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15

16 **TITLE**

17 Residential exposure to air pollution and adverse respiratory and allergic outcomes in children and  
18 adolescents living in a chipboard industrial area of Northern Italy

19

20

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45

46

47 **HIGHLIGHTS**

- 48 - Chipboard production emits considerable amounts of wood dust, formaldehyde, and other air  
49 pollutants
- 50 - We assigned residential air pollution exposures to the pediatric population living in the largest  
51 chipboard industrial park in Italy
- 52 - Exposures were associated with a higher rate of allergic and respiratory outcomes, including  
53 emergency room pneumology admissions
- 54 - Estimated associations were stronger at closer distance to the industries
- 55 - Industrial chipboard production has a substantial public health impact on the resident population

56

57

58 **Graphical abstract**

59 (To be added at the revision stage)

60

61

62 **Keywords (MAX 6):** air pollution, pediatric, epidemiology, formaldehyde, industrial emissions,  
63 particle board.

64

65 **ABSTRACT** (303 of max 300 words)

66

67 **Background**

68 Chipboard production is a source of wood dust, formaldehyde, and other air pollutants. The  
69 Viadana district is the largest chipboard industrial park in Northern Italy. In this cohort study, we  
70 assessed whether exposures to NO<sub>2</sub>, formaldehyde, PM<sub>10</sub>, PM<sub>2.5</sub>, and black carbon were associated  
71 with adverse respiratory and allergic outcomes among all 7525 resident people aged 0-21 years.

72 **Methods**

73 Data on hospitalizations, emergency room (ER) admissions, and specialist visits in pneumology,  
74 allergology, ophthalmology, and otorhinolaryngology were obtained from the Local Health Unit.  
75 Residential air pollution concentrations in 2013 (baseline) were derived using local (Viadana II),  
76 national (EPISAT), and continental (ELAPSE) exposure models. Associations were estimated using  
77 negative binomial regression models for counts of events occurred during 2013-2017, with follow-  
78 up time as an offset term and adjustment for sex, age, nationality, and a census-block socio-  
79 economic indicator.

80 **Results**

81 Median annual exposures to NO<sub>2</sub>, PM<sub>10</sub>, and PM<sub>2.5</sub> were below the European Union annual air  
82 quality standards but above the World Health Organization 2021 air quality guideline levels.  
83 Exposure to NO<sub>2</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> were significantly associated with higher rates of ER pneumology  
84 admissions (13 to 30% higher rates per interquartile range exposure differences). Higher rates of  
85 allergology and ophthalmology visits were found for participants exposed to higher pollutants'  
86 concentrations. When considering the 4-km buffer around the industries, associations with  
87 respiratory hospitalizations became significant, and associations with ER pneumology admissions,  
88 allergology and ophthalmology visits became stronger. Formaldehyde was not associated with the  
89 outcomes considered.

90 **Conclusion**

91 Using administrative indicators of health effects *a priori* attributable to air pollution, we  
92 documented the adverse impact of long-term air pollution exposure in residential areas of the  
93 Viadana district close to the largest chipboard industries in Italy. These findings, combined with  
94 evidence from previous studies, call for an action to improve air quality through preventive  
95 measures especially targeting emissions related to industrial activities.

## 96 1. INTRODUCTION

97

98 Chipboard production is the industrial sector with the greatest environmental impact in the health  
99 district of Viadana, comprising ten municipalities in the Mantova province (Northern Italy) and  
100 counting 47,701 inhabitants in 2018 (<http://demo.istat.it>). The district includes the largest chipboard  
101 industrial park in the country. Two big industries in the south of the district are equipped with  
102 chemical plants to produce urea-formaldehyde resins (the most used bonding agent), chipboard  
103 production and storage facilities, and small incinerators (Marcon et al., 2014). Smaller wood  
104 factories, such as sawmills, pallet and plywood production facilities, are spread around the central  
105 and southern part of the district.

106 Typical air pollutants emitted from chipboard production are wood dust, formaldehyde, and  
107 combustion by-products such as nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>) and particulate matter (PM), which are  
108 released from boilers, combustion chambers of dryers, as well as vehicular traffic related to  
109 industrial activities (Dahlgren et al., 2003). Like in any urbanized area, PM, NO<sub>2</sub> and formaldehyde  
110 are also emitted in Viadana from residential vehicular traffic, biomass burning and domestic  
111 heating, particularly in the south of the district, a densely populated area close to the industries  
112 (Marcon et al., 2021). Black carbon (BC) is a toxic component of PM deriving from the incomplete  
113 combustion of fossil fuels, biofuels, and biomass.

114 Some epidemiological studies conducted on workers exposed to wood dust and formaldehyde  
115 suggested a strong impact on human health, particularly on the onset of respiratory diseases like  
116 asthma (Pérez-Ríos et al., 2010), lung cancer (Barcenas et al., 2005), nasopharyngeal cancer, and  
117 leukemia (IARC, 2006). However, less is known on the health effects of exposure at lower  
118 concentrations that are typical in outdoor air.

119 Most of the population-based studies investigating the short-term effects of exposure to air  
120 pollutants in children found increased occurrence of outpatient visits for respiratory problems,  
121 asthma, ocular discomfort and dry eye disease (Dong et al., 2021; Kim et al., 2020; M. Li et al.,  
122 2021; Y. Li et al., 2021; Mu et al., 2021; Szyszkowicz et al., 2018). Long-term exposure to air  
123 pollutants in childhood has been associated with impaired lung function (Bergstra et al., 2018;  
124 Bougas et al., 2018; Gehring et al., 2018; He et al., 2019; Tsui et al., 2018). Two epidemiological  
125 studies were carried out in the Viadana district (<http://biometria.univr.it/viadanastudy>). The Viadana  
126 I study in 2006 showed that school-aged children living close to the chipboard industries suffered  
127 from an excess of respiratory symptoms, irritation of the eyes and upper airways, they were at  
128 increased risk of school absences and hospitalizations for respiratory diseases, compared to the  
129 children living in more distant areas (de Marco et al., 2010; Girardi et al., 2012; Marchetti et al.,

130 2014; Rava et al., 2011). In the second survey (Viadana II), carried out in 2010, higher  
131 concentrations of air pollutants were found in proximity to the industries, and air pollution exposure  
132 was related to higher levels of biomarkers of genotoxic damage in children (Marcon et al., 2014).  
133 In the present analysis, a part of the Viadana III study, we investigated the associations between  
134 residential exposure to air pollution and adverse respiratory and allergic health outcomes occurred  
135 in 2013-2017, with the aim of providing an updated health surveillance of the population living in  
136 the district. For this purpose, we considered both the historical cohort recruited for Viadana I (aged  
137 9-21 in 2013) and a new cohort aged 0-8 years. We assigned exposures at home addresses through  
138 available exposure models and analyzed outcomes derived from electronic hospital records.  
139

