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Do exposure to outdoor temperatures and air pollutants affect the work-related injuries risk? A case-crossover study in three Italian cities, 2001-2010

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Manuscript title: Do exposure to outdoor temperatures and air pollutants affect the work-related injuries risk? A case-crossover study in three Italian cities, 2001-2010.

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Abstract

Objectives

Studies on the effect of temperature on rates of work-related injuries (WRI) have only recently emerged in the literature, and are constantly evolving in depth and scope. However, less is known about potential effects of air pollutants. Our objective was to analyze the association between WRI and specific air pollutants and air temperature in three major Italian cities, and to identify groups of workers more at risk in Italy.

Design time-stratified case-crossover study

Settings Milan, Turin and Rome, years 2001-2010

Participants A total of 468,816 WRI occurred between 2001-2010 in Milan, Turin and Rome and were extracted from the Italian national workers' compensation authority (INAIL) database.

Main outcomes Associations between WRI and temperature, particulate matter $\leq 10 \mu\text{m}$ (PM₁₀), nitrogen dioxide (NO₂), separately in the warm and in the cold season (WS, May-September; CS, November-February). Effect modification was studied by economic sector, occupational activity and indoor/outdoor place of work.

Results

Exposure to NO₂ (lag 0-8) showed the highest effect on the risk of WRI, with ORs ranging from 1.20 (95% CI: 1.16-1.24) in Milan to 1.30 (95% CI: 1.24-1.37) in Turin in the WS. The effect of exposure to PM₁₀ was milder. Temperature was associated with risk of WRI only among those

1
2 64 working in construction (highest association in Rome 1.06; 95% CI: 1.01-1.12), transportation
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4 65 (highest association in Milan 1.05; 95% CI: 0.96-1.14) and the energy industry (highest association
5
6 66 in Milan 1.57; 95% CI: 1.03-2.38) in the WS in all cities. A weak effect of low temperatures was
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8
9 67 observed in the CS only in Rome.

10
11 68 **Conclusions**

12
13 69 Exposures to NO₂ resulted as strongest hazard for work related injuries, mainly in warm months,
14
15 70 while the independent effect of temperature was significant only in specific subgroups of workers.
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17 71 These results introduce new evidence that if confirmed by other studies should be considered when
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19 72 planning health and safety prevention programs.
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22 73

23
24 74 **Keywords:** air pollution; temperature; climate change; occupational health; work-related injuries;
25
26 75 case crossover study
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30 77 **Strenghts and Limitations**

- 31
32 78 • We used a very large dataset that was not derived from self-reported data
33
34 79 • We analysed data from three major Italian cities with different meteorological and pollution
35
36 80 condition
37
38 81 • we estimated the independent effects of temperature and air pollution, controlling one for
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40 82 the other in the model
41
42 83 • daily injury claims may be underestimated because of under-reporting of workers'
43
44 84 compensation claims and due to incomplete coverage of the public insurance system lead by
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46 85 INAIL
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48 86 • All exposure measures used were daily averages deriving from fixed points of measurement
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50 87 in the city
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54 88 **Background**
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89 Extreme weather events are becoming more frequent and intense as a result of climate change [1]
90 and the relationship between extreme temperature and population health has been well
91 documented.[2] Furthermore, air quality is influenced by a changing climate, which in turn impacts
92 population health.[3]The association between outdoor temperature and air pollutants with mortality
93 and morbidity in the general population has stimulated a large body of research, identifying
94 susceptible subgroups, such as the elderly, people with chronic respiratory and cardiovascular
95 diseases, and children.[4,5]
96 However, the consequences of climate and pollutants on work environments and their subsequent
97 effects on job performance and safety are only recently coming to light.
98 Numerous factors such as worksite location and weather conditions may affect occupational
99 exposure to air pollution; and likewise, indoor workplace environments may affect and exacerbate
100 the adverse health effects of exposure to outdoor air pollutants. This is particularly a concern in
101 workers with pre-existing health conditions and could theoretically lead to an increase in safety
102 issues. The association between intense and prolonged occupational exposure to heat and health
103 effects on workers is characterized by dehydration and spasms, increased perceived fatigue, reduced
104 productivity and decreased reaction capacities,[6] exacerbating hazards resulting from sweaty
105 palms, fogged-up safety glasses, dizziness, and reduced brain function. [7-11] Young, male workers
106 and those in occupations requiring physical labor, and outdoor workers, are at higher risk of adverse
107 impact because of their exposure to heat and humid conditions.[12-14] As well, workers exposed to
108 extreme cold may be at risk of cold stress, increased cardiovascular and respiratory diseases risks,
109 musculoskeletal and dermatological disorders and injuries related to hypothermia.[7,15]
110 There is good evidence of the negative effects of short-term exposure to PM₁₀ on respiratory health,
111 such as aggravated asthma, respiratory symptoms and an increase in hospital admissions.[16]
112 Nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) is a strong respiratory irritant gas originating from high-temperature
113 combustion; a large study has shown a positive association between daily increases of NO₂ and

1
2 114 natural, cardiovascular, and respiratory mortality.[17] Also, air pollution has been shown to
3
4 115 negatively affect other outcomes such as productivity of agricultural workers.[18]
5
6 116 In addition, levels of exposure to pollutants might also vary according to several factors, such as
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8 117 SES, educational level, air conditioning use, proximity to roadways, and work environment.[19]
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10 118 The warm season has been seen to be the strongest effect modifier of the effect of some pollutants
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12 119 on natural mortality;[20,21] this might be due to the fact that in summer, measured concentrations
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14 120 of air pollutants are more representative of true exposure because people spend more time outside
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16 121 and open windows more often.
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18 122 A recently published review [22] summarized what is known about the heat and cold effects on
19
20 123 work related injuries, and identified categories of workers at risk and evaluated heterogeneity and
21
22 124 sources of bias of the included studies. Authors concluded that most studies had design limitations
23
24 125 with regards to establishing a causal relationship and underlined the need for good quality studies
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26 126 that provide accurate estimates of relative risk of heat effects on occupational injuries.
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28 127 The objective of this study is to estimate the short-term effects of summer and winter outdoor
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30 128 temperatures and air pollution on the risk of work related injuries, and to identify susceptible groups
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32 129 of workers.
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39 131 **Methods**

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41 132 *Study population*

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43 133 We examined all work injuries that occurred between May and September and between November
44
45 134 and February in the years 2001- 2010 in three major Italian cities: Milan, Turin and Rome.
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47 135 Data were extracted from the Italian national workers' compensation authority (INAIL) database,
48
49 136 which covers about 85% of Italian workers. For each injury episode that caused absences of three or
50
51 137 more days, we gathered socio-demographic characteristics, occupation, and job title, and modalities
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53 138 and causes of the injury. Injuries in subjects younger than 17 years of age were excluded.
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56 139 *Meteorological and air pollution data*

Rome, Milan and Turin are large metropolitan areas with different climatic conditions. Milan and Turin are located in Northern Italy and have a cold humid subtropical or mild continental climate, characterized by hot, humid summers with frequent thunderstorms and cold, damp winters often featuring fog in low-lying areas. Rome is located in central Italy 20 km from the Tyrrhenian Sea and has a typical Mediterranean climate with hot, dry summers and mild, wet winters.

Based on previous heat studies conducted in the same cities we chose maximum daily apparent temperature (MAT) [23,24] for the warm season (May-September), and maximum daily temperature (TMAX) for the cold season (November-February) as indicators of temperature.[25] These were measured at the airport station closest to each city. With regards to air pollutants, we used the 24-hr mean daily value of nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) and of particulate matter with an aerodynamic diameter of 10 µm (PM₁₀). Data were extracted from the Regional Environmental Protection Agency (ARPA); we used city-specific daily mean values for all subjects.[26]

Statistical analysis

The analysis was organized in three steps. Because not much is already known about the relationship between work related injuries and temperature and air pollution variations, we first explored the city and season-specific lag structures of each exposure. We used a non-linear distributed lag model (DLNM),[27] allowing a maximum lag structure of 30 days, with the aim of selecting the lags showing the strongest association. As a second step we checked the linearity of the environmental exposure- injury risk relationship, at the lag defined by the previous step, through a Poisson generalized additive model, in each city and season, adjusting for long-time and seasonal trends.

As a third step the effect of environmental exposures on work-injury risk was evaluated using a time stratified case-crossover design separately for each city.[28] For each “case” (the day a work injury occurred) three more days were chosen as controls, matched by day of the week, month and year with the case day, to control for long-term trends, seasonality and day of the week. We

estimated odds ratios (OR) and 95% confidence intervals (CI) through a conditional logistic regression model, further adjusted for holidays and influenza epidemics (only in the cold season). Models were exposure, season, and city specific. Lags and shape of the relationship were those defined in the previous two steps.

We adjusted one exposure with the others in the model only when their correlation was lower than 0.4.

We tested potential effect modification of the environmental exposure-injury risk relationship by economic sector (using NACE classification), time spent outdoors or indoors and occupational activity, including interaction terms.

Patient and Public Involvement

Patients and or public were not involved in this study

Results

Study Population

We analyzed a total of 468,807 work-related injuries, more than half of which occurred in the warm season (Table 1).

Table 1. Injury distribution by workers’ demographic and job characteristics, 2001-2010.

	Warm Season	Cold Season
Total : 468,807	262,804	206,003
Age group, n(%)		
< 30	60,599 (23.1)	48,408 (23.5)
30 - 50	158,086 (60.2)	121,997 (59.2)
>50	44,119 (16.8)	35,598 (17.3)
Gender, n(%)		
Male	165,054 (62.8)	124,671 (60.5)
Female	97,750 (37.2)	81,332 (39.5)
Economic sector, n(%)		
Transport	31,914 (12.1)	24,257 (11.8)
Agro-industry	1,242 (0.5)	969 (0.5)

<i>Fishery</i>	2 (0.0)	2 (0.0)
<i>Mineral extraction</i>	179 (0.1)	140 (0.1)
<i>Electricity gas and water</i>	1,725 (0.7)	1,418 (0.7)
<i>Construction</i>	23,373 (8.9)	16,208 (7.9)
<i>Food, textile and wood industry</i>	6,588 (2.5)	5,264 (2.6)
<i>Electrical, chemical, petrochemical and rubber processing industry</i>	8,445 (3.2)	6,511 (3.2)
<i>Mechanical and metallic industry</i>	10,860 (4.1)	7,413 (3.6)
<i>Business and food service</i>	44,810 (17.1)	34,690 (16.8)
<i>Healthcare system</i>	14,719 (5.6)	11,980 (5.8)
<i>Public services, financial activities</i>	118,947 (45.3)	97,151 (47.2)
Working time spent, n(%)		
<i>Indoor</i>	105,215 (40.0)	87,578 (42.5)
<i>Indoor high temperature exposure</i>	7,099 (2.7)	5,669 (2.8)
<i>Indoor/Outdoor</i>	88,231 (33.6)	65,299 (31.7)
<i>Outdoor</i>	23,585 (9.0)	16,442 (8.0)
<i>Missing</i>	38,674 (14.7)	31,015 (15.1)

Meteorological and air pollutants data

Warm season

Rome and Milan showed a common median value of MAT of about 28°C, while Turin showed a median MAT of 26°C. Rome had the higher minimum temperature, (eTable 1, supplementary material). As for pollution, values were quite similar in the three cities; we observed a moderate correlation between PM₁₀ and NO₂ ($\rho \geq 0.5$) in all cities and between MAT and PM₁₀ ($\rho = 0.4$) in Rome (eTable 2, supplementary material).

