 risk factors. While the point estimates may be above an actionable threshold for clinicians,
342 our estimates lack precision and are not statistically different from zero. In our consideration
343 of the sources of uncertainty, we can point to two mechanical issues at play. First is the small
344 sample sizes, particularly for the exposed population. Of our 2,411 patients, only 391 were
345 exposed to an evacuation order and of those only 55 experienced a second cardiovascular
346 event. These sample size constraints decrease the likelihood of recovering a strong signal, and
347 made testing important interactions (such as advanced age and evacuation order exposure)
348 impossible. As wildfires continue to grow in scope and scale and data sharing practices
349 improve, larger studies that make use of this method may be able to more precisely estimate

350 effects.

351 Secondly, though the evacuation orders provide a direct measure of exposure, the stress
352 exposure itself may be experienced heterogeneously within the exposed group. Other factors,
353 such as distance to the active fire line, number of dependents in the household, presence of
354 pets or livestock, duration of exposure, availability of social capital, socio-economic status
355 and resources, and media hype within the period could all contribute to an individual's
356 stress response.¹⁰ Additionally, while we were unable to distinguish between mandatory and
357 voluntary evacuation orders, patterns of evacuations (immediate mandatory evacuation, ver-
358 sus voluntary then mandatory) may engender different responses. Our concern here aligns
359 obliquely with a mature body of literature in health geography arguing for more attention
360 to correctly measuring an individual's exposure to environmental risks by carefully defining
361 spatial and temporal dimension of that risk (Spielman and Yoo, 2009). While that litera-
362 ture specifically addresses improved estimation of neighborhood effects – mostly exposure
363 to chronic stressors – our work makes a similar case for acute environmental stressors. It
364 is unclear how to resolve the heterogeneous exposure or experience of stress within evacua-
365 tion zones short of prospective studies with wearable heart rate sensors or direct measures
366 of cortisol. Such studies could also incorporate mandatory versus voluntary evacuation or-
367 der exposure, track duration of evacuation exposures, and incorporate better measures of
368 individual socio-economic status, social capital, and available resources.

369 Still, we believe that exposure to evacuation orders and the stress pathway provide a
370 more precise indicator and mechanism than smoke exposure for assessing wildfire effects on
371 cardiovascular risk. Because it is difficult to measure at the individual level, smoke exposure
372 tends to be interpolated or estimated across wide expanses (Reid et al., 2016a, Henderson

¹⁰Additionally, socio-economic status is also intrinsically linked with CVD risk through proximal pathways like diet, exercise, occupation, agency and others. SES is a structural determinant of (heart) health (World Health Organization, 2010). This study was constrained in its ability to assess those pathways; the best we could do was to use insurance category. As our reviewer suggests, this is a far from perfect proxy, and SES, social-capital, and individual resources impact both risk of initial CVD, disease progression/control, and stress response to evacuation exposure. Future research should aim to more explicitly assess these pathways and disentangle SES-effects on the stress pathway of secondary CVE.

373 Sarah B. et al., 2011, Delfino et al., 2009). While newer machine learning approaches for
374 smoke dispersion combine chemical transport models and multiple inputs from monitors,
375 land use regression models, and satellites (Humphrey et al., 2019, Reid et al., 2015, Reid
376 and Maestas, 2019), all exposures are still estimates that may be systematically biased when
377 combined with individual data. Specifically in terms of cardiovascular event risk, recent
378 research has pointed to overestimation of the association between urban PM 2.5 exposure and
379 CVD, largely due to mismatches in scale and aggregation (Modifiable Areal Unit Problem
380 and Uncertain Geographic Context Problem) (Humphrey et al., 2019). In contrast, in our
381 approach evacuation order boundaries function as another type of exposure; an exposure that
382 is both precise (not imputed from sensors) and carries substantial consequences including
383 potential loss of property and life.