## 140 2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

141

### 142 2.1 Study design

143 This is a prospective study of two pediatric cohorts living in the Viadana district followed up from  
144 1/1/2013 to 31/12/2017. The first cohort included 3854 boys and girls aged 9-21 years at baseline  
145 (birth years 1992-2003) who were attending district's schools in 2006, when their parents were  
146 surveyed (93% of the eligible population) (de Marco et al., 2010). The second is a new cohort of  
147 4233 children aged 0-8 years (birth years 2004-2012) which was identified from the list of the  
148 resident population receiving healthcare services by ATS Val Padana (local Health unit of  
149 Mantova). This article reports results for the two cohorts combined. Preliminary results on the  
150 separate cohorts were published in the form of a report in Italian language (Ricci et al., 2020).  
151 Overall, 166 of 3854 participants in the first cohort and 12 of 4233 participants in the second cohort  
152 were excluded because they could not be traced or they were living out of the district area at  
153 baseline (2013). Residential addresses of the remaining 7909 children were geocoded to obtain  
154 geographic coordinates as previously described (Marcon et al., 2021). The addresses that were  
155 successfully geocoded were 7525 (95.1%): 3482 (94%) and 4043 (96%) for the older and younger  
156 cohorts, respectively. The study was approved by the local Ethical board (Comitato Etico Val  
157 Padana, prot. n. 4813, 12/09/2019).

158

### 159 2.2 Electronic health records

160 We obtained electronic health records on hospital admissions, emergency room (ER) admissions,  
161 and specialist visits from ATS Val Padana during 2013-2017. These records include healthcare  
162 services provided to cohort participants from ATS Val Padana and any other health unit in the  
163 country. Hospital discharge diagnoses were coded according to the International Classification of  
164 Diseases, Ninth revision, Clinical Modification (ICD-9-CM) or equivalent 10<sup>th</sup> revision (ICD-10).  
165 In the present analysis, we considered hospital admissions for respiratory diseases (ICD-9: 460-519  
166 or ICD-10: J00-J99) identified using the primary diagnoses reported in the records, which refer to  
167 the main condition treated or investigated during hospitalization. We also identified ER admissions  
168 in pneumology wards and specialist visits in pneumology (excluding lung function tests for  
169 competitive sports medical certificates), allergology (excluding dermatological examinations for  
170 non-allergological conditions e.g., skin moles), ophthalmology, and otorhinolaryngology (ORL)  
171 wards (supplementary Table S1). Specialist visits include outpatient examinations provided within  
172 the national healthcare system either for free or upon payment of a fixed amount (typically less than  
173 40€), as well as outpatient examinations provided on payment inside healthcare system premises.

174

### 175 **2.3 Exposure indicators**

176 We obtained estimates of residential exposure to outdoor air pollution at the 7525 geocoded  
177 addresses by applying exposure models available from three projects for baseline (or closest year),  
178 as described elsewhere (Marcon et al., 2021). In brief, the “Viadana II” study provided NO<sub>2</sub> and  
179 formaldehyde concentrations for 2010 by applying ordinary kriging models to passive sampling  
180 data (Marcon et al., 2014). The ELAPSE (Effects of Low-level Air Pollution: a study in Europe)  
181 study provided NO<sub>2</sub>, PM<sub>2.5</sub>, and black carbon (BC) concentrations for 2010 estimated by land use  
182 regression models using data from routine air quality stations in Western Europe combined with a  
183 range of predictor variables (de Hoogh et al., 2018). The EPISAT study (“Dati satellitari ed uso del  
184 territorio per la stima delle esposizioni a livello nazionale”) provided PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations for 2012  
185 and PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations for 2013, estimated by spatiotemporal land use regression models using  
186 data from routine air quality stations in Italy in combination with spatial and temporal predictor  
187 variables (Badaloni et al., 2018; Stafoggia et al., 2017).

188 We also calculated distance between children’s homes and industrial emission sources in the district  
189 and defined two further exposure indicators based on proximity: the minimum distance to chipboard  
190 industries in km, and a categorical indicator: 1) no wood factories (reference group); 2)  $\geq 1$  small  
191 wood factory (but no chipboard industries); 3) one chipboard industrial facility in the 2 km buffer  
192 around participants’ homes.

193

### 194 **2.4 Socio-economic status**

195 We linked residential addresses to census blocks (number inhabitants: mean=208, SD=245), and for  
196 each census block we obtained the deprivation index, a measure of the socio-economic  
197 disadvantage at a “micro-ecological” level. The index was calculated as the sum of 5 standardized  
198 indicators of poverty derived from the 2001 Italian population census data: percentage of the  
199 population with a low education level, percentage of unemployed, percentage of houses not owned,  
200 percentage of single-parent families with children, and number of people per 100 m<sup>2</sup> (Caranci et al.,  
201 2010). The index was recalibrated for the Lombardia region and categorized according to its  
202 population quintiles, from highest (index=1) to lowest socio-economic status (index=5).

203

### 204 **2.5 Statistical analysis**

205 Qualitative and quantitative data were described with percentage and median with 1<sup>st</sup> to 3<sup>rd</sup> quartile  
206 (Q1-Q3), respectively. To assess the association between exposure indicators and annual rates of  
207 outcome events, Rate Ratios (RR) were estimated using negative binomial regression models. These



208 analyses were adjusted for sex, age at baseline categorized into 6 groups to account for non-linear  
209 associations (3 groups for the younger cohort: 0-3, 3.1-5, 5.1-9 years, and 3 groups for the oldest  
210 cohort: 9.1-12, 12.1-16, 16.1-21 years), nationality, and census-block deprivation index (a proxy of  
211 individual socio-economic status). An “offset” term was included for follow-up time (the 5-years  
212 follow-up time or time until change of address). RRs were calculated for interquartile range (IQR)  
213 differences of air pollutant concentrations (Viadana II model: NO<sub>2</sub>, 3.3µg/m<sup>3</sup>, formaldehyde,  
214 0.3µg/m<sup>3</sup>; ELAPSE model: NO<sub>2</sub>, 4.2µg/m<sup>3</sup>, PM<sub>2.5</sub>, 2.8µg/m<sup>3</sup>, BC, 0.2 10<sup>-5</sup> m<sup>-1</sup>; EPISAT model:  
215 PM<sub>2.5</sub>, 2.0µg/m<sup>3</sup>, PM<sub>10</sub>, 4.4µg/m<sup>3</sup>), and for a 1-km increase in the minimum distance to the  
216 chipboard industries. Non-linear associations with the minimum distance were tested using natural  
217 spline functions. Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) and Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC)  
218 were used to choose between linear and nonlinear models, and to select the optimal number of knots  
219 for nonlinear models.

220 To assess whether exposure misclassification due to changes in residential addresses was a source  
221 of bias, the analyses were repeated after restricting the cohorts to the participants who did not move  
222 during the study period. Finally, to better appreciate the potential impact of emissions related to  
223 industrial activities, the study area was restricted to the 4-km circular buffers around the two  
224 chipboard industries (as previously done, Marcon et al., 2014).

225 The statistical analyses were performed by using STATA 16.0 (StataCorp, College Station, Texas)  
226 and R software (version 3.5.2).