Cold season

Rome was the warmest city with a median TMAX of 13°C, while Turin and Milan were cooler and had similar median TMAX values of about 8°C. We observed a minimum of -8°C for TMAX in Turin and of -3°C in Milan, while Rome never went below 5°C of TMAX (eTable 1, supplementary materials). As for air pollution we observed similar values of NO₂ in the three cities, and higher values of PM₁₀ in Turin and Milan. (eTable 1, supplementary materials). We observed positive

1
2 200 correlations between PM₁₀ and NO₂ in Turin ($\rho=0.5$) and Milan ($\rho=0.6$) (**eTable 2**, supplementary
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4 201 material).

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6 202 Lag structure and shape of the exposure-work injury relationship (step 1 and step2)

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8 203 Analysis of the lag structure indicated a delayed effect on injury risk of all analysed exposures;
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10 204 during the warm period the greatest effects were observed within the first week after exposure,
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12 205 while in the cold period effects could persist up to 20 days. (**eFigure 1**, **eFigure 2**, **eFigure 3**,
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14 206 supplementary material). A summary, for all exposures, of chosen lags and of the shape of
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16 207 relationship (linear/non linear) with WRI risk were reported in Figure 1.

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18 208 In the warm period the work-related injury/temperature relationship was linear in Rome (**eFigure 4**,
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20 209 supplementary materials) and non-linear in Turin and Milan. In these two cities we estimated ORs
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22 210 comparing city-specific MAT levels chosen in order to maximize the contrast. In particular, we
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24 211 compared the 90th percentile (33°C) versus the 50th (26°C) in Turin and 90th percentile (34°C)
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26 212 versus the 10th (21°C) in Milan; results for Rome were reported for the interquartile range (32°C
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28 213 versus 24°C) to facilitate comparisons. As for air pollutants, the PM₁₀/WRI relationship was linear
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30 214 in Rome and nonlinear in Turin and Milan (**eFigure 5**, supplementary material), while the NO₂/WRI
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32 215 relationship was linear in Rome and Turin and non-linear in Milan (**eFigure 6**, supplementary
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34 216 material).

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36 217 In the cold months, the WRI/temperature relationship was non-linear in the three cities (**eFigure 4**,
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38 218 supplementary material). We estimated ORs comparing city-specific TMAX's levels, in particular
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40 219 we compared the 10th percentile (4°C) versus the first percentile (2°C) in Turin, the 25th percentile
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42 220 (6°C) versus the 5th (4°C) in Milan and the 25th percentile (10°C) versus the 5th (8°C) in Rome.

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44 221 Air pollutants–WRI relationship was linear in all the three cities for both PM₁₀ and NO₂. We
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46 222 estimated effects comparing the 95th percentile versus the 25th in both climatic periods (**eFigure 5**,
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48 223 **eFigure 6**, supplementary material).

49
50 224 Conditional logistic regression models (step 3)

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In the warm season, the univariate analysis showed a positive association between WRI and MAT, PM₁₀ and NO₂ in all cities. In the cold season, we observed an inverse association between WRI and TMAX and a positive one between WRI and NO₂ in all cities, and between WRI and PM₁₀ only in Rome.

When adjusting temperature for one pollutant at a time in the warm months, the association with WRI resulted to be non-significant, while there was a positive significant effect when adjusting for temperature of both PM₁₀ and NO₂ in all cities; in the cold months we observed a significant association of NO₂ with WRI in all cities, and of TMAX and PM₁₀ in Rome. We reported only adjusted estimates. (Table 2)

Table 2. Adjusted Odds ratios (ORs) of WRI for temperature and air pollutants levels variations in Turin, Milan and Rome. Period 2001-2010.

Environmental exposures	OR (95% CI)	Comparison (percentile)
WARM SEASON (May-September)^a		
Turin		
Daily maximum apparent temperature (°C) (Lag* 1-7) ^b	1.02 (0.99, 1.06)	90th vs 50th
PM ₁₀ (µg/m ³) (Lag* 0-6) ^c	1.09 (1.05, 1.12)	95th vs 25th
NO ₂ (µg/m ³) (Lag* 0-8) ^c	1.30 (1.24, 1.37)	95th vs 25th
Milan		
Daily maximum apparent temperature (°C) (Lag* 1-7) ^b	1.01 (0.98, 1.04)	90th vs 10th
PM ₁₀ (µg/m ³) (Lag* 0-7) ^c	1.13 (1.10, 1.16)	95th vs 25th
NO ₂ (µg/m ³) (Lag* 0-8) ^c	1.20 (1.16, 1.24)	95th vs 25th
Rome		
Daily maximum apparent temperature (°C) (Lag* 1-7) ^b	1.00 (0.99, 1.02)	75th vs 25th
PM ₁₀ (µg/m ³) (Lag* 0-7) ^c	1.15 (1.11, 1.18)	95th vs 25th
NO ₂ (µg/m ³) (Lag* 0-8) ^c	1.22 (1.16, 1.28)	95th vs 25th
COLD SEASON (November – February)^d		
Turin		
Daily maximum temperature (°C) (Lag* 6-21) ^b	1.05 (0.93, 1.18)	1th vs 10th
PM ₁₀ (µg/m ³) (Lag* 2-12) ^c	0.98 (0.94, 1.02)	95th vs 25th
NO ₂ (µg/m ³) (Lag* 0-4) ^c	1.11 (1.06, 1.17)	95 ^o vs 25th
Milan		
Daily maximum temperature (°C) (Lag* 6-21) ^b	0.94 (0.92, 0.96)	5th vs 25th
PM ₁₀ (µg/m ³) (Lag* 0-3) ^c	1.00 (0.98, 1.03)	95th vs 25th
NO ₂ (µg/m ³) (Lag* 0-3) ^c	1.09 (1.06, 1.11)	95th vs 25th

Rome			
Daily maximum temperature (°C) (Lag* 0-6) ^b	1.02 (1.00, 1.04)	5th vs 25th	
PM ₁₀ (µg/m ³) (Lag* 5-19) ^c	1.05 (1.03, 1.08)	95th vs 25th	
NO ₂ (µg/m ³) (Lag* 1-4) ^c	1.04 (1.02, 1.06)	95th vs 25th	
^a Final conditional regression model adjusted by holidays.			
^b Adjusted for NO ₂			
^c Adjusted for MAT			
^d Final conditional regression model adjusted by influenza epidemics and holidays.			
^e Adjusted for TMAX			
* Lags expressed in days.			

The effect of NO₂

Exposure to NO₂ showed the highest positive association with the risk of being injured at work in both seasons and in all cities. In the warm season, an increase of NO₂ from the 25th to the 95th percentile was associated with an increase in work injuries ranging between 1.20 (95% CI: 1.16-1.24) in Milan and 1.30 (95% CI: 1.24-1.37) in Turin; in the cold season the effect of NO₂ was lower, ranging between 1.04 (95% CI: 1.02-1.06) in Rome and 1.11 (95% CI: 1.06-1.17) in Turin. (Table 2)

The effect of PM₁₀

An increase of PM₁₀ from the 25th to the 95th percentile in the warm season was associated with an increase in WRI ranging between 1.09 (95% CI: 1.05-1.12), in Turin, and 1.15 (95% CI: 1.11-1.18), in Rome. During the cold season, we found a significant effect of PM₁₀ only in Rome with a 1.05 (95% CI: 1.03-1.08) increase in WRI. (Table 2)

The effect of temperature

No significant association between temperature and injury risk was observed in the warm season overall, but for workers in the following economic sectors: transportation (Turin 1.00 - 95% CI: 0.89-1.13; Milan 1.05; 95% CI: 0.96-1.14; Rome 1.04; 95% CI: 1.00-1.09), construction (Turin 1.07 - 95% CI: 0.95-1.21; Milan 1.07; 95% CI: 0.97-1.17; Rome 1.06; 95% CI: 1.01-1.12) and energy industries (Turin 1.56 - 95% CI: 0.95-2.58; Milan 1.57; 95% CI: 1.03-2.38; Rome 1.00; 95% CI: 0.85-1.18) (Figure 2). However the effect was modest.

The association between WRI and temperature or air pollutants by occupational activity was estimated only for those injuries occurred in one of the three economic sectors with a significant association between temperature and WRI, and only in the warm season (Transportation, Construction, and Electricity Gas and Water - Figure 2). In order to have enough statistical power we aggregated into a single category all those occupational activities for which less than 20 injuries were reported in at least one city. Blacksmith, mechanic, installer, motor worker, road worker, warehouse worker, attendant and asphalter were the only activities for which we observed a significant effect of temperature on WRI. The highest effects were observed for road workers ($OR: 4.05$ - 95% $CI: 1.20-13.66$), warehouse workers ($OR: 4.45$ - 95% $CI: 1.10-18.02$) and attendants ($OR: 6.91$ - 95% $CI: 1.42-33.57$). (Figure 3)

We also observed a significant effect of MAT on those working outdoors in Milan ($OR: 1.12$ - 95% $CI: 1.02-1.23$) and Rome ($OR: 1.07$ - 95% $CI: 1.01-1.12$), and among those working both outdoors and indoors only in Rome ($OR: 1.03$ - 95% $CI: 1.00-1.06$). No effect was observed among those working only indoors (Figure 4).

In the cold season, a decrease of TMAX from 4°C to 2°C was associated with a weak and not significant increase in WRI ($OR: 1.02$; 95% $CI: 1.00-1.04$) in Rome (Table 2) while in Turin and Milan no effect was observed.

No effect modifiers of TMAX-WRI in the cold season or of the air-pollutant/WRI relationship in either season was found.

Discussion

This is the first study conducted in Italy to analyze the independent effects of temperature (hot and cold) and air pollutants on the risk of work-related injuries. The strongest effects on WRI risk was due to exposure to NO₂ in the warm season, with a WRI risk up to 1.3 times higher when NO₂ levels increased from the 25th to 95th percentile of its city-specific distribution.