384 A final strength of this study is the population at-risk. Our focus on patients with
385 existing disease was intentional from both a health and statistical standpoint. From the
386 health perspective, Nearly 49% of the population of Americans aged 20 years or older have
387 at least one CVD diagnosis, and CVD remains a leading cause of death in the United States
388 (Tsao et al., 2023). Existing research on prevention of secondary CVE suggests that the
389 existing CVD population has a CVE risk 20-30% higher than baseline risk within a five-
390 year period (Kaasenbrood et al., 2016, Kerr et al., 2009). As wildfires and natural hazards
391 increase in strength and frequency, so too will evacuation order exposures, and the risk posed
392 by stress responses will not be evenly distributed across the exposed population.

393 Some studies use census tract or census block population estimates to identify the exposed
394 population in the definition of rates (Wettstein et al., 2018). This is particularly problematic
395 given the sampling variation in American Community Survey estimates at the tract and
396 block group level, which is further accentuated when rates need to be disaggregated (by age
397 group, race/ethnicity, etc.) (Folch et al., 2016, Spielman et al., 2014). From a statistical
398 standpoint, failing to account for this sampling variation leads to grossly overstated precision
399 of the resulting estimates. While no retrospective method is perfect, our choice of population

400 dramatically limits the variability within the at-risk population. With increasing data access,
401 we hope more researchers will consider an approach like this one.

402 **5 Conclusion**

403 In this study we outlined an explicit spatial exposure approach to assess the relationship
404 between cardiovascular events and wildfire using wildfire evacuation orders. We then demon-
405 strated feasibility with a small sample from Southern Santa Barbara County. Though we
406 do not have conclusive evidence suggesting a marked increase in CVE risk after exposure
407 to an evacuation order, our methods has implications for public health officials, clinicians,
408 and wildfire health researchers. For public health practitioners, this study design relies on
409 accurate, shared electronic medical record data within a given area. Because of the fractured
410 nature of the healthcare landscape in the United States, advocating for shared data struc-
411 tures is critical to make larger studies in this vein feasible. For clinicians, implications are
412 two fold. First, clinical providers should likely be on alert for symptoms related to cardiac
413 dysfunction when wildfires are active in their community of practice, especially for popula-
414 tions that may present with different symptoms, such as women and the elderly. Secondly,
415 accurate data at the point of entry is extremely important for retrospective studies such as
416 this, including accurate addresses. For wildfire health researchers, or other disaster health
417 researchers, we have proposed a viable strategy to precisely measure effects of evacuation-
418 stress-CVE pathway and with larger samples, the precision should improve. Our hope is
419 that this method gets taken up more broadly, and inspires improved study designs in the
420 field.