227

228

### 229 3. RESULTS

230 Overall, 7525 subjects were included in the study (4043 in the 0-8 years cohort and 3482 in the 9-21  
231 years cohort). Of these, 48.6% were females, 24.2% had foreign parents and more than half had a  
232 deprivation index  $\leq 2$  (Table 1). The children admitted to hospital for respiratory diseases or ER in  
233 the pneumology ward were 324 and 2278, respectively (Table 2); 145, 594, 1838, and 848 children  
234 were visited by specialists in pneumology, allergology, ophthalmology, and ORL, respectively.  
235 Except for specialist allergology visits, mean annual counts of events per child were higher in the  
236 younger cohort (Table 2).

237 The distribution of estimated annual exposures to air pollution are reported in supplementary Table  
238 S2. As regards regulated pollutants, the median concentrations of NO<sub>2</sub>, PM<sub>10</sub>, and PM<sub>2.5</sub> were below  
239 the European Union annual air quality standards (40, 40, and 25  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ , respectively). However,  
240 they were higher than the World Health Organization 2021 guideline levels (10, 15, and 5  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ,  
241 respectively), the most recent evidence-based recommendation for health protection. There was an  
242 increasing gradient of exposures to NO<sub>2</sub>, PM<sub>2.5</sub>, and BC estimated using the Viadana II and  
243 ELAPSE models from reference areas (no factories <2 km) to the areas with the chipboard  
244 industries (supplementary Table S2); differences between median concentrations were quite small  
245 for formaldehyde. Median concentrations of PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> estimated using the EPISAT models  
246 were similar across groups, or slightly lower in the group of children living closer to smaller wood  
247 factories. Correlations between estimated exposures to air pollutants were low, apart from moderate  
248 correlations for air pollutants estimated by the same exposure model (ELAPSE: spearman's  $\rho$  0.72  
249 to 0.77; EPISAT: spearman's  $\rho$  0.63) (Table 3).

#### 251 3.1 Associations between air pollution exposures and health outcomes

252 There were no associations between exposures to air pollutants and the rates of respiratory  
253 hospitalizations or specialist visits in pneumology (Figure 1, A and C). Associations with ER  
254 admissions in pneumology were positive and significant for four of seven pollutants (Figure 1, B):  
255 for these, the estimated excess of annual ER admissions for an IQR difference in exposure ranged  
256 from 13% for NO<sub>2</sub> (Viadana II model, RR 1.13, 95% CI: 1.06-1.22) to 30% for PM<sub>2.5</sub> (ELAPSE  
257 model, RR 1.30, 95% CI: 1.20-1.41). For the remaining three pollutants (formaldehyde, and PM<sub>2.5</sub>  
258 and PM<sub>10</sub> from EPISAT model), estimated associations were close to the null. Increasing exposures  
259 were associated with higher rates of specialist allergology visits for all pollutants; the increase in  
260 annual rates ranged from 10% for an IQR difference in NO<sub>2</sub> exposure (Viadana II model, RR 1.10,  
261 95% CI: 0.93-1.31) to 32% for an IQR difference in PM<sub>10</sub> exposure (EPISAT model, RR 1.32,  
262 95% CI 1.14-1.52) (Figure 2, A). The increase in ophthalmology visits per an IQR higher

263 concentration of pollutants ranged from 2% for formaldehyde (RR 1.02, 95% CI: 0.94-1.10) to 12%  
264 for NO<sub>2</sub> (Viadana model, RR 1.12, 95% CI: 1.03-1.22) (Figure 2, B). The rate of ORL visits was  
265 not consistently associated with air pollutants concentrations (Figure 2, C).

266 The sensitivity analysis on the participants who did not move their residential address during the  
267 follow-up period provided similar association estimates (supplementary Figure S1). The sensitivity  
268 analysis on the participants living within 4 km from the chipboard industries confirmed the lack of  
269 association also observed in the main analysis for pneumology and ORL specialist visits, but for the  
270 other outcomes estimated associations were shifted away from the null towards higher RRs  
271 (supplementary Figure S2). In particular, exposures resulted associated with the rates of  
272 hospitalization for respiratory diseases: the excess in hospitalizations ranged from 4% per IQR  
273 difference in exposure to PM<sub>2.5</sub>, EPISAT model (RR 1.04, 95%CI: 0.79-1.38) to 140% per IQR  
274 difference in exposure to PM<sub>2.5</sub>, ELAPSE model (RR 2.40, 95%CI: 1.09-5.67). Five of seven  
275 pollutants showed a significant association with ER admissions in pneumology, with an estimated  
276 increase in rates ranging from 9% for PM<sub>10</sub> (EPISAT model, RR 1.09, 95%CI: 1.00-1.18) to 76%  
277 for PM<sub>2.5</sub> (ELAPSE model, RR 1.76, 95%CI: 1.36-2.30). Allergology and ophthalmology visits also  
278 shifted towards stronger associations.

### 280 **3.2 Associations between indicators of proximity and study outcomes**

281 Compared with the reference exposure group of children living at >2km from any wood factory in  
282 the district, the children living close to the chipboard industries (<2 km) had a 51% higher rate of  
283 ER admissions in pneumology (RR 1.51, 95%CI: 1.35-1.69) and an 87% higher rate of specialist  
284 pneumology visits (RR 1.87, 95%CI: 1.11-3.14) (Table 4). The children living close to the small  
285 wood factories (<2 km) showed a 17% higher rate of ER admissions in pneumology (RR 1.17,  
286 95%CI: 1.05-1.31), compared to the reference group.

287 When looking at exposures in terms of minimum distance of homes to chipboard industries, a linear  
288 downward relationship was found for pneumology visits (supplementary Table S3), with a 5%  
289 decrease in rates per km (RR 0.95, 95%CI: 0.92, 0.98). Nonlinear exposure-outcome associations  
290 were found for ER admissions and specialist allergology visits (supplementary Figure S3). ER  
291 admission rates were highest for the children living closest to the chipboard industries (15 per 100  
292 children/year) but were increased also for the children living 8-10 km away from the industries (12  
293 per 100 children/year), and were lowest at a distance greater than 20 km (5 per 100 children/year)  
294 (panel left). A J-shaped relationship was found for allergology visits, with higher rates estimated  
295 both for the children living closer to the chipboard industries (4 per 100 children/year) and for those

296 living 20 km away (4-6 per 100 children/year), compared to the children living at 8-10 km (3 per  
297 100 children/year) (panel right).