In general we observed a significant association between exposure to NO₂ and WRI in both seasons, in all job categories, and in all cities; and between PM₁₀ and WRI only in Rome during the warm

1
2 285 season. Temperature showed a significant effect only in specific occupational activities during the
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4 286 warm season (April to October).
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6 287 The relationship between NO₂ and the occurrence of work related injuries had a similar shape in the
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8 288 three cities in both periods (**eFigure 6**, supplementary material). As expected, NO₂ values were lower
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10 289 in the warm than in the cold season, with median values in the three cities of about 50 µg/m³ and 73
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12 290 µg/m³ respectively. Despite this, there was a stronger association between NO₂ and WRI in the
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14 291 warm than in the cold season, possibly due to a “ceiling effect”, given that levels of NO₂ in the cold
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16 292 season are always higher. It is also noticeable that the effect of NO₂ remained constant regardless of
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18 293 economic sector or occupational activity.
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20 294 PM₁₀ levels showed a similar trend as NO₂, with lower levels in the warmer months and higher
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22 295 levels and a low day by day variability in the cold period. Only in Rome, the southern of the three
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24 296 cities, PM₁₀ showed lower and more variable levels in the cold period. (**eTable 1**, supplementary
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26 297 material); and it is interesting to observe that an increase of PM₁₀ is associated to an increase in WRI
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28 298 in this season only in Rome. In the warm months the effect of PM₁₀ is consistent in the three cities,
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30 299 but lower then that of NO₂. On days in which PM₁₀ levels reach the 75th percentile of the city
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32 300 specific distribution the risk of WRI is 10% higher than on days when PM₁₀ levels are around their
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34 301 25th percentile.
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36 302 The similar shape of the pollutant-WRI risk both among cities and among pollutants supports our
37
38 303 study’s robustness Furthermore, what is known about the short term health effects of exposure to
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40 304 air pollutants [29-31] made it reasonable to think of potential effects on work-related injuries. Some
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42 305 previous studies have analyzed health-related outcomes in specific categories of workers,
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44 306 particularly those exposed to urban stressors, such as street vendors and policemen, and they
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46 307 showed some effects on cardiovascular diseases, pregnancy outcomes, and respiratory diseases.[32-
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48 308 36,18] One study measured a negative economic impact of exposure to air pollutants in agriculture
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50 309 workers, finding lower productivity on more polluted days.[18] (Zivin and Neidell, 2012). Finally, a
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recent study [32] tried to measure the association between occupational exposure to ozone and respiratory diseases, with no conclusive results.

Mounting experimental evidence suggests that, in addition to the cardiopulmonary system, the brain may be a target of air pollution. Specific mental and neurological disorders, such as depression and headache, as well as suicide have all been linked to ambient air pollution.[37,38] Inhaled concentrated ambient particulate matter may translocate to the brain and produce neuroendocrine and neuropathological alterations.[39] The lag of these effects was short, two or three days;[40] so it is reasonable to think that these exposures might explain the association between pollution and work related injuries.

As for heat, our study showed an increase of injuries only among bricklayers, blacksmiths, mechanics, installers and asphalters working in transportation, construction and energy economic sectors, and in the more generic group of those working outdoor or performing both outdoor and indoor tasks, but not among those who work only indoors. These results are consistent with previous studies.[41,42]

It is interesting that the unadjusted OR of MAT on WRI during the warm season ranged from 1.03 in Rome (75° vs 25° percentile, range=8°C) to 1.06 in Turin (90° vs 50° percentile, range=7°C), but these effects lowered to 1.01 and became not significant when adjusting for air pollution. The observed confounding of temperature by pollution should be considered when comparing our results to unadjusted estimates of temperature-WRI associations from other published studies.

Two previous studies conducted in Italy [43] and in Australia [41] found an inverse U-shaped relationship between high temperatures and WRI in summer, with maximum risk on warm days but not on extremely hot days. We observed a similar relationship in Turin and Milan, where maximum effects were observed at 33°C-34°C, while they remained stable or decreased afterwards. In Rome, which experiences warmer summer conditions than Milan and Turin, we found a linear relationship consistent with what was observed in two recent studies conducted in Melbourne and in Quebec. [42,12] Different population characteristics as well as temperature distributions might influence

1
2 336 these differences between cities. Furthermore, it has to be considered that the trend in the effects
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4 337 observed in Milan and Turin might be biased by the lower statistical power in the highest extremes
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6 338 of the temperature distribution, due to the fewer days observed with those temperature levels. This
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8 339 is not the case in Rome where temperatures even above 34°C are adequately represented.
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10 340 Ambient heat might increase metabolic heat that is normally produced in activities requiring
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12 341 physical exertion; accordingly we have observed an effect of heat in more physically demanding
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14 342 economic sectors and occupational activities. We categorized workers according to three different
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16 343 criteria as suggested in a previous study:[12] economic sector, occupational activity and outdoor or
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18 344 indoor location. This classification allowed us to measure both the risk associated with physical
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20 345 demands (economic sector and occupational activity) and the gradient of exposure to outdoor heat.
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22 346 Our results showed higher susceptibility among those working outdoors and no effects on those
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24 347 working only indoors, confirming that those working outdoors are more susceptible to pollution and
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26 348 temperatures exposure. However, when analysing single occupational activities, we found that
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28 349 among the most susceptible there were some (mechanics, warehouse workers and attendants) who
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30 350 spend more time indoor than outdoor but still require high physical exertion. Strenuous activity, and
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32 351 use of heavy impermeable personal protective clothing might increase metabolic heat and increase
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34 352 the risk of injuries. This might suggest that the level of physical strength required by the occupation
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36 353 might be an important effect modifier to be taken into account for heat-related risk, independent of
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38 354 work location.[12]
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40 355 An important strength of this study is that we estimated the independent effects of temperature and
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42 356 air pollution, controlling one for the other in the model. Also, we used a very large dataset that was
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44 357 not derived from self-reported data. However, our study presents some limits. The study population
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46 358 was drawn from the Italian public insurance system database that covers all work-related injuries
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48 359 due to violent causes that leads to death, permanent disability or temporary total disability lasting at
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50 360 least three days, and all occupational diseases. It is remarkable to consider that workers covered by
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52 361 the public insurance system for injuries and occupational diseases make up approximately 80-85%
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of the whole workforce in Italy. However, daily injury claims may be underestimated because of under-reporting of workers' compensation claims and due to incomplete coverage of the public insurance system lead by INAIL. Some occupational activities, such as firefighters and the armed forces, benefit from a specific welfare system in Italy and are not included in the analyzed dataset. The distribution of daily injury claims by economic sector varies greatly and the relatively small numbers in some sectors dictates a cautious interpretation of results for less represented subgroups. All exposure measures used were daily averages deriving from fixed points of measurement in the city, implying each worker was attributed the same level of exposure independently of his location in the city at the moment of injury, thus having a potential bias in exposure due to different temperatures and pollutants within the city on a given day. However, the error associated with this generalization in exposure is considered to be low.[44] Finally collinearity among NO₂ and PM₁₀ didn't allow to adjust one pollutant for the other, so that the estimate of pollutant effect might be confounded by concomitant exposure to the other one. This limit is proper of almost all air pollution studies.

Conclusions

Our results suggest that exposure to nitrogen dioxide in the warm months strongly increase the risk of work related injuries among all categories of workers. These results suggest the need to further look into this association, to confirm our findings and to better understand the underlying mechanisms. Our results also show that , after removing the confounding effect of co-exposure to air pollution, the exposure to high temperature represents a risk only among workers who have heavier work loads and among those who spend most of their time outdoors. Finally our results confirms that in Italy, which is a Mediterranean country with a generally mild climate, ambient exposures represent a hazard for work related injuries only during the warmer months.

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2 386 These results contribute to the increasing knowledge about the association between temperature and
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4 387 work related injuries, and add new evidence about the potential effects of pollutants that have not
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6 388 yet been studied in Italy except on very specific subgroups.
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8 389 Identifying specific subgroups of workers as the most susceptible to these specific exposures is
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10 390 crucial information for public health organizations in order to properly target prevention plans.
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22 397 **Abbreviations**

24 398 WRI, work related injuries;
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26 399 PM₁₀, particulate matter with an aerodynamic diameter of 10 µm or less;
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28 400 NO₂, nitrogen dioxide;
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30 401 MAT, maximum apparent temperature;
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32 402 TMAX, maximum temperature;
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34 403 DLNM, non-linear distributed lag model;
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36 404 OR, odd ratio;
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38 405 CI, confidence interval.
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40 407 **Declarations**

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42
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44
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46
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52
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55 415 Modello integrato di monitoraggio dell’esposizione ambientale, allerta, sorveglianza rapida
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Availability of data and materials

The data that support the findings of this study are available from *Occupational and Environmental Medicine, Epidemiology and Hygiene Department, Italian Workers' Compensation Authority (INAIL), Rome, Italy* but restrictions apply to the availability of these data, which were used within the collaboration for the current study, and so are not publicly available. Data are however available from the authors upon reasonable request. and with permission of INAIL.

Authors' contributions

PS conceptualized and designed the study, drafted the manuscript. FA carried out the statistical analyses, reviewed and revised the manuscript. AM and MB contributed to the draft, critically reviewed the manuscript. MD critically reviewed the manuscript. PM collaborated to conceptualize and to design the study, reviewed and revised the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript as submitted.

Ethics approval and consent to participate

Not applicable

Consent for publication

Not applicable

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests to disclose.

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Figures:

Figure 1. Graphical summary of lags and shapes of exposures/WRI relationship (linear/non linear) by season and city.

Figure 2. Odds Ratios of WRI, adjusted for NO₂, for MAT (lag1-7) increase*, by economic sectors, during warm season (May-September) in Turin, Milan and Rome.

** Turin: 90° vs 50° percentile of MAT*
Milan: 90° vs 10° percentile of MAT
Rome: 75° vs 25° percentile of MAT

Figure 3. Odds Ratios of WRI, adjusted for NO₂, for MAT (lag1-7) increase* by occupational activities, in *Transportation, Construction, Electricity gas and water* industries, during warm season (May-September) in Turin, Milan and Rome.

** Turin: 90° vs 50° percentile of MAT*
Milan: 90° vs 10° percentile of MAT
Rome: 75° vs 25° percentile of MAT

Figure 4. Odds Ratios of WRI for MAT*, NO₂[§] and PM₁₀[§] increases by INDOOR/OUTDOOR job activity during warm season (May-September) in Turin, Milan and Rome.