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7 Tables and Figures

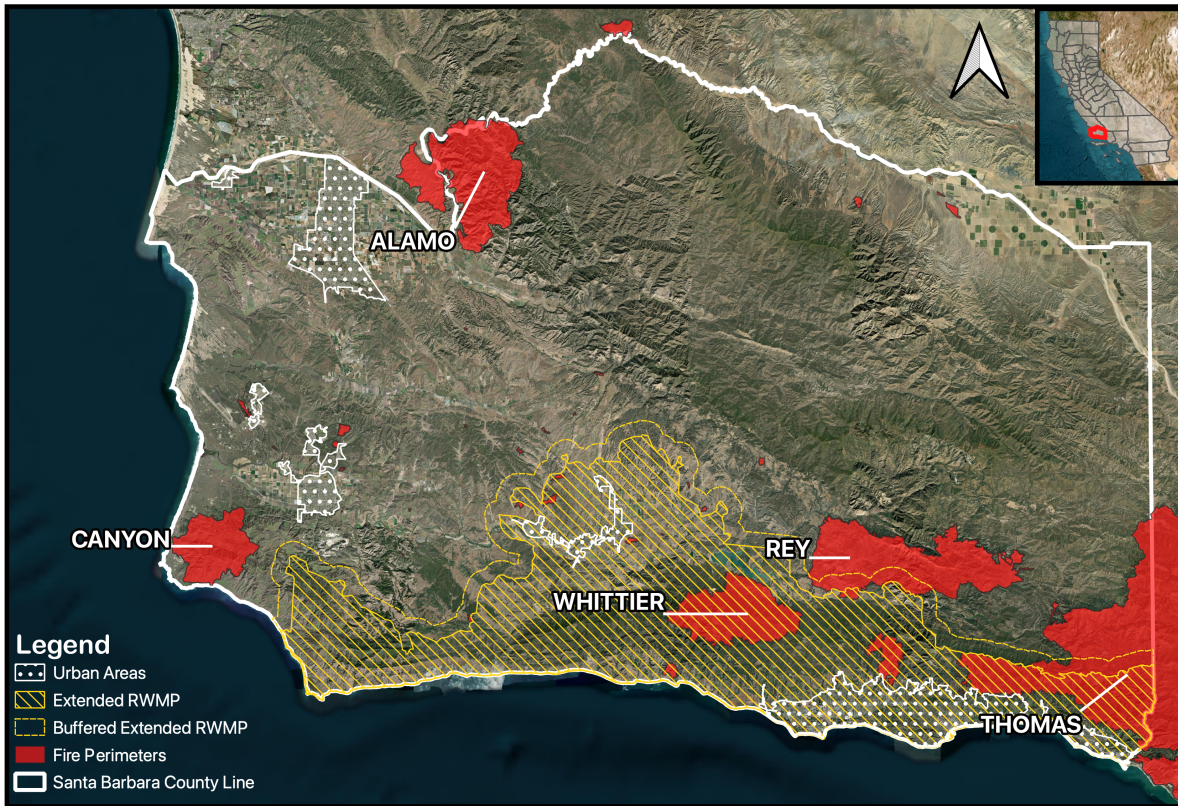


Figure 1: This map displays the final named wildfire perimeters during the 2016-2019 period in Santa Barbara County (red polygons) as well as the 2010 Census classified urban areas (white dotted pattern polygon). An urban area classification signifies an area with a density greater than 50,000 people and is derived from the United State 2010 Census. The extended Regional Wildfire Mitigation Program (RWMP) area is also displayed (yellow hash polygon). Additionally, the extended RWMP area was buffered by 1600 meters (solid yellow line) in the analysis. The underlying base map is ESRI Satellite Data, freely available. These data were mapped by the author on December 19, 2022. Note, only fires with areas greater than 10,000 acres are labeled on the map.

Patient Population Criteria	
Patients with any of the following ICD-10 diagnosis codes as a “New Diagnosis” within the time period. All diagnosis codes should appear as primary or secondary codes within the problem list of the EMR. * Indicates wildcard (all available next-digit options), in addition to parent codes.	
ICD-10-CM Code	Description
I10	Essential Primary Hypertension
I11.*	Hypertensive Heart Disease
I13.**	Hypertensive Heart and Chronic Kidney Disease
I16.*	Hypertensive Crisis
I20.*	Angina Pectoris
I21.**	Acute Myocardial Infarction
I22.*	Subsequent ST elevation (STEMI) and non-ST elevation (NSTEMI) myocardial infarction
I23.*	Certain current complications following ST elevation and non-ST elevation myocardial infarction within 28 day period
I24.*	Other acute ischemic heart diseases
I25.***	Chronic Ischemic Heart Disease
I40.*	Acute Myocarditis
I42.*	Cardiomyopathy
I43.*	Cardiomyopathy in disease classified elsewhere
I44.**	Atrioventricular and left bundle-branch blocks
I45.**	Other conduction disorders
I46.*	Cardiac arrest
I47.*	Paroxysmal tachycardia
I48.**	Atrial fibrillation and flutter
I49.**	Other cardiac arrhythmias
I50.**	Heart Failure
I51.**	Complications and ill-defined descriptions of heart disease
I52	Other heart disorders in diseases classified elsewhere
I71.**	Aortic aneurysm and dissection
R00.*	Abnormalities of heart beat
R07.1	Chest pain on breathing
R07.2	Precordial pain
R07.8*	Other chest pain
R07.9	Chest pain, unspecified
R94.3*	Abnormal results of cardiovascular function studies

Table 1: Table describes the International Classification of Diseases, Tenth Revision, Clinical Modification (ICD-10-CM) diagnosis codes that comprise the qualifying cardiac events within the study time frame. Note that * indicates depth of wildcard parent and child-nodes pursued. This list was compiled and revised for completeness and clinical relevance by all clinical team members.