298

299

300

#### 301 **4. DISCUSSION**

302 This prospective cohort study provides evidence on the health effects of air pollution in the  
303 paediatric population living in the health district of Viadana, an industrial area of the Po Valley in  
304 Northern Italy. The air quality in the Po Valley is among the worst in Europe, due to the intensity of  
305 urban and industrial emissions and meteorological conditions favouring air stagnation (Zhu et al.,  
306 2012). We followed up two cohorts covering overall the ages from birth up to 21 years. For the  
307 older cohort (9-21 years), a greater health risk in relation to air pollution exposure and proximity to  
308 industrial premises was previously reported (de Marco et al., 2010; Marchetti et al., 2014; Marcon  
309 et al., 2014; Rava et al., 2011). The younger cohort (0-8 years) was included because infants and  
310 children are expected to be particularly susceptible to the air pollution effects. In fact, they typically  
311 spend more time outdoors, have higher ventilation rates, and their immune systems are not fully  
312 developed, which causes their lungs and airways to adsorb higher internal doses and predisposes  
313 this age group to greater air pollution effects (Schultz et al., 2017). Exposure to high air pollution  
314 levels in early life may result in increased acute lower respiratory illnesses, respiratory symptoms,  
315 bronchitis, and asthma; moreover, children exposed to higher levels of ambient air pollution have  
316 impaired lung growth and are at risk of accelerated lung function decline in adulthood (Garcia et al.,  
317 2021; Sly & Flack, 2008).

318 Air pollution is a complex mixture of highly correlated chemical components. Such high  
319 correlations are due to the fact that air pollutants share combustion-related emission sources (e.g.,  
320 vehicular traffic, power generation, and heating) but it is also linked to their common mechanisms  
321 of transport, dispersion, and ground deposition, mainly related to meteorological conditions. Some  
322 pollutants, such as PM<sub>10</sub>, PM<sub>2.5</sub>, and NO<sub>2</sub> are typically considered in epidemiological studies both  
323 for their specific health effects and as proxy indicators of exposure to the complex air pollution  
324 mixture. Long-term exposure to NO<sub>2</sub>, PM<sub>2.5</sub> and its subcomponent BC were found to be associated  
325 with the development of childhood asthma, asthma exacerbations, wheeze, and rhinitis (Burte et al.,  
326 2018; Khreis et al., 2017; Lau et al., 2020; Norbäck et al., 2019; Tétreault et al., 2016). These  
327 pollutants can induce airway inflammation, oxidative stress, and enhance respiratory sensitization to  
328 aeroallergens, which could also contribute to the development and exacerbation of asthma  
329 (Guarnieri & Balmes, 2014). Like for the previous studies conducted in the Viadana district,  
330 formaldehyde was included as a marker of activities related to chipboard production. Nonetheless,  
331 formaldehyde is also produced as a secondary pollutant through photooxidation of pollutants  
332 emitted by vehicular traffic and other combustion-related processes.

333 Strengths of the present study compared to the previous ones in the district are the large sample  
334 size, the variety of health outcomes investigated, and the availability of residential exposure

335 estimates derived from diverse models developed at the international (ELAPSE), national  
336 (EPISAT), and local (Viadana II) scales. In our study, estimates of exposure to PM<sub>2.5</sub> (ELAPSE and  
337 EPISAT) and NO<sub>2</sub> (Viadana II and ELAPSE) were available from two models, while formaldehyde  
338 (Viadana II), BC (ELAPSE), and PM<sub>10</sub> (EPISAT) were derived from a single exposure model. It is  
339 relevant to consider that the three available exposure models employed a variety of data sources  
340 (routine air quality measurements vs *ad hoc* sampling), methodologies (kriging vs LUR), and input  
341 data periods (2010–2013 vs 2017–2018). As also discussed elsewhere (Marcon et al., 2021), none  
342 of these models could be considered a “gold standard” for exposure assessment, also because we  
343 could not identify a priori the exposure metrics that would better fit the postulated mechanism of  
344 action of air pollutants emitted from chipboard production. Moreover, we were interested in  
345 assessing the impact of exposure to a mixture of air pollutants, rather than disentangling the effects  
346 of specific pollutants. These considerations imply that the key factor for a causal interpretation of  
347 the estimated air pollution effects must be consistency across associations obtained from analyses  
348 considering different air pollution metrics. Extending this concept, understanding whether air  
349 pollution emissions related to the chipboard industrial areas are an important contributor to the  
350 observed health effects requires to take indicators of proximity to the industrial premises into  
351 account.

352 Findings from the present study support a relationship between exposure to air pollution and  
353 adverse health outcomes in children and adolescents residing in the district. The outcomes hereby  
354 considered were selected among those more likely attributable to exposure of the mucosae of the  
355 upper and lower airways and eyes. The most consistent finding was the association of air pollution  
356 exposures with ER pneumology admissions. Significant detrimental associations were seen for  
357 NO<sub>2</sub>, estimated by the Viadana II and ELAPSE models, and for PM<sub>2.5</sub> and BC estimated by the  
358 ELAPSE model. The facts that proximity to the chipboard industries was also associated with an  
359 excess of ER admissions, and that associations estimated within the 4 km buffer around the  
360 industries were stronger, suggest that emissions related to industrial activities play a key role. In  
361 fact, the 4-km buffers around the industrial facilities represent a smaller district area where bias due  
362 to exposure misclassification and unmeasured confounding are expected to be smaller. Null  
363 associations in the main analysis for PM<sub>2.5</sub> and PM<sub>10</sub> estimated using the EPISAT model shifted  
364 towards RRs greater than one in the analysis of the 4-km buffers. Likewise, exposures to NO<sub>2</sub>,  
365 PM<sub>2.5</sub>, and PM<sub>10</sub> were not associated with hospitalisations for respiratory diseases in the main  
366 analysis, but they were associated with hospitalisations in the analysis restricted to the 4-km buffer.  
367 Outpatient visit in pneumology were associated with proximity indicators, but not with air pollution  
368 exposures, which could be in part related to the lower number of events for this outcome (n=283

369 visits from 145 participants) compared to the others. The lack of association between formaldehyde  
370 exposure and the outcomes investigated in the present study suggests that these health effects are  
371 not on the same pathogenetic pathway of the known formaldehyde cancerogenic effects; in fact, in  
372 the Viadana II study, genotoxicity in mouth mucosa cells was found to be increased with  
373 formaldehyde exposure levels similar to those observed in the present study (Marcon et al., 2014).  
374 Taken together, associations of health outcomes with a variety (but not all) exposure indicators  
375 support that, rather than specific airborne chemicals, the mixture of pollutants emitted both from  
376 industrial (including power generation and heavy traffic induced by production) and non-industrial  
377 (urban) sources has an adverse public health impact.

378 Our findings fall in line with other studies on air pollution effect in children. A study carried out in  
379 the United States showed that, among children aged 5 to 20 years, hospitalizations and ER  
380 admissions for asthma increased by 7.2% and 4.2%, respectively, for a 1  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  increase in  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$   
381 exposure (Keet et al., 2018).  $\text{NO}_2$  has also been associated with increased respiratory symptoms and  
382 ER admissions among people with asthma (Madaniyazi & Xerxes, 2021).

383 Long-term exposure to PM and  $\text{NO}_2$  has been associated with symptoms of the upper airways  
384 (runny nose, sore throat, cough, and ear pain) also by increasing susceptibility to viral infections as  
385 well as lower airways symptoms (persistent cough, shortness of breath-dyspnoea, wheezing, and  
386 chest pain) (Liu et al., 2018). Exposure to air pollutants can have a negative impact on the eyes by  
387 promoting inflammation, conjunctivitis, oxidative stress of the conjunctiva and cornea (Dadvand et  
388 al., 2017; Łatka et al., 2018). It is also known that short-term air pollution exposure can trigger  
389 allergic reactions. Powders can adsorb and transport pollen and other aeroallergens (D'Amato et al.,  
390 2007; Grundström et al., 2017).