** Turin: 90° vs 50° percentile of MAT*
Milan: 90° vs 10° percentile of MAT
Rome: 75° vs 25° percentile of MAT
§ 95° vs 25° percentile of the distribution of the both air pollutants in the three cities

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TEMPERATURE

Warm season
MAT

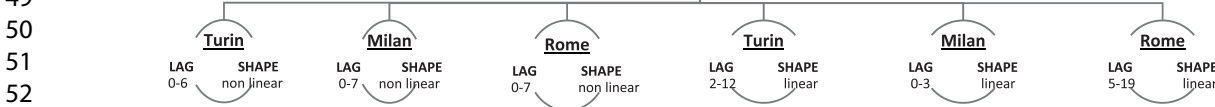
Cold season
TMAX



PM10

Warm season

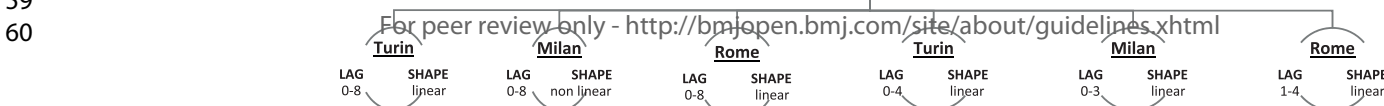
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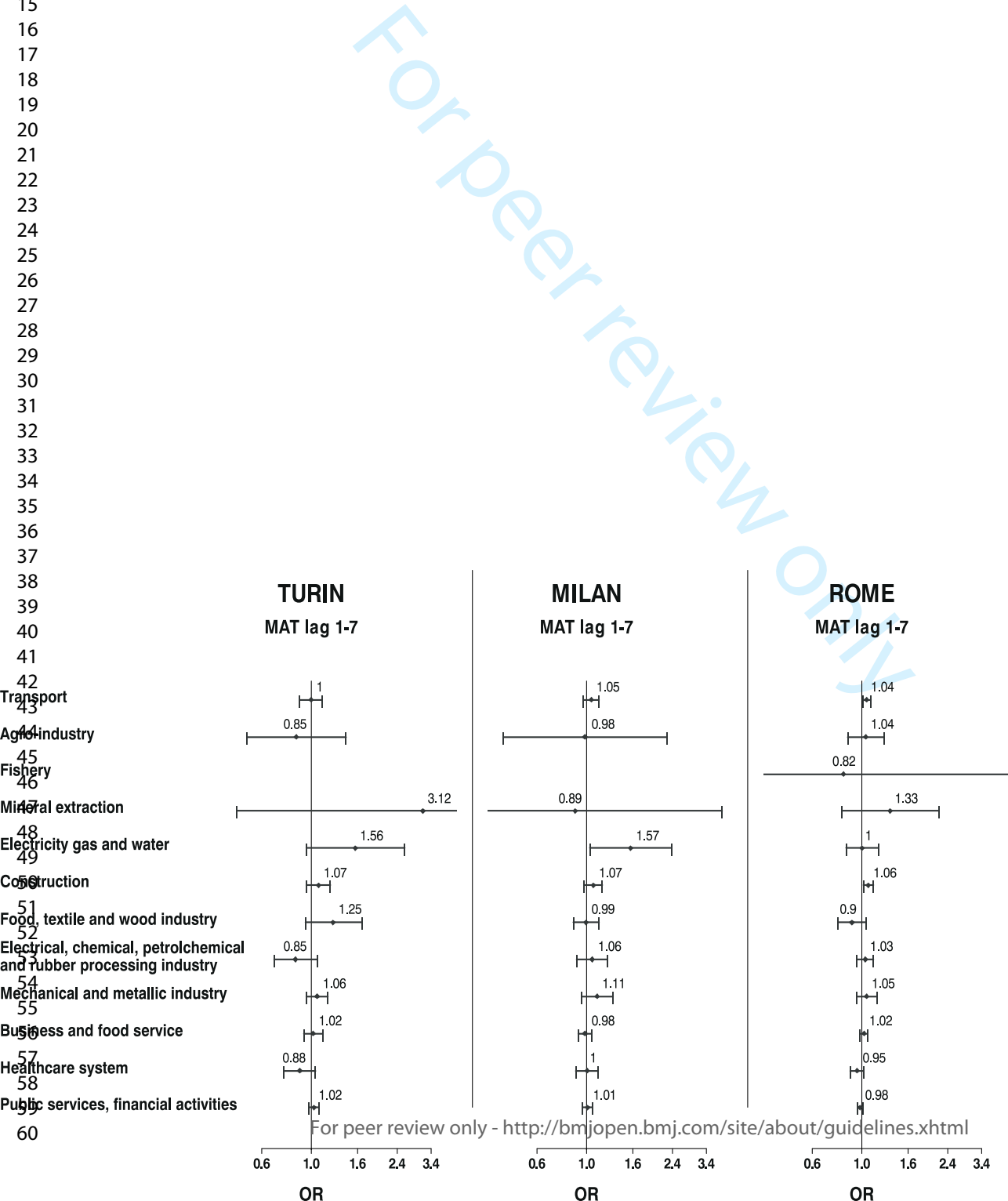
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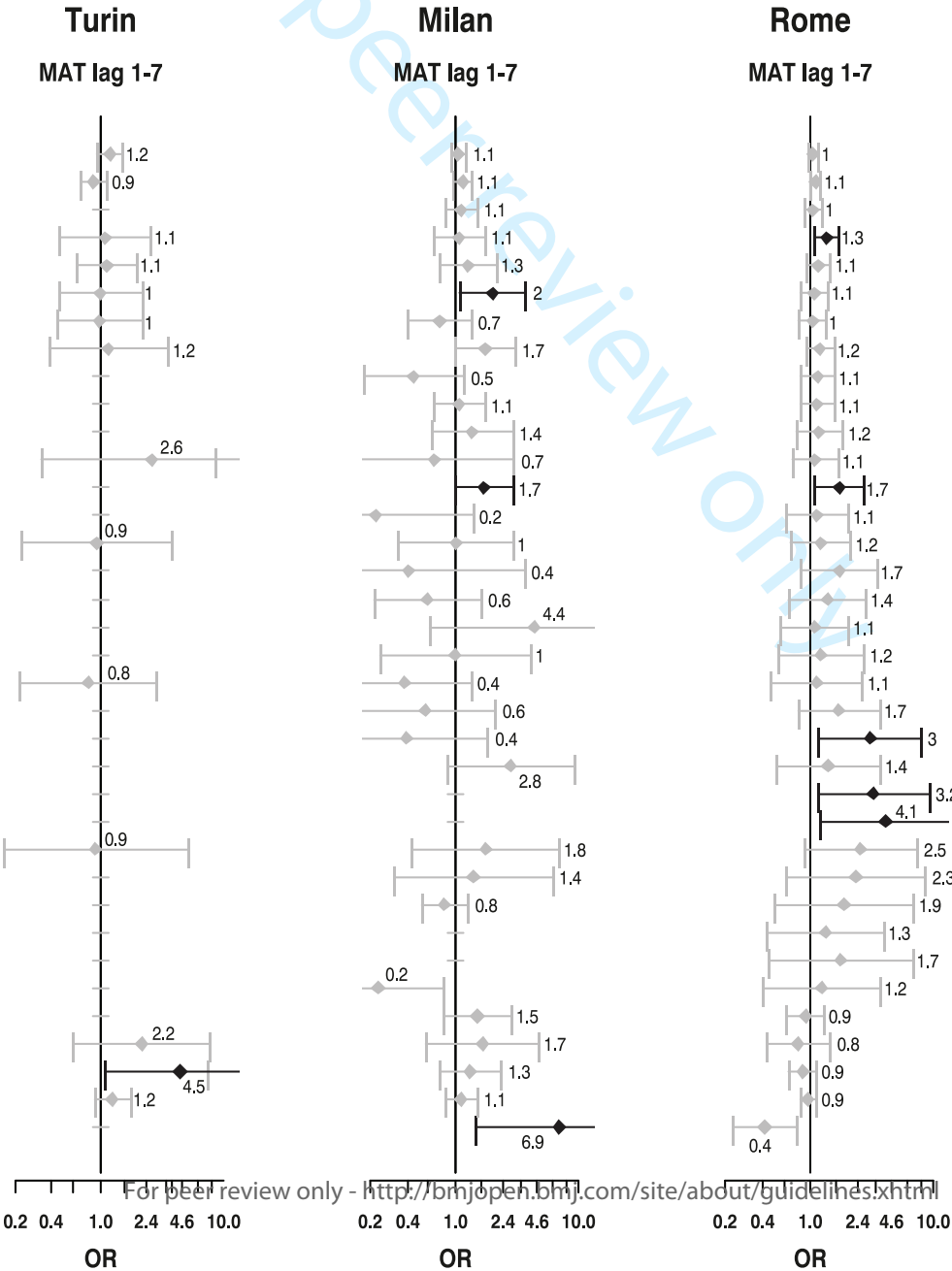


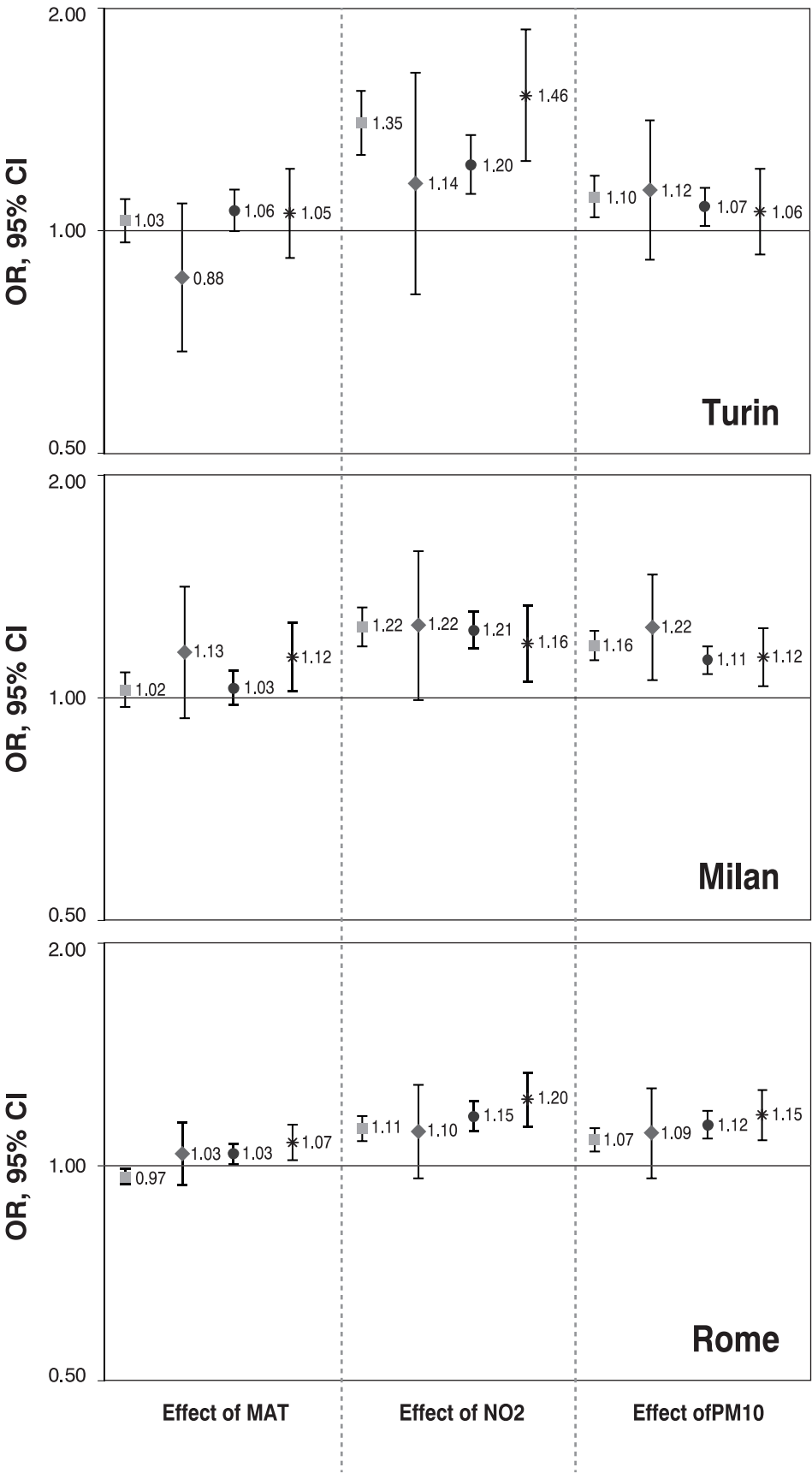
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eTable 1. Temperature and pollutants distribution in Turin, Milan and Rome by seasonal period, 2001–2010.