Sample Characteristics			
Variable		Evacuation	Evacuation
		Exposed % (n)	Unexposed % (n)
		16.2 (391)	83.8 (2020)
Sex	Female	41.2 (161)	39.2 (792)
	Male	58.8 (230)	60.8 (1228)
Diabetic Status	None	86.4 (338)	84.9 (1715)
	Present	13.6 (53)	15.1 (305)
Smoking Status	None	94.4 (369)	95.1 (1922)
	Present	5.6 (22)	4.9 (98)
History of Heart Surgery	None	85.7 (335)	83.6 (1689)
	Present	14.3 (56)	16.4 (331)
Preferred Language	English	86.7 (339)	89.4 (1805)
	Other	0.3 (1)	1.1 (22)
	Spanish	13.0 (51)	9.6 (193)
Insurance Type	Commercial	18.2 (71)	18.6 (376)
	Other	17.1 (67)	15.3 (310)
	Senior	64.7 (253)	66.0 (1334)
Age Category	< 60	22.0 (86)	23.4 (473)
	60s	19.9 (78)	23.2 (469)
	70s	33.0 (129)	31.0 (626)
	≥ 80	25.1 (98)	22.4 (452)
Mean Age (Years)	At 12/05/2017	69.5	68.4
Mean Length of Stay (Days)	At Qualifying Event	5.2	5.0

Table 2: Descriptive attributes of patients with a qualifying cardiovascular event within the study period. No significant differences between evacuated individual and non-evacuated individuals were observed at $\alpha = 0.1$.

	<i>Dependent variable:</i>				
	Risk of Secondary CVE (Robust Errors)				
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Evacuation	0.124 (0.153)	0.137 (0.154)	0.118 (0.157)	0.151 (0.163)	0.125 (0.155)
1-Day Smoke Exposure		<i>Thin Plume</i> −0.162 (0.134)	<i>Medium Plume</i> 0.028 (0.144)	<i>Thick Plume</i> −0.089 (0.144)	<i>Any Plume</i> −0.006 (0.136)
Sex: Male	0.015 (0.103)	0.015 (0.102)	0.015 (0.103)	0.015 (0.103)	0.015 (0.103)
Age Category: 60s	0.367** (0.177)	0.369** (0.177)	0.366** (0.177)	0.368** (0.177)	0.367** (0.177)
Age Category: 70s	0.636*** (0.192)	0.636*** (0.192)	0.636*** (0.192)	0.633*** (0.192)	0.636*** (0.192)
Age Category: >80	0.696*** (0.203)	0.692*** (0.202)	0.696*** (0.203)	0.692*** (0.203)	0.696*** (0.203)
Insurance Type: Other	1.058*** (0.204)	1.053*** (0.205)	1.058*** (0.205)	1.055*** (0.205)	1.057*** (0.205)
Insurance Type: Senior	0.528** (0.207)	0.534*** (0.206)	0.527** (0.207)	0.531** (0.207)	0.528** (0.207)
Preferred Language: Other	−1.566* (0.897)	−1.538* (0.903)	−1.568* (0.895)	−1.559* (0.897)	−1.565* (0.897)
Preferred Language: Spanish	−0.051 (0.155)	−0.043 (0.155)	−0.052 (0.155)	−0.048 (0.155)	−0.051 (0.155)
History of Heart Surgery	0.191 (0.131)	0.191 (0.131)	0.191 (0.131)	0.190 (0.131)	0.191 (0.131)
History of Diabetes	0.873*** (0.108)	0.864*** (0.109)	0.874*** (0.108)	0.869*** (0.108)	0.872*** (0.109)
History of Smoking	0.606*** (0.189)	0.608*** (0.190)	0.606*** (0.189)	0.607*** (0.190)	0.606*** (0.189)
N_{Total}	2411	2411	2411	2411	2411
$N_{\text{Evacuation Exposed}}$	391	391	391	391	391
$N_{\text{Smoke Exposed}}$	0	1533	1614	1425	1649

Note:

* $p < 0.1$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$

Table 3: Full Covariate Models with Evacuation and Mixed Density Smoke Exposures

Coefficient Effects on Risk of CVE

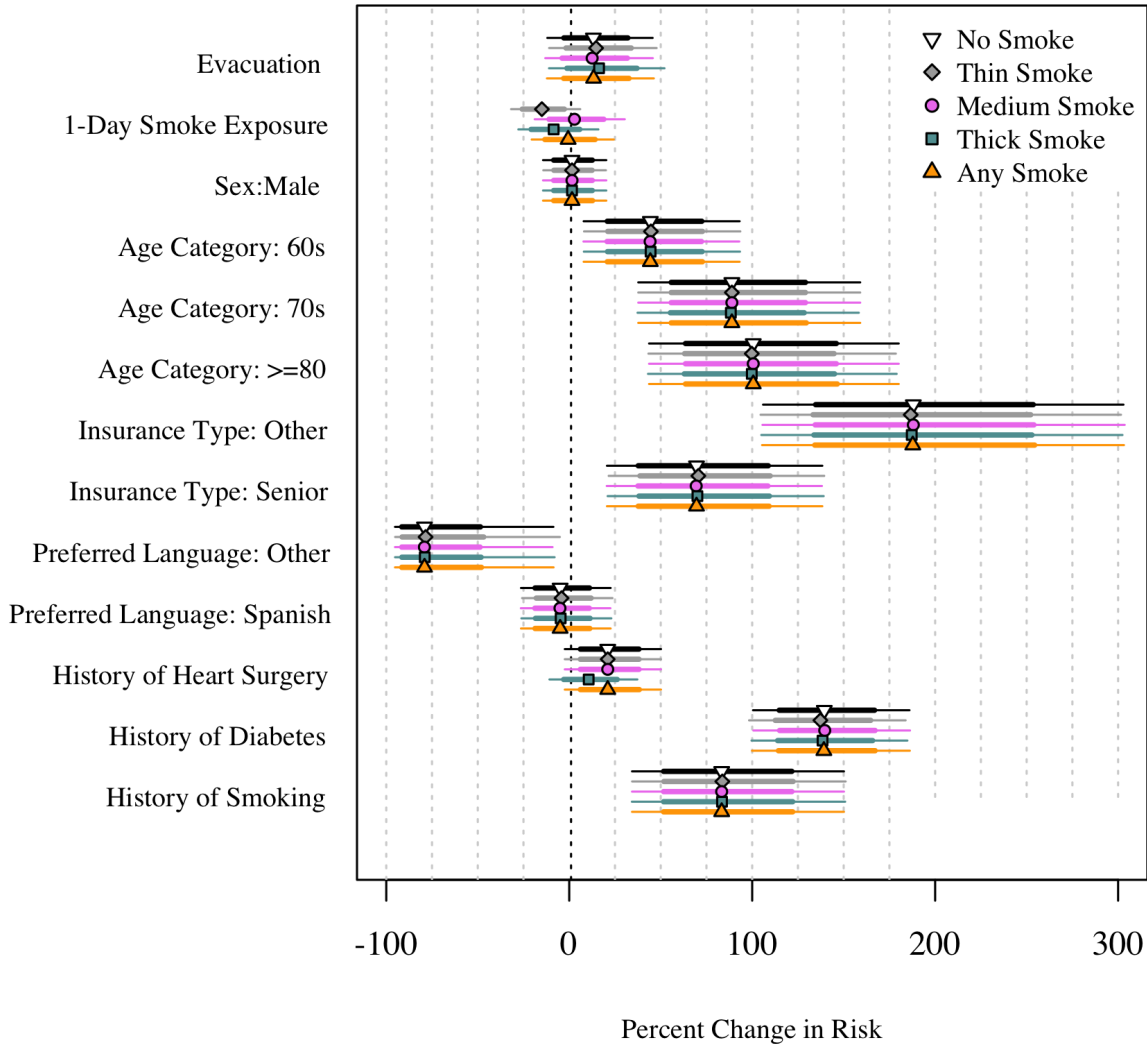
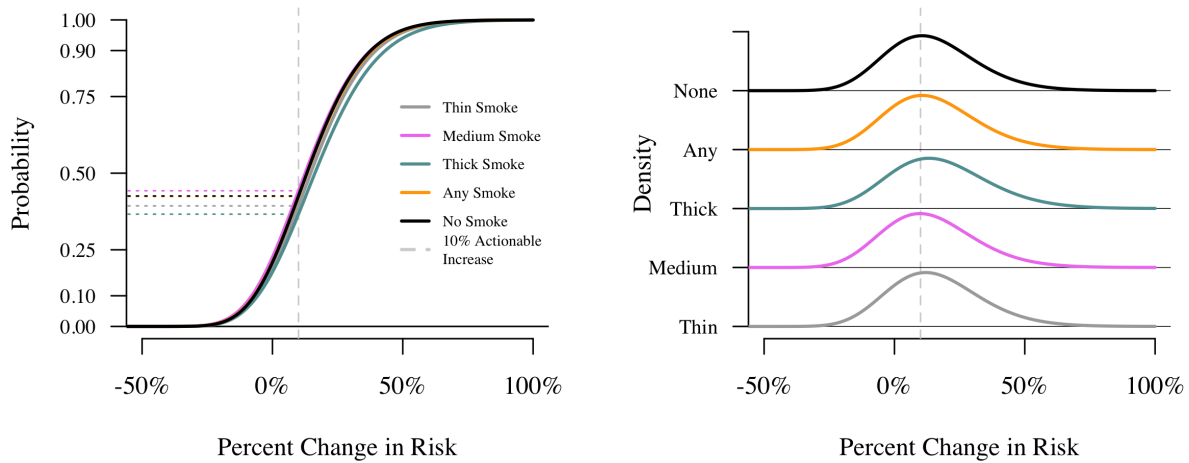