391 These results are consistent with the Viadana I questionnaire survey carried out in the district that  
392 found an excess risk of nose, mouth, throat, and eye irritation symptoms in children who lived near  
393 the chipboard industries (de Marco et al., 2010). It is plausible that irritation symptoms of the  
394 airways and eye conjunctiva may have increased the prescription of allergological and eye specialist  
395 visits. Short-term exposure to  $\text{NO}_2$  and  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  has also been associated with the occurrence of  
396 nonspecific conjunctivitis (Bourcier et al., 2003; Chang et al., 2012); in particular children with  
397 conjunctivitis under 4 years of age were reported to seek medical attention more frequently  
398 (Szyszkowicz et al., 2016). Interestingly, preliminary cohort-specific analyses highlighted that  
399 excesses of eye visits in relation to exposure were mainly seen in the older cohort, an age group  
400 where refractory disorders are typically more frequent than at younger ages (Ricci et al., 2020). In a  
401 cross-sectional study carried out in Spain, traffic related air pollutants were associated with the use

402 of spectacles in children, a surrogate indicator for myopia (Dadvand et al., 2017). Similarly, a study  
403 conducted in Taiwan showed that PM<sub>2.5</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations were associated with the incidence  
404 of myopia in children, and provided experimental data on animals suggesting that exposure to  
405 ambient air pollutants may be a risk factor for the pathogenesis of this condition (Wei et al., 2019).  
406 Eye examinations were more frequent among the children living closer to the industries than further  
407 away. On the other hand, we observed a J-shape relationship between distance to the industries and  
408 the rate of allergology visits, with an increase of events close to the industries but also at the  
409 maximum distance. One possible explanation is that the children living in the rural area far away  
410 from the industries might be more exposed to green spaces, which have been linked to increased  
411 allergic and respiratory diseases in children, possibly due to a higher exposure to pollen (Parmes et  
412 al., 2020).

413

#### 414 **Limitations**

415 One study limitation is that we did not have data on some potential confounders. Second-hand  
416 smoking exposure, but also active smoking for young adolescents (Marcon et al., 2018), could be an  
417 uncontrolled source of confounding in our study. Although we adjusted for a micro-ecologic  
418 indicator of deprivation, we lacked individual-level data that could have captured different aspects  
419 of the association between socio-economic position and exposure to air pollution (Temam et al.,  
420 2017). For the cohort aged 9-21 years, some additional information on these factors were available  
421 from the Viadana I parental questionnaire administered in 2006, but only common covariates were  
422 considered in the present combined analysis of the two cohorts. Nonetheless, results from the  
423 analysis of the older cohort were quite similar to the results of the combined analysis when further  
424 adjusting for parental smoking habits and parental education (Ricci et al., 2020). In our study,  
425 outcomes were derived from administrative data, and we had no information on clinical validity.  
426 This is particularly relevant for outpatient visits, which have been scarcely used in Italy for defining  
427 outcomes related to pollution. Data on visits by private providers outside the hospital premises were  
428 not available. Another drawback is that, given the proximity between the chipboard industries and  
429 the most urbanised areas in Viadana, it was not possible to disentangle between industrial emissions  
430 and other anthropic sources of contaminants.

431



432 **5. CONCLUSIONS**

433 Our follow-up study documented associations of air pollution exposure and proximity to chipboard  
434 industries with the risk of adverse respiratory and allergic outcomes among 7525 children and  
435 adolescents living in a chipboard industrial area in Northern Italy. These findings, combined with  
436 evidence from previous studies analyzing different subjective (parent-reported symptoms) and  
437 objective outcomes (markers of genotoxicity), call for an action to improve air quality in the study  
438 area through preventive measures targeting all known air pollution sources and, in particular,  
439 emissions directly and indirectly related to the industrial activities.

440

441

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443

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447 Diagnostics and Public Health, University of Verona.

448

449 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

450 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships  
451 that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

452

453 **Ethical approval** The Viadana III study has been approved by the Ethical Committee Val Padana  
454 (Prot. n. 4813, 12/02/2019).

455

456 **Consent to participate** The parents or guardians of each child participating in the questionnaire  
457 survey in 2006 signed an informed consent. The need for a consent to participate was waived for  
458 children identified through electronic health records since data were anonymized.

459

460 **Appendix A.** Supplementary material

461

462

463

464 **TABLES**

465

466 *Table 1. Baseline socio-demographic characteristics of participants.*

<b>Characteristics</b>	<b>Cohort 0-8 years</b> (N=4043)	<b>Cohort 9-21 years</b> (N=3482)	<b>Overall</b> (N=7525)
<b>Age</b> , median [Q1, Q3] (years)	4.6 [2.4, 6.8]	14.6 [11.8, 17.4]	8.4 [4.3, 14.2]
<b>Female sex</b> , n (%)	2038 (50.4)	1622 (46.6)	3660 (48.6)
<b>Foreign nationality</b> , n (%)	1322 (32.7)	502 (14.4)	1824 (24.2)
<b>Deprivation index</b> , n (%)			
1 (least deprived)	982 (24.3)	856 (24.6)	1838 (25.0)
2	1064 (26.3)	976 (28.0)	2040 (27.7)
3	749 (18.5)	677 (19.4)	1426 (19.4)
4	749 (18.5)	575 (16.5)	1324 (18.0)
5 (most deprived)	387 (9.6)	339 (9.7)	726 (9.9)

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470

471 *Table 2. Summary statistics on the events occurred during the follow-up period (2013-2017).*

<b>Events</b>	<b>Cohort 0-8 years</b> (N=4043)	<b>Cohort 9-21 years</b> (N=3482)	<b>Overall</b> (N=7525)
<b>Moving outside the district</b> , n (%)	793 (19.6)	499 (14.3)	1292 (17.2)
<b>Hospitalizations for respiratory diseases</b>			
N. children admitted	264	60	324
Mean count per child admitted	1.15	1.03	1.13
<b>ER admissions in pneumology</b>			
N. children admitted	1405	873	2278
Mean count per child admitted	1.87	1.47	1.72
<b>Specialist visits in pneumology</b>			
N. children visited	67	78	145
Mean count per child visited	2.25	1.69	1.95
<b>Specialist visits in allergology</b>			
N. children visited	266	328	594
Mean count per child visited	2.12	2.38	2.26
<b>Specialist visits in ophthalmology</b>			
N. children visited	1001	837	1838
Mean count per child visited	1.92	1.83	1.88
<b>Specialist visits in ORL</b>			
N. children visited	533	315	848
Mean count per child visited	1.55	1.41	1.50