Exposure	Min	25° pctl	50° pctl	75° pctl	Max
WARM SEASON (May - September)					
Turin					
Daily maximum apparent temperature (°C)	9.0	22.3	26.3	30.1	39.7
PM ₁₀ (µg/m ³)	1.0	20.7	28.0	36.5	89.5
NO ₂ (µg/m ³)	12.7	36.8	47.2	59.6	135.1
Milan					
Daily maximum apparent temperature (°C)	6.7	23.9	28.3	32.6	44.0
PM ₁₀ (µg/m ³)	4.9	22.5	29.6	38.5	87.4
NO ₂ (µg/m ³)	11.2	33.9	43.4	53.8	128.1
Rome					
Daily maximum apparent temperature (°C)	12.4	24.4	28.3	32.2	39.7
PM ₁₀ (µg/m ³)	7.3	26.3	32.1	39.6	106.0
NO ₂ (µg/m ³)	11.9	41.9	52.3	62.7	110.1
COLD SEASON (November – February)					
Turin					
Daily maximum temperature (°C)	-7.6	4.7	7.7	10.9	24.9
PM ₁₀ (µg/m ³)	8.0	50.5	75.0	102.0	242.0
NO ₂ (µg/m ³)	19.9	64.9	79.0	92.9	197.9
Milan					
Daily maximum temperature (°C)	-3.2	5.3	8.3	11.3	21.6
PM ₁₀ (µg/m ³)	9.3	44.3	67.3	93.2	314.6
NO ₂ (µg/m ³)	29.6	60.2	72.3	87.2	202.1
Rome					
Daily maximum temperature (°C)	5.5	10.3	12.6	14.5	23.2
PM ₁₀ (µg/m ³)	10.7	27.4	39.4	53.9	141.6
NO ₂ (µg/m ³)	23.9	58.4	68.1	78.2	117.3

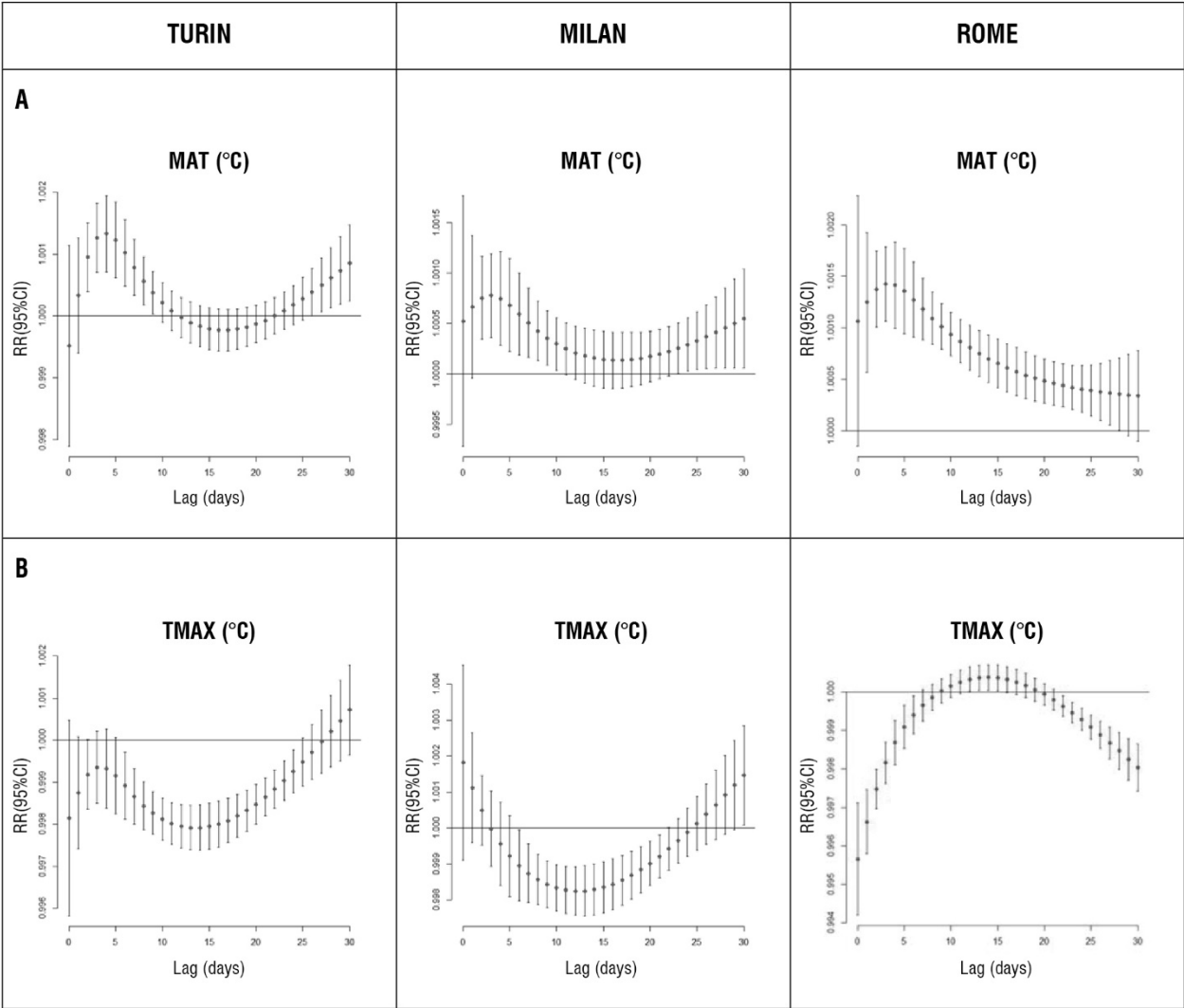
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eTable 2. Pearson correlation coefficients between daily temperature and pollutants in both seasons for the three cities.

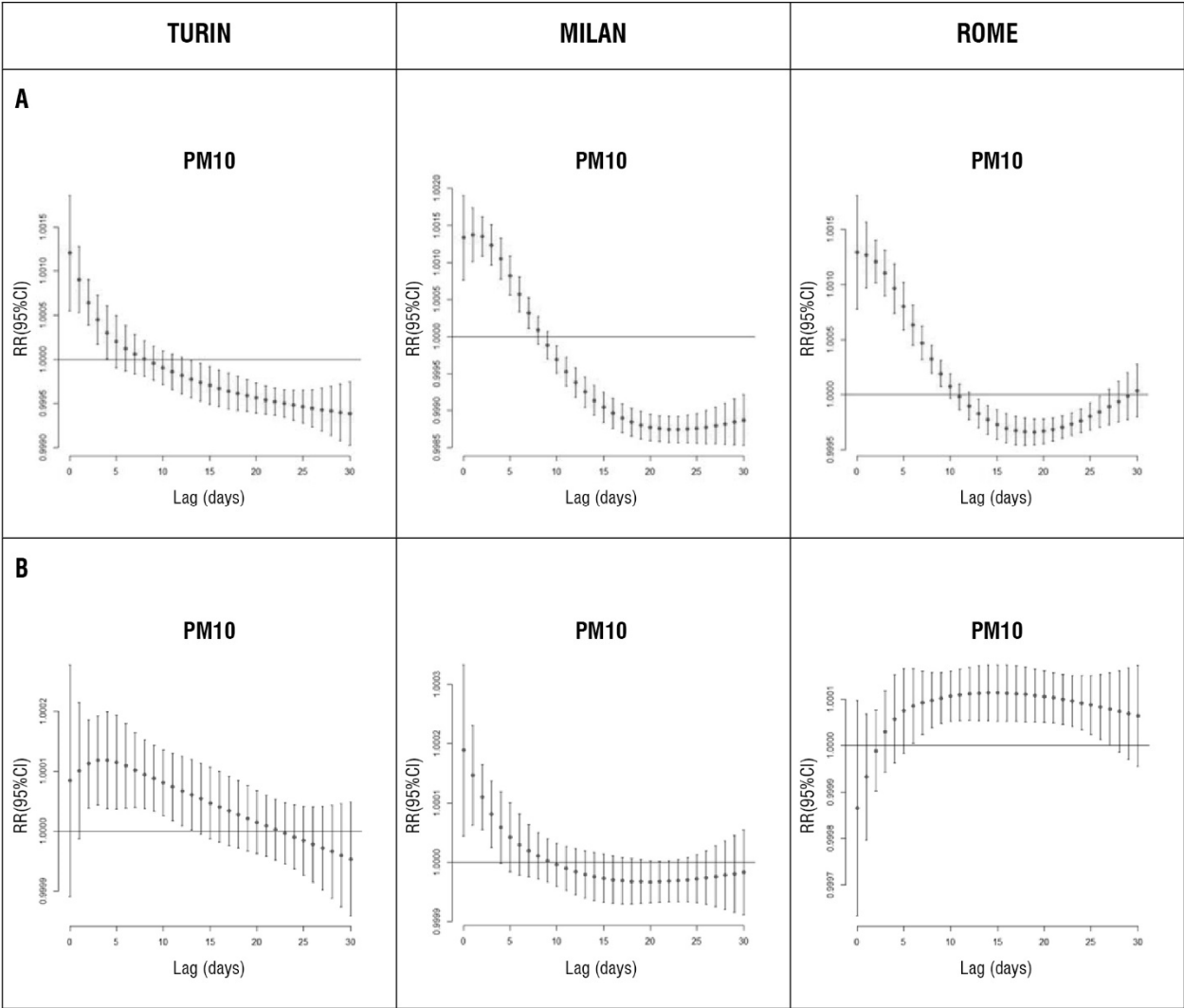
WARM SEASON				COLD SEASON			
TURIN							
	MAT lag 1-7	NO2 lag 0-8	PM10 lag 0-6		TMAX lag 6-21	NO2 lag 0-4	PM10 lag 2-12
MAT lag 1-7	1			TMAX lag 6-21	1		
NO2 lag 0-8	-0.12*	1		NO2 lag 0-4	-0.42*	1	
PM10 lag 0-6	-0.01*	0.61*	1	PM10 lag 2-12	-0.20*	0.51*	1
MILAN							
	MAT lag 1-7	NO2 lag 0-8	PM10 lag 0-7		TMAX lag 6-21	NO2 lag 0-3	PM10 lag 0-3
MAT lag 1-7	1			TMAX lag 6-21	1		
NO2 lag 0-8	-0.22*	1		NO2 lag 0-3	-0.36*	1	
PM10 lag 0-7	0.28*	0.56*	1	PM10 lag 0-3	-0.29*	0.77*	1
ROME							
	MAT lag 1-7	NO2 lag 0-8	PM10 lag 0-7		TMAX lag 0-6	NO2 lag 1-4	PM10 lag 5-19
MAT lag 1-7	1			TMAX lag 0-6	1		
NO2 lag 0-8	-0.08*	1		NO2 lag 1-4	-0.05	1	
PM10 lag 0-7	0.40*	0.49*	1	PM10 lag 5-19	-0.01	0.19*	1