Figure 2: The coefficient effects on secondary CVE risk are summarized for each smoke type in this figure. The 90% confidence intervals are shown in addition to 68.5% confidence intervals and the the point estimates. Note that the 68.5% confidence intervals show one-standard deviation from the parameter estimate mean in either direction. The coloring indicates parameter estimates under 1-day of the various smoke specifications: thin smoke exposure (grey), medium smoke exposure (pink), thick smoke exposure (blue-green), and any smoke exposure (orange). The point estimates for evacuation order effects are 14.7% (thin), 12.5% (medium), 16.3% (thick) and 13.3% (any) increase in risk over the baseline.



(a) Cumulative Distribution of Estimates

(b) Density of Estimates

Figure 3: Panel (a) displays the cumulative distributions corresponding to the evacuation parameter estimates from the fitted models presented in Table 3, and displayed in Figure 2. The dotted vertical line shows a 10% increase in risk of CVE, and the corresponding probability quantiles are shown on the y-axis. The quantiles range from 0.36 to 0.44 indicating the probability of the percent change in CVE risk being 10% or less. Panel (b) displays the densities for each evacuation order parameter estimate, with the 10% increase also marked. Under each specification more than 50% of the estimate parameter distribution lies to the right of the 10% line.

7.1 Supplemental Materials

7.1.1 Visit and Diagnoses Trends

Figure 4 (a) shows the trends in diagnosis code use over the study period. The black rectangles indicate the periods of active evacuation orders for the Alamo, Whittier, and Thomas fires. The Alamo and Whittier fire evacuation orders occurred concurrently (first fire period), whereas the Thomas fire burned longer and more area, and subsequently had more associated evacuation orders. There is an increase in diagnoses in this period, which is echoed in the unique patient accrual counts in figure 4 (b).