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473

474 *Table 3. Spearman's rank coefficients for the correlations among air pollutants, calculated using*  
 475 *data from all the children (n= 7525). For each pollutant, the source study is reported.*

Study	Pollutant	Viadana		Elapse			Episat	
		NO <sub>2</sub>	Form.	NO <sub>2</sub>	PM <sub>2.5</sub>	BC	PM <sub>2.5</sub>	PM <sub>10</sub>
Viadana	NO <sub>2</sub>	1						
	Form.	0.37	1					
Elapse	NO <sub>2</sub>	0.39	0.36	1				
	PM <sub>2.5</sub>	0.50	0.41	0.75	1			
	BC	0.39	0.29	0.77	0.72	1		
Episat	PM <sub>2.5</sub>	0.18	0.26	0.37	0.29	0.31	1	
	PM <sub>10</sub>	0.15	0.32	0.35	0.23	0.30	0.63	1

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481 *Table 4. Estimated associations (95% CI) of distance to chipboard industries and small wood*  
 482 *factories with the count of outcome events during 2013-2017 in the pediatric population (age 0-21,*  
 483 *n=7525).\**

Outcome	Categorical Exposure (buffer's level)	IRR (95%CI)
Hospitalizations for respiratory diseases	< 2 km small factories	0.86 (0.64, 1.14)
	< 2 km chipboard industries	0.95 (0.72, 1.26)
ED admissions in pneumology	< 2 km small factories	1.17 (1.05, 1.31)
	< 2 km chipboard industries	1.51 (1.35, 1.69)
Specialist visits in pneumology	< 2 km small factories	1.32 (0.78, 2.23)
	< 2 km chipboard industries	1.87 (1.11, 3.14)
Specialist visits in allergology	< 2 km small factories	0.80 (0.61, 1.05)
	< 2 km chipboard industries	1.00 (0.76, 1.31)
Specialist visits in ophthalmology	< 2 km small factories	0.95 (0.84, 1.09)
	< 2 km chipboard industries	1.12 (0.99, 1.28)
Specialist visits in ORL	< 2 km small factories	1.04 (0.86, 1.25)
	< 2 km chipboard industries	0.89 (0.73, 1.08)

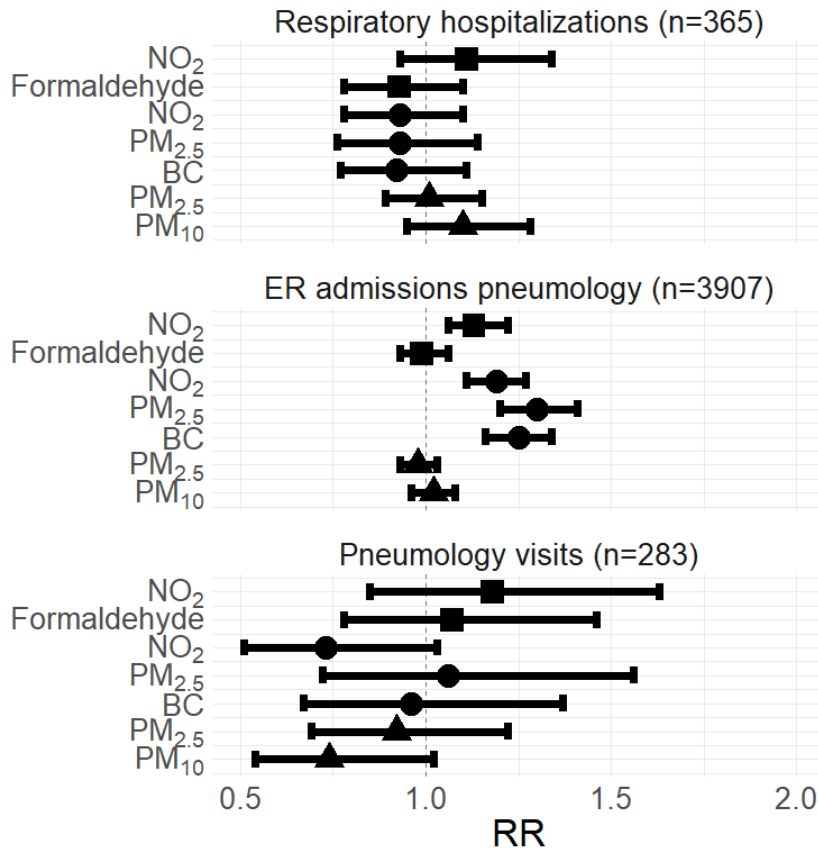
484 \* obtained using negative binomial regression models adjusted for sex, age (sextiles), and nationality  
 485 (Italian/not Italian).

486

487 **FIGURES**

488

489 *Figure 1. Estimated associations of exposure to air pollutants with counts of hospitalizations (A),*  
 490 *ER admissions (B), and specialist visits (C) for respiratory diseases during 2013-2017 (age 0-21,*  
 491 *n=7525)\**



492

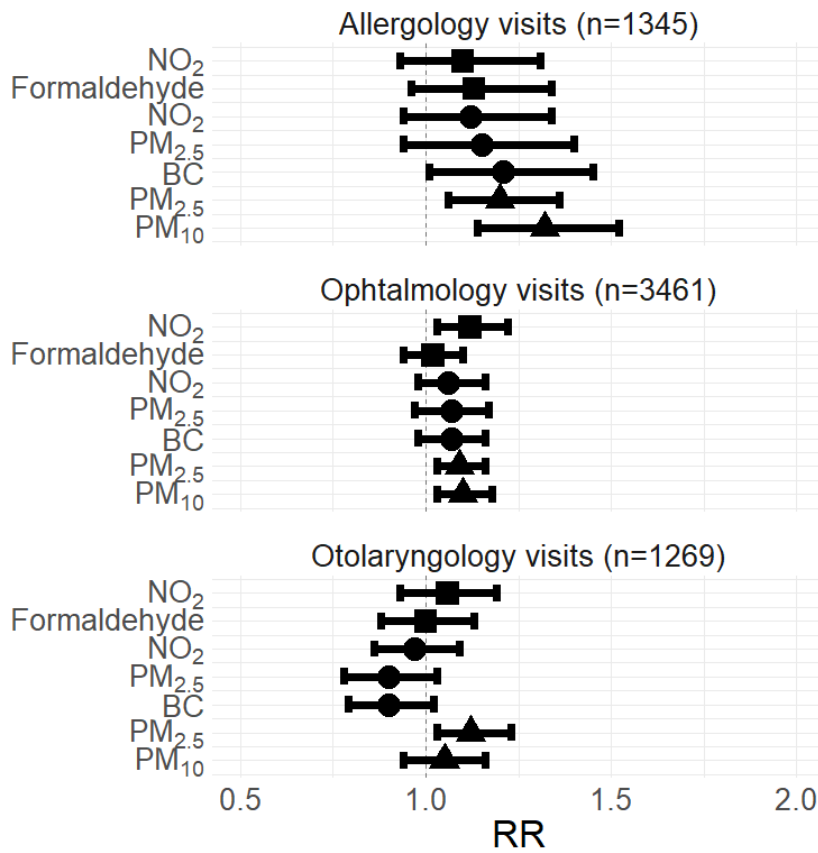
493 \* Rate Ratios (RR) with 95% CI for a 1-IQR increase in air pollutant concentrations, obtained using negative  
 494 binomial regression models adjusted for sex, age at baseline, nationality, and census-block deprivation index;  
 495 symbols indicate exposure models: squares = Viadana II; circles = ELAPSE; triangles = EPISAT