* p-value < 0,05

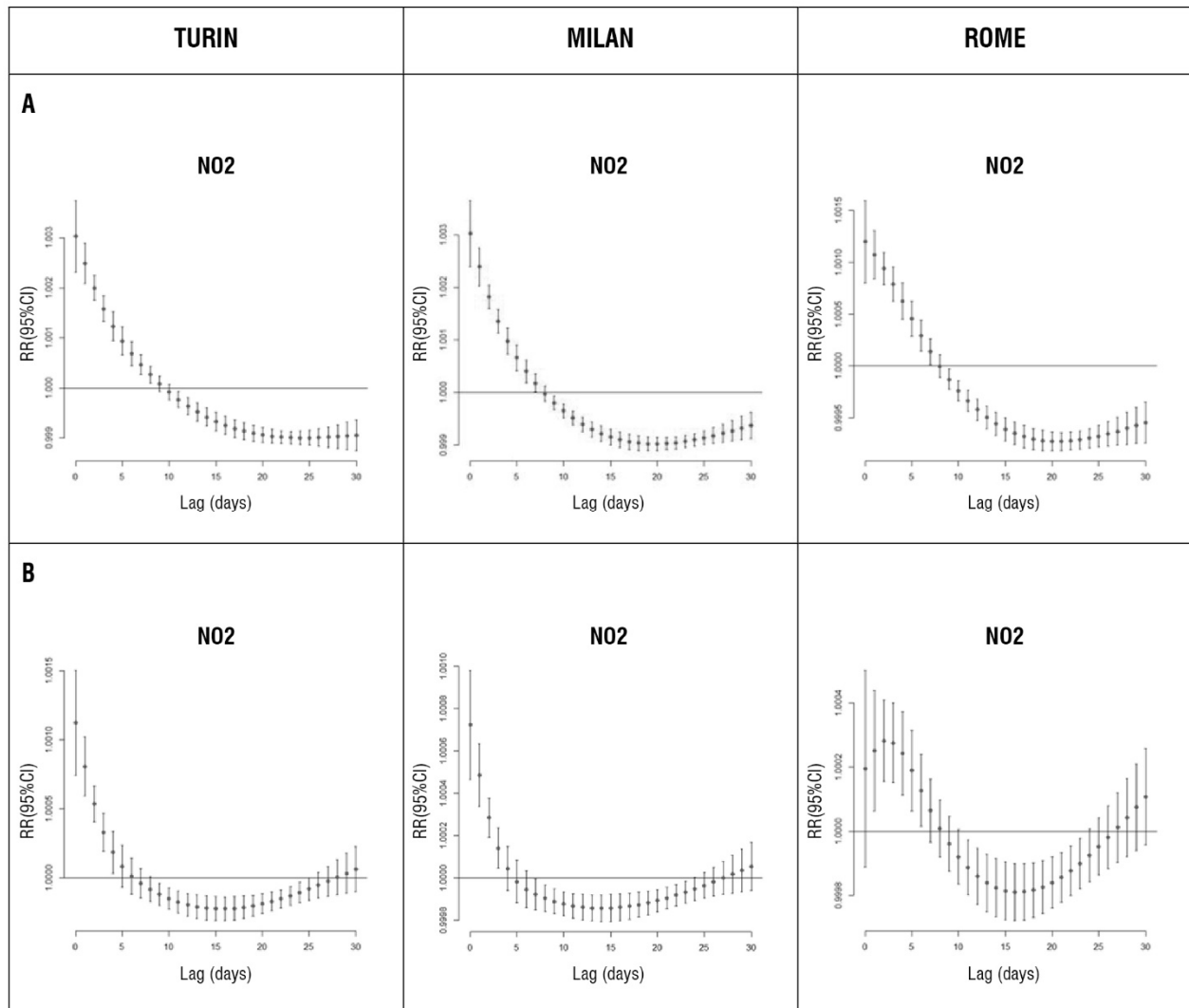
eFigure 1. Lag structure of Relative Risks (RR) of injury for 1 °C increase in temperature in the three cities obtained by a non-linear distributed lag models, warm season (A) and cold season (B)



eFigure 2. Lag structure of Relative Risks (RR) of injury for 1 µg/m3 increase in PM₁₀ in the three cities obtained by a non-linear distributed lag models, warm season (A) and cold season (B)

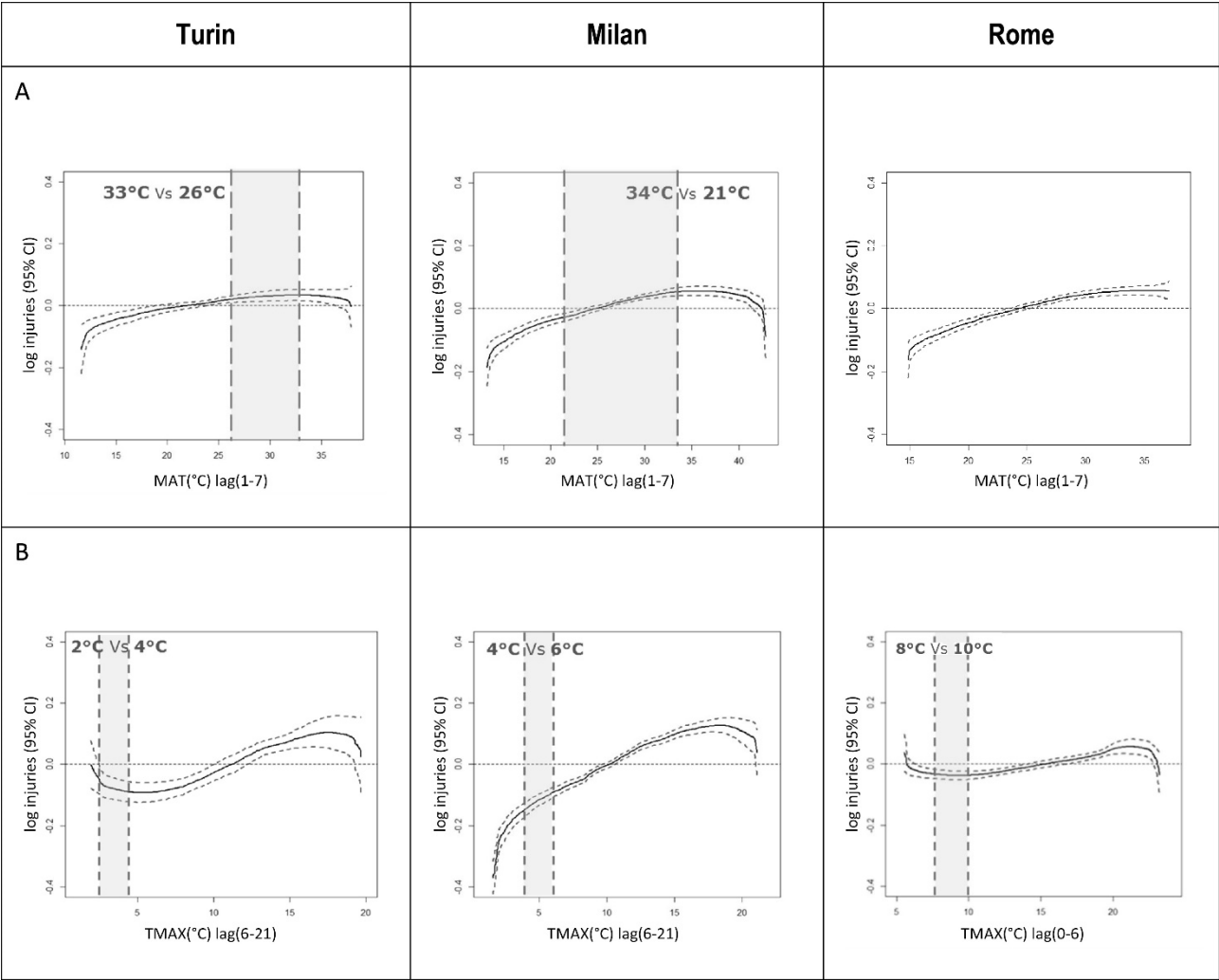


eFigure 3. Lag structure of Relative Risks (RR) of injury for 1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ increase in NO_2 in the three cities obtained by distributed lag models, warm season (A) and cold season (B)