Because of the study design, patients could enter the study with a qualifying cardiac event at any point and are followed through to censorship (study end) or their secondary CVE. The arrival counts for each study week range from 10 to 38, and the arrival pattern suggests both a relatively high variability in weekly case counts for new CVE as well as some potential seasonal trends. The Thomas fire began in early December (study week 62), a period where other studies (Lichtman et al., 2016, Yang et al., 2017) suggest a seasonal increase in cardiac events like acute myocardial infarction and stroke. Comparing the mean arrival rate for new cardiac events from December 1, 2017 - January 15, 2018 with the mean arrival rates for the same period the year prior and the year post, we do not see a significant difference in arrival rate the year prior, and we see a significant decrease from the following year.¹¹

The diagnoses patterns and trends for the second CVEs (n=474) are similarly presented in figure 4 (c). The most common diagnoses codes for those returning to the hospital are heart failure (45.4% of patients), atrial fibrillation and flutter (40.5%), followed by chronic ischemic heart disease (19.8%). In contrast to the first cardiac event diagnosis trends over time, the trends of the second cardiac event diagnoses appear more scattered and random, without an obvious seasonality. The visit counts are also sporadic through the study period (see figure 4 (d)).

¹¹Year prior had a mean arrival rate of 3.8 patients per day and the Thomas fire year had an average arrival rate of 3.6, (two-sided t-test, p-value = 0.58). The year following the Thomas fire had an average arrival rate of 2.8 (two-sided t-test, p-value = 0.07).

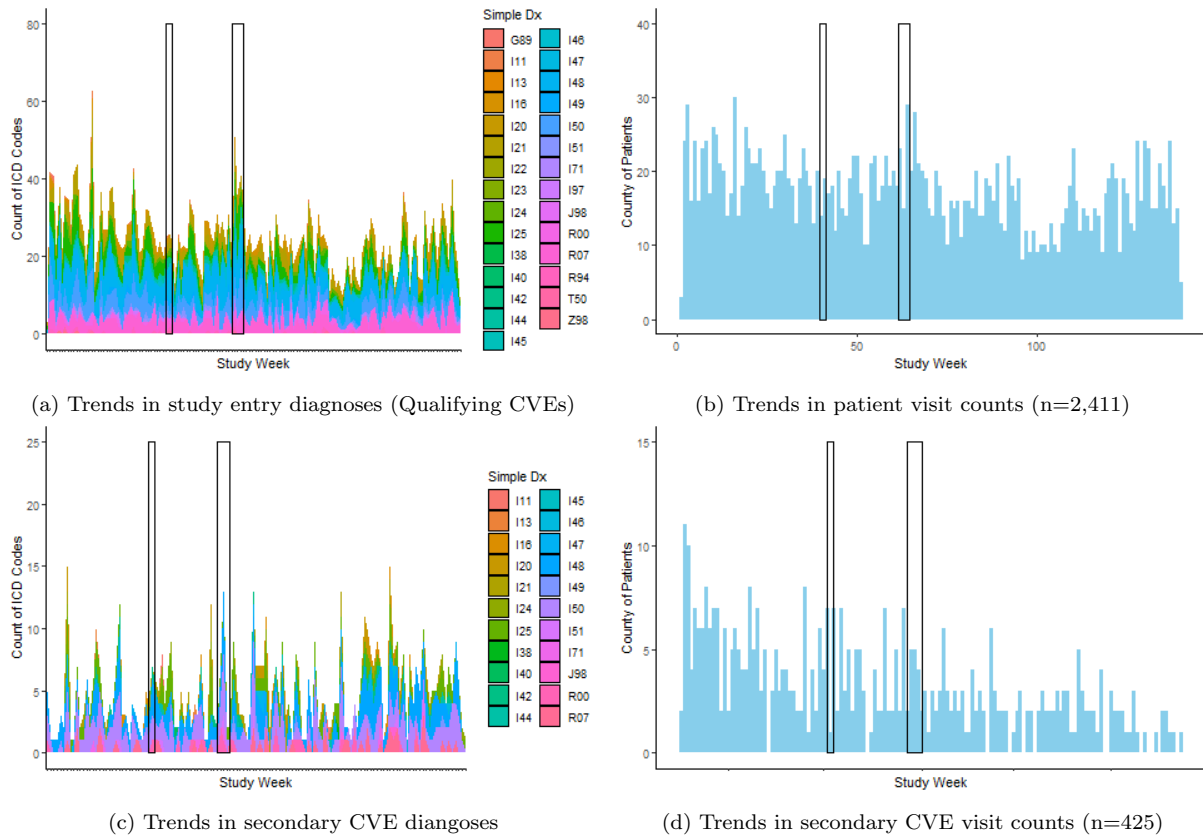


Figure 4: The upper row of this graphic shows the trends of parent ICD-10 diagnosis codes within qualifying CVEs for first-time patients within Cottage Hospital over the study period (a) and the corresponding new patient visit counts on the right (b). For example, I46 indicates visits for cardiac arrest and includes visits for child codes: I46.2 cardiac arrest due to underlying cardiac condition, I46.8 cardiac arrest due to other underlying condition and I46.9 cardiac arrest, cause unspecified. The lower row shows the trends of diagnosis codes for secondary CVEs (c) and the patient visit counts on the right (d). Many patients presented with (or acquired) more than one diagnosis in their admission. However, patient visit counts directly correspond to a single patient within the study; no patient appeared more than twice. The large vertical rectangles indicate the weeks that evacuation orders were active for the Alamo and Whittier fires (concurrent evacuation orders, first rectangle), and the Thomas fire (second rectangle). There appears to be an elevated count of new patients around the time of the Thomas fire and the mean rate of arrival is significantly elevated when compared to the year post fire ($p < 0.1$), but not when compared to the year prior to the fire ($p = 0.5$).

7.1.2 Mixed Density Smoke Models Without Evacuation Variable

Table 4 shows the coefficient estimates for mixed density 1-day cumulative models (no plume, thin plume, medium plume, thick plume). Estimates for the electronic medical record driven covariates remain consistent with the estimates from models including the evacuation exposure (see Table 3). Estimates for each smoke exposure also remain quite similar in direction and magnitude, though ‘Any Plume’ exposure flipped signs. To the authors this suggests a lack of evidence relating 1-day cumulative smoke exposure to secondary CVE risk.

	<i>Dependent Variable:</i>				
	Risk of Secondary CVE (Robust Errors)				
	No Plume	Thin Plume	Medium Plume	Thick Plume	Any Plume
1-Day Smoke Exposure		-0.154 (0.133)	0.043 (0.141)	-0.055 (0.136)	0.006 (0.133)
Sex: Male	0.015 (0.103)	0.014 (0.102)	0.015 (0.103)	0.014 (0.103)	0.015 (0.103)
Age Category: 60s	0.368** (0.177)	0.370** (0.177)	0.367** (0.177)	0.370** (0.177)	0.368** (0.177)
Age Category: 70s	0.639*** (0.192)	0.639*** (0.192)	0.638*** (0.192)	0.637*** (0.192)	0.639*** (0.192)
Age Category: >80	0.697*** (0.203)	0.694*** (0.203)	0.698*** (0.203)	0.695*** (0.204)	0.698*** (0.203)
Insurance Type: Other	1.061*** (0.205)	1.057*** (0.205)	1.061*** (0.205)	1.059*** (0.205)	1.061*** (0.205)
Insurance Type: Senior	0.529** (0.207)	0.535*** (0.206)	0.528** (0.207)	0.531** (0.207)	0.528** (0.207)
Preferred Language: Other	-1.574* (0.897)	-1.549* (0.903)	-1.577* (0.895)	-1.571* (0.897)	-1.575* (0.897)
Preferred Language: Spanish	-0.046 (0.155)	-0.038 (0.155)	-0.048 (0.155)	-0.043 (0.155)	-0.046 (0.155)
History of Heart Surgery	0.189 (0.131)	0.190 (0.131)	0.189 (0.131)	0.188 (0.131)	0.189 (0.131)
History of Diabetes	0.869*** (0.108)	0.861*** (0.109)	0.871*** (0.108)	0.866*** (0.108)	0.870*** (0.109)
History of Smoking	0.608*** (0.190)	0.610*** (0.190)	0.608*** (0.189)	0.608*** (0.190)	0.608*** (0.190)
N_{Total}	2411	2411	2411	2411	2411
$N_{\text{Smoke Exposed}}$	0	1533	1614	1425	1649

Note:

*p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01

Table 4: Mixed Density Smoke Models with No Evacuation (Robust Errors)