496

497

498

499 *Figure 2. Estimated associations of exposure to air pollutants with counts of specialist visits in*  
 500 *allergology (A), ophthalmology (B), and otolaryngology (C) during 2013-2017 (age 0-21,*  
 501 *n=7525)\**



502

503 \* Rate Ratios (RR) with 95% CI for a 1-IQR increase in air pollutant concentrations, obtained using negative  
 504 binomial regression models adjusted for sex, age at baseline, nationality, and census-block deprivation index;  
 505 symbols indicate exposure models: squares = Viadana II; circles = ELAPSE; triangles = EPISAT

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686 **Supplementary materials**

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689 **Manuscript title:** Residential exposure to air pollution and adverse respiratory and allergic  
690 outcomes in children and adolescents living in a chipboard industrial area of Northern Italy

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695 present manuscript)

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699 *Table S1. Count of outcome events by cohort.*

Outcome	Cohort 0-8 years	Cohort 9-21 years	Overall count
Hospitalizations for respiratory diseases	303	62	365
ER admissions in pneumology	2627	1280	3907
Specialist visits in allergology	563	782	1345
Specialist visits in pneumology	151	132	283
Specialist visits in ORL	824	445	1269
Specialist visits in ophthalmology	1926	1535	3461

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703 *Tab S2. Distribution of air pollutant concentrations at baseline according to distance to the*  
 704 *chipboard industries and the other wood factories. \**

		Distance to the factories			
		Overall	≥ 2 km from any factory	< 2 km from small wood factories	< 2km from a chipboard industrial facility
Exposure model	n	7525	2861	2228	2436
VIADANA	NO <sub>2</sub> , µg/m <sup>3</sup>	16.4 (14.8, 18.1)	15.4 (13.9, 16.2)	16.6 (14.3, 17.8)	18.3 (16.7, 19.3)
	Formaldehyde, µg/m <sup>3</sup>	2.6 (2.4, 2.7)	2.4 (2.2, 2.6)	2.5 (2.4, 2.6)	2.7 (2.6, 2.7)
ELAPSE	NO <sub>2</sub> , µg/m <sup>3</sup>	27.3 (24.9, 29.1)	26.0 (24.1, 28.0)	26.7 (24.8, 28.7)	28.9 (27.4, 29.9)
	PM <sub>2.5</sub> , µg/m <sup>3</sup>	26.0 (23.9, 26.7)	23.9 (23.1, 25.5)	25.7 (24.1, 26.4)	26.8 (26.4, 26.9)
	BC, 10 <sup>-5</sup> m <sup>-1</sup>	1.9 (1.8, 2.0)	1.9 (1.8, 2.0)	1.9 (1.8, 2.0)	2.0 (2.0, 2.0)
EPISAT	PM <sub>2.5</sub> , µg/m <sup>3</sup>	25.3 (24.3, 26.3)	25.2 (23.8, 26.3)	25.1 (24.2, 26.4)	25.4 (24.8, 26.1)
	PM <sub>10</sub> , µg/m <sup>3</sup>	36.4 (34.2, 38.5)	36.7 (34.5, 38.8)	35.1 (32.6, 37.5)	37.0 (35.5, 39.2)

705 \* median (Q<sub>1</sub>-Q<sub>3</sub>) reported; p<0.001 for all the comparisons across strata (Kruskal Wallis tests)

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709 *Table S3. Estimated associations of the minimum distance to the chipboard industries with count of*  
 710 *outcome events during 2013-2017 (age 0-21, n=7525). \**

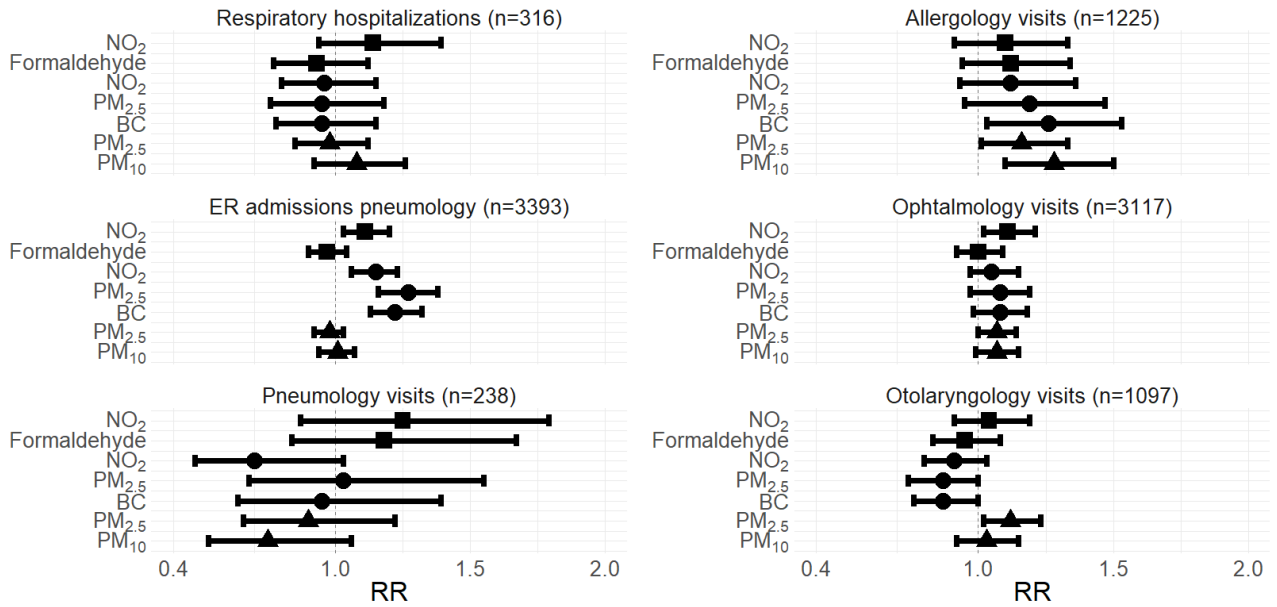
Outcome	IRR (95%CI)
Hospitalizations for respiratory diseases	1.00 (0.98, 1.02)
Specialist visits in pneumology	0.95 (0.92, 0.98)
Specialist visits in ORL	1.00 (0.99, 1.01)
Specialist visits in ophthalmology	0.99 (0.99, 1.00)

711 \* Rate Ratios (RR) with 95% CI for a 1-km increase in the minimum distance, obtained using negative  
 712 binomial regression models adjusted for sex, age at baseline, nationality, and census-block deprivation index