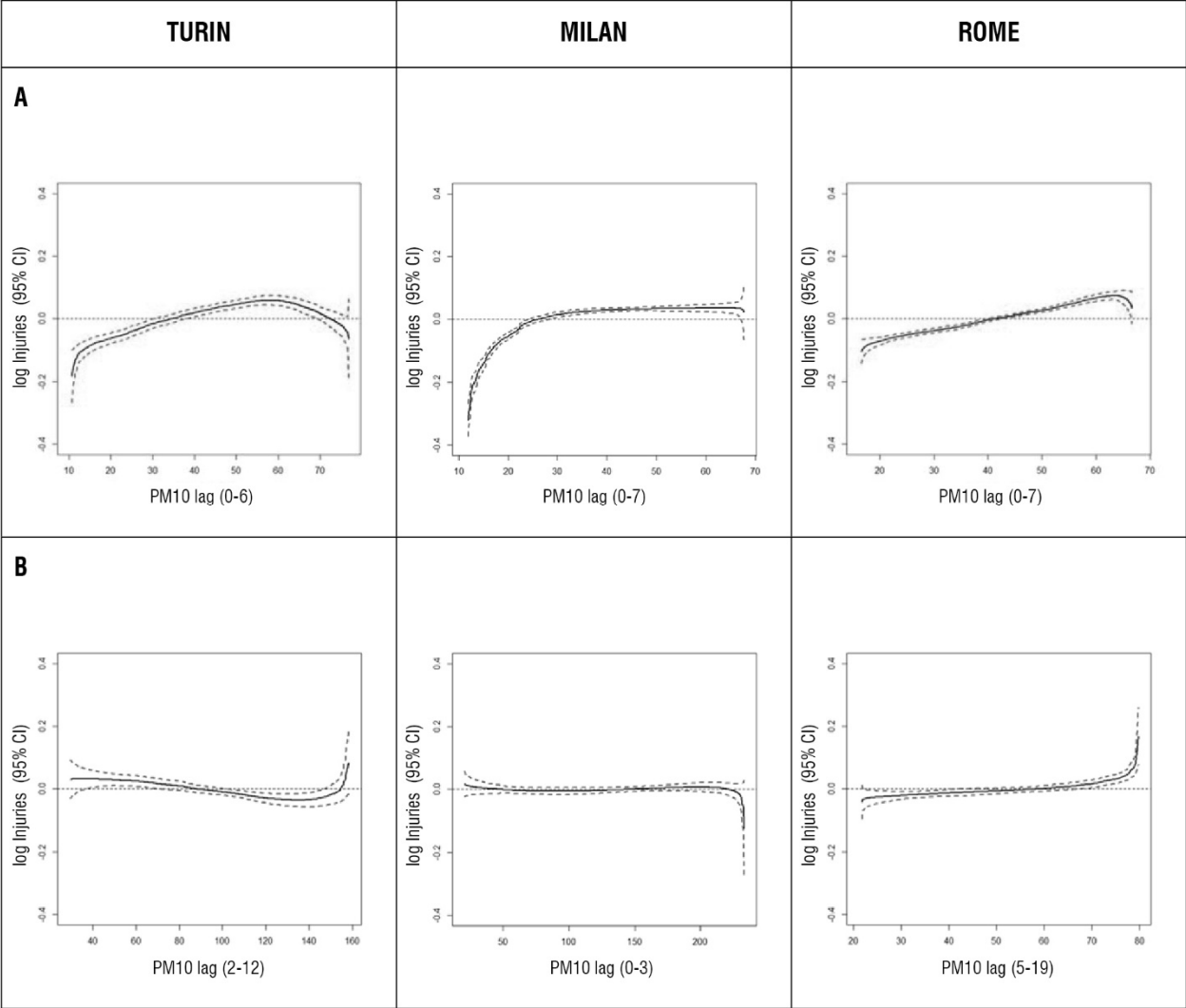


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eFigure 4. The injury-temperature relationship in Turin, Milan and Rome in warm season (A) and cold season (B), estimated by a Poisson generalized additive models

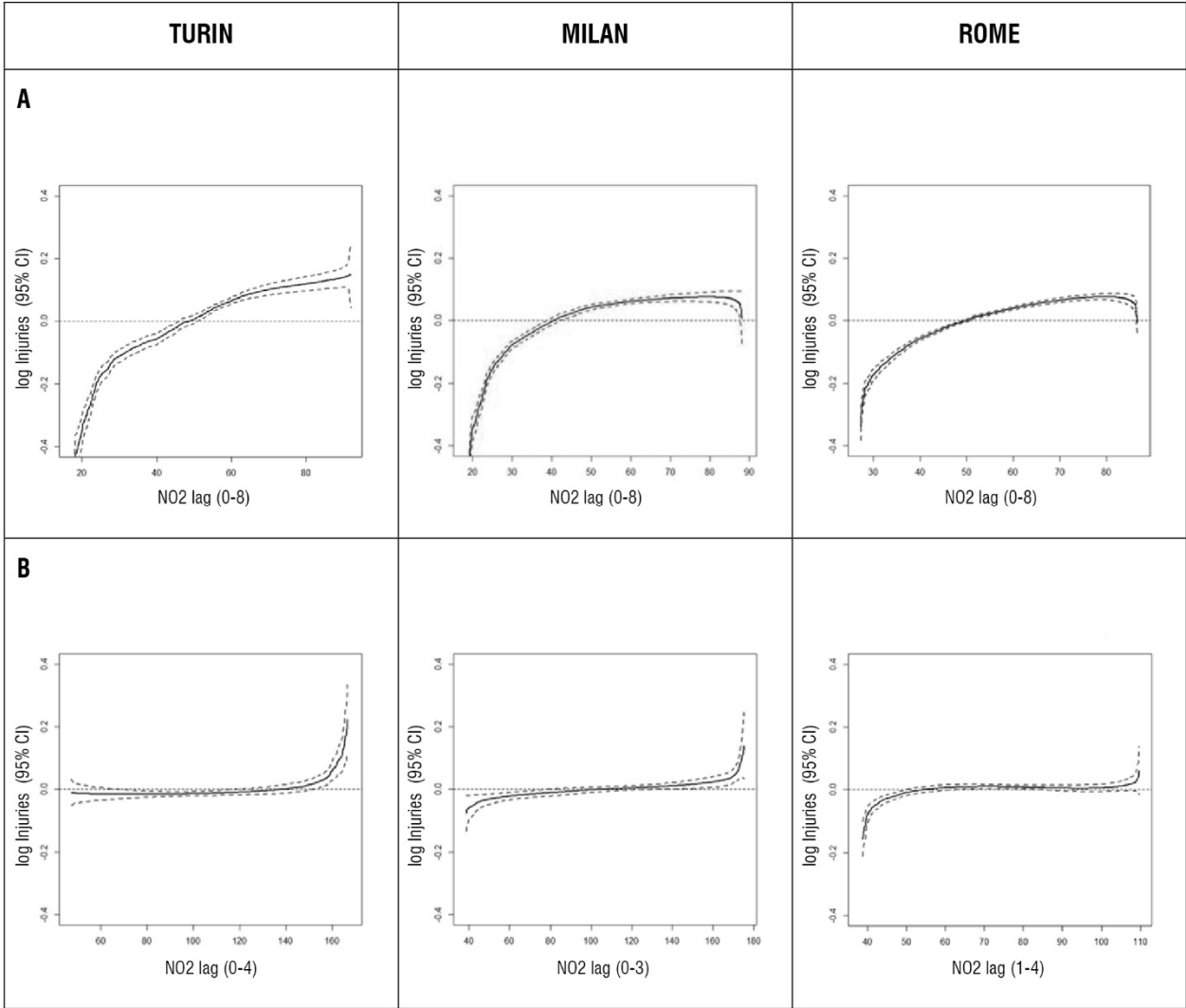


eFigure 5. The injury–PM₁₀ relationship in Turin, Milan and Rome in warm season (A) and cold season (B), estimated by a Poisson generalized additive models



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eFigure 6. The injury–NO₂ relationship in Turin, Milan and Rome in warm season (A) and cold season (B), estimated by a Poisson generalized additive models



BMJ Open

Do exposure to outdoor temperatures, NO2 and PM10 affect the work-related injuries risk? A case-crossover study in three Italian cities, 2001-2010.

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Manuscript title: Do exposure to outdoor temperatures, NO₂ and PM₁₀ affect the work-related injuries risk? A case-crossover study in three Italian cities, 2001-2010.

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Abstract

Objectives

Studies on the effect of temperature on rates of work-related injuries (WRI) are very recent, and are evolving in depth and scope. However less is known about potential effects of air pollutants. Our objective was to analyze the association between WRI and NO₂, PM₁₀ and air temperature in three major Italian cities, and to identify groups of workers more at risk in Italy.

Design time-stratified case-crossover study

Settings Milan, Turin, Rome, years 2001-2010

Participants A total of 468,816 WRI occurred between 2001-2010 in Milan, Turin and Rome were extracted from the Italian national workers' compensation authority (INAIL) database.

Main outcomes Associations between WRI and temperature, PM₁₀, NO₂, separately in the warm and in the cold season (WS, May-September; CS, November-February). Effect modification was studied by economic sector, occupational activity and indoor/outdoor job activity.

Results

Exposure to NO₂ (lag 0-8) showed the highest effect on the risk of WRI, with ORs ranging from 1.20 (95% CI: 1.16-1.24) in Milan to 1.30 (95% CI: 1.24-1.37) in Turin in the WS. The effect of exposure to PM₁₀ was milder but consistent across all cities: ORs from 1.09 (95% CI: 1.05-1.12) in Turin to 1.15 (95% CI: 1.11-1.18) in Rome. Temperature was associated with risk of WRI only among those working in construction (highest association in Rome 1.06; 95% CI: 1.01-1.12), transportation (highest association in Milan 1.05; 95% CI: 0.96-1.14) and the energy industry

(highest association in Milan 1.57; 95% CI: 1.03-2.38) in the WS in all cities. A weak effect of low temperatures was observed in the CS only in Rome.

Conclusions

Exposures to NO2 resulted as strongest hazard for work related injuries, mainly in warm months, while the independent effect of temperature was significant only in specific subgroups of workers. These results could be considered to better plan safety prevention programs.

Keywords: air pollution; temperature; climate change; occupational health; work-related injuries; case crossover study

Strenghts and Limitations

- We used a very large dataset that was not derived from self-reported data
- We analysed data from three major Italian cities with different meteorological and pollution condition
- we estimated the independent effects of temperature and air pollution, controlling one for the other in the model
- daily injury claims may be underestimated because of under-reporting of workers' compensation claims and due to incomplete coverage of the public insurance system lead by INAIL
- All exposure measures used were daily averages deriving from fixed points of measurement in the city

Background

Extreme weather events are becoming more frequent and intense as a result of climate change [1] and the relationship between extreme temperature and population health has been well documented.[2] Furthermore, air quality is influenced by a changing climate, which in turn impacts population health.[3]The association between outdoor temperature and air pollutants with mortality and morbidity in the general population has stimulated a large body of research, identifying

susceptible subgroups, such as the elderly, people with chronic respiratory and cardiovascular diseases, and children.[4,5]

However, the consequences of climate and pollutants on work environments and their subsequent effects on job performance and safety are only recently coming to light.

Numerous factors such as worksite location and weather conditions may affect occupational exposure to air pollution; and likewise, indoor workplace environments may affect and exacerbate the adverse health effects of exposure to outdoor air pollutants. This is particularly a concern in workers with pre-existing health conditions and could theoretically lead to an increase in safety issues. The association between intense and prolonged occupational exposure to heat and health effects on workers is characterized by dehydration and spasms, increased perceived fatigue, exacerbating hazards resulting from sweaty palms, fogged-up safety glasses, dizziness, and reduced brain function. [7-11], reduced productivity and decreased reaction capacities.[6] Young, male workers and those in occupations requiring physical labor, and outdoor workers, are at higher risk of adverse impact because of their exposure to heat and humid conditions, as well as prolonged exposure to solar radiation and/or other artificial heat sources.[12-15] Furthermore, cultural social and ethnical characteristics of workers could play a significant role. [16] As well, workers exposed to extreme cold may be at risk of cold stress, increased cardiovascular and respiratory diseases risks, musculoskeletal and dermatological disorders, loss of dexterity and injuries related to hypothermia.[7,17]

There is good evidence of the negative effects of short-term exposure to PM₁₀ on respiratory health, such as aggravated asthma, respiratory symptoms and an increase in hospital admissions.[18]

Nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) is a strong respiratory irritant gas originating from high-temperature combustion; a large study has shown a positive association between daily increases of NO₂ and natural, cardiovascular, and respiratory mortality.[19] Also, air pollution has been shown to negatively affect other outcomes such as productivity of agricultural workers.[20]

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3 114 In addition, levels of exposure to pollutants might also vary according to several factors, such as
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5 115 SES, educational level, air conditioning use, proximity to roadways, and work environment.[21]
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7 116 The warm season has been seen to be the strongest effect modifier of the effect of some pollutants
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10 117 on natural mortality;[22,23] this might be due to the fact that in summer, measured concentrations
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12 118 of air pollutants are more representative of true exposure because people spend more time outside
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14 119 and open windows more often.
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16 120 A recently published review [24] summarized what is known about the heat and cold effects on
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18 121 work related injuries, and identified categories of workers at risk and evaluated heterogeneity and
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21 122 sources of bias of the included studies. Authors concluded that most studies had design limitations
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23 123 with regards to establishing a causal relationship and underlined the need for good quality studies
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26 124 that provide accurate estimates of relative risk of heat effects on occupational injuries.
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28 125 The objective of this study is to estimate the short-term effects of summer and winter outdoor
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30 126 temperatures and air pollution on the risk of work related injuries, and to identify susceptible groups
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32 127 of workers.
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37 129 **Methods**

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39 130 *Study population*

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42 131 We examined all work injuries that occurred between May and September and between November
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44 132 and February in the years 2001- 2010 in three major Italian cities: Milan, Turin and Rome.
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46 133 Data were extracted from the Italian national workers' compensation authority (INAIL) database,
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48 134 which covers about 85% of Italian workers. For each injury episode that caused absences of three or
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51 135 more days, we gathered socio-demographic characteristics, occupation, and job title, and modalities
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53 136 and causes of the injury. Injuries in subjects younger than 17 years of age were excluded.
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55 137 *Meteorological and air pollution data*

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58 138 Rome, Milan and Turin are large metropolitan areas with different climatic conditions. Milan and
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60 139 Turin are located in Northern Italy and have a cold humid subtropical or mild continental climate,

characterized by hot, humid summers with frequent thunderstorms and cold, damp winters often featuring fog in low-lying areas. Rome is located in central Italy 20 km from the Tyrrhenian Sea and has a typical Mediterranean climate with hot, dry summers and mild, wet winters.

Based on previous heat studies conducted in the same cities we chose maximum daily apparent temperature (MAT) [25-27] for the warm season (May-September), [28] and maximum daily temperature (TMAX) for the cold season (November-February) as indicators of temperature.[29] These were measured at the airport station closest to each city. With regards to air pollutants, we used the 24-hr mean daily value of nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) and of particulate matter with an aerodynamic diameter of 10 µm (PM₁₀). Data were extracted from the Regional Environmental Protection Agency (ARPA); values were obtained by averaging monitor-specific daily measurements available from different monitoring stations; we used city-specific daily mean values for all subjects.[30]

Statistical analysis

The analysis was organized in three steps. Because not much is already known about the relationship between work related injuries and temperature and air pollution variations, we first explored the city and season-specific lag structures of each exposure. We used a non-linear distributed lag model (DLNM),[31] allowing a maximum lag structure of 30 days, with the aim of selecting the lags showing the strongest association, using crossbasis centered on the median values of each exposure distribution using a natural cubic spline with df equals 4. As a second step we checked the linearity of the environmental exposure-injury risk relationship, at the lag defined by the previous step, through a Poisson generalized additive model, in each city and season. In both steps models were adjusted for long and seasonal trends using a triple interaction between year, month and day of the week, for holiday days and for influenza epidemics (only in cold season models).

As a third step the effect of environmental exposures on work-injury risk was evaluated using a time stratified case-crossover design separately for each city.[32] For each “case” (the day a work injury occurred) three more days were chosen as controls, matched by day of the week, month and year with the case day, to control for long-term trends, seasonality and day of the week. We

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3 169 estimated odds ratios (OR) and 95% confidence intervals (CI) through a conditional logistic
4 170 regression model, further adjusted for holidays and influenza epidemics (only in the cold season).
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6 171 Models were exposure, season, and city specific. Lags and shape of the relationship were those
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8 172 defined in the previous two steps. Lagged exposure was computed as the average exposure in the
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10 173 days identified by the lag.
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12 174 We adjusted one exposure with the others in the model only when their correlation was lower than
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16 176 We tested potential effect modification, of the environmental exposure-injury risk relationship by
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19 177 economic sector (using the Statistical Classification of Economic Activities in the European
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21 178 Community [NACE], Rev. 2 – 2008”), time spent outdoors or indoors (Indoor/Outdoor job activity)
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23 179 and occupational activity, including an interaction term between each variable and the exposure in
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26 180 the model.
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30 182 *Patient and Public Involvement*

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33 183 Patients and or public were not involved in this study
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37 185 **Results**

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39 186 *Study Population*

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42 187 We analyzed a total of 468,807 work-related injuries, i.e about 52,000 per month independently by
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44 188 the season (Table 1).
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47 190 **Table 1. Injury distribution by workers’ demographic and job characteristics, 2001-2010.**

	Warm Season	Cold Season
Total : 468,807	262,804	206,003
Age group, n(%)		
< 30	60,599 (23.0)	48,408 (23.5)
30 - 50	158,086 (60.2)	121,997 (59.2)
>50	44,119 (16.8)	35,598 (17.3)
Gender, n(%)		
Male	165,054 (62.8)	124,671 (60.5)
Female	97,750 (37.2)	81,332 (39.5)

Economic sector, n(%)

<i>Transport</i>	31,914 (12.1)	24,257 (11.8)
<i>Agro-industry</i>	1,242 (0.5)	969 (0.5)
<i>Fishery</i>	2 (0.0)	2 (0.0)
<i>Mineral extraction</i>	179 (0.1)	140 (0.1)
<i>Electricity gas and water</i>	1,725 (0.7)	1,418 (0.7)
<i>Construction</i>	23,373 (8.9)	16,208 (7.9)
<i>Food, textile and wood industry</i>	6,588 (2.5)	5,264 (2.5)
<i>Electrical, chemical, petrochemical and rubber processing industry</i>	8,445 (3.2)	6,511 (3.2)
<i>Mechanical and metallic industry</i>	10,860 (4.1)	7,413 (3.6)
<i>Business and food service</i>	44,810 (17.0)	34,690 (16.8)
<i>Healthcare system</i>	14,719 (5.6)	11,980 (5.8)
<i>Public services, financial activities</i>	118,947 (45.3)	97,151 (47.2)

Indoor/Outdoor job activity, n(%)

<i>Indoor</i>	105,215 (40.0)	87,578 (42.5)
<i>Indoor high temperature exposure</i>	7,099 (2.7)	5,669 (2.8)
<i>Indoor/Outdoor</i>	88,231 (33.6)	65,299 (31.7)
<i>Outdoor</i>	23,585 (9.0)	16,442 (8.0)
<i>Missing</i>	38,674 (14.7)	31,015 (15.0)

*Meteorological and air pollutants data**Warm season*

Rome and Milan showed a common median value of MAT of about 28°C, while Turin showed a median MAT of 26°C. Rome had the higher minimum value for MAT, (eTable 1, supplementary material). As for pollution, values were quite similar in the three cities; we observed a moderate correlation between PM₁₀ and NO₂ ($\rho \geq 0.5$) in all cities and between MAT and PM₁₀ ($\rho = 0.4$) in Rome (eTable 2, supplementary material).

Cold season

Rome was the warmest city with a median TMAX of 13°C, while Turin and Milan were cooler and had similar median TMAX values of about 8°C. We observed a minimum of -8°C for TMAX in Turin and of -3°C in Milan, while Rome never went below 5°C of TMAX (eTable 1, supplementary materials). As for air pollution we observed similar values of NO₂ in the three cities, and higher values of PM₁₀ in Turin and Milan. (eTable 1, supplementary materials). We observed positive

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3 205 correlations between PM₁₀ and NO₂ in Turin ($\rho=0.5$) and Milan ($\rho=0.6$) (**eTable 2**, supplementary
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5 206 material).

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7 207 *Lag structure and shape of the exposure-work injury relationship (step 1 and step2)*
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10 208 Analysis of the lag structure indicated a delayed effect on injury risk of all analysed exposures;
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12 209 during the warm period the greatest effects were observed within the first week after exposure,
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14 210 while in the cold period effects could persist up to 20 days. (**eFigure 1**, **eFigure 2**, **eFigure 3**,
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16 211 supplementary material). A summary, for all exposures, of chosen lags and of the shape of
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18 212 relationship (linear/non linear) with WRI risk were reported in Figure 1.

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21 213 In the warm period the work-related injury/temperature relationship was linear in Rome (**eFigure 4**,
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23 214 supplementary materials) and non-linear in Turin and Milan. In these two cities we estimated ORs
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25 215 comparing city-specific MAT levels chosen in order to maximize the contrast. These points were
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27 216 identified by observing the injury-temperature relationship in eFigure4. In particular, we compared
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29 217 the 90th percentile (33°C) versus the 50th (26°C) in Turin and 90th percentile (34°C) versus the
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31 218 10th (21°C) in Milan; results for Rome were reported for the interquartile range (32°C versus
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33 219 24°C). As for air pollutants, the PM₁₀/WRI relationship was linear in Rome and nonlinear in Turin
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35 220 and Milan (**eFigure 5**, supplementary material), while the NO₂/WRI relationship was linear in Rome
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37 221 and Turin and non-linear in Milan (**eFigure