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715 *Fig S1. Estimated associations of exposure to air pollutants with counts of respiratory*  
716 *hospitalizations, ER admissions in pneumology, and specialist visits in pneumology, allergology,*  
717 *ophthalmology, and ORL during 2013-2017: sensitivity analysis among participants who did not*  
718 *move during the follow-up (n=6,233)\**



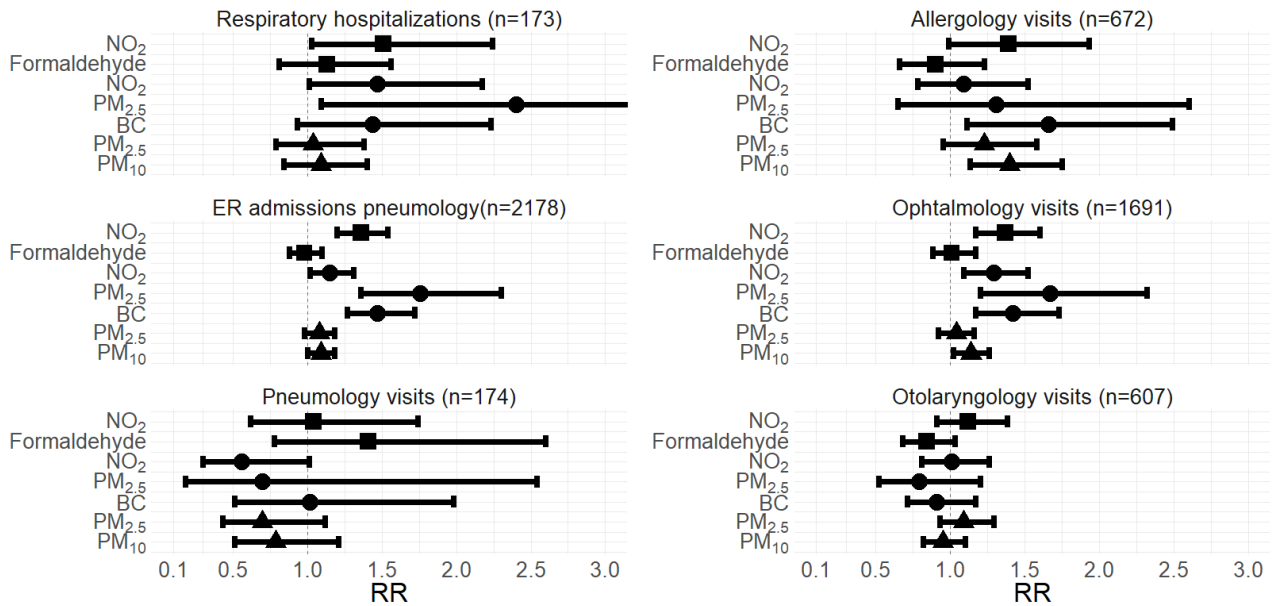
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720 \* Rate Ratios (RR) with 95% CI for a 1-IQR increase in air pollutant concentrations, obtained using negative  
721 binomial regression models adjusted for sex, age at baseline, nationality, and census-block deprivation index;  
722 symbols indicate exposure models: squares = Viadana II; circles = ELAPSE; triangles = EPISAT

723

724

725 Fig S2. Estimated associations of exposure to air pollutants with counts of respiratory  
 726 hospitalizations, ER admissions in pneumology, and specialist visits in pneumology, allergology,  
 727 ophthalmology, and ORL during 2013-2017: sensitivity analysis among participants living in the 4  
 728 km buffers around the chipboard industries (n=3,591) \*



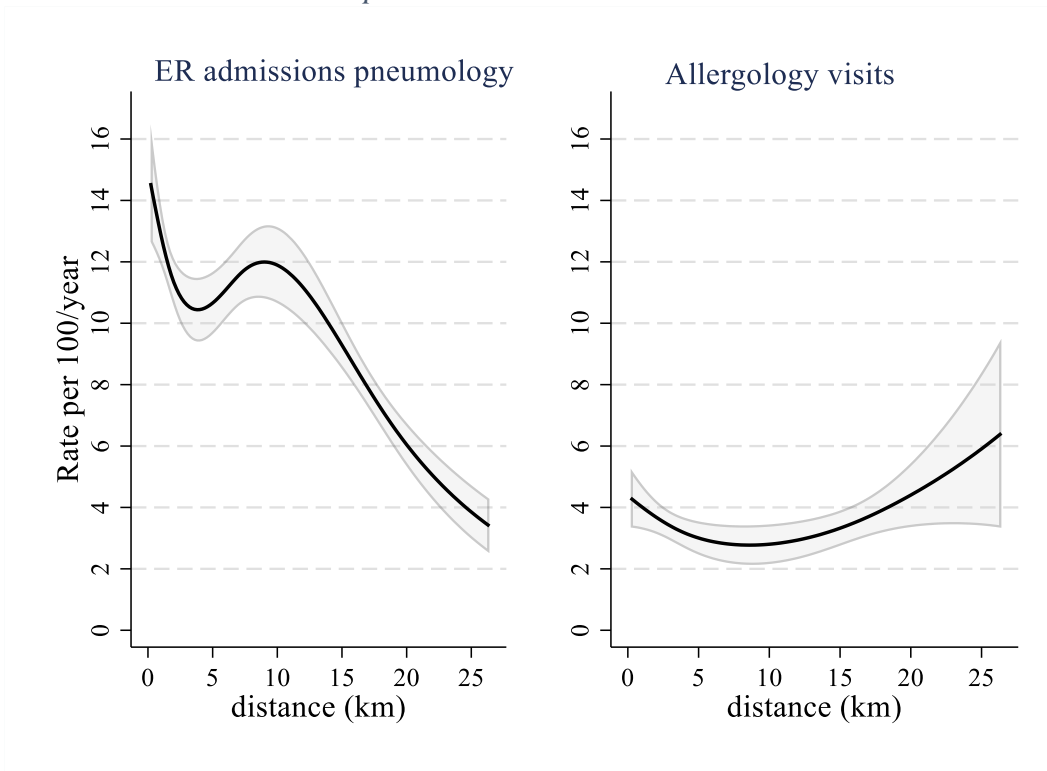
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730 \* Rate Ratios (RR) with 95% CI for a 1-IQR increase in air pollutant concentrations, obtained using negative  
 731 binomial regression models adjusted for sex, age at baseline, nationality, and census-block deprivation index;  
 732 symbols indicate exposure models: squares = Viadana II; circles = ELAPSE; triangles = EPISAT. Panel A,  
 733 PM<sub>2.5</sub> ELAPSE: 95%CI confidence interval cut for graphical reasons: RR 2.40, 95% CI: 1.09-5.67

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736 *Fig S3. Predicted count of ER admissions in pneumology and specialist visits in allergology by*  
737 *minimum distance to the chipboard industries.*



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739 \* calculated using negative binomial regression models adjusted for sex, age at baseline, nationality, and  
740 census-block deprivation index; distance was modelled using natural spline functions with 4 (A) and 3 knots  
741 (B), respectively.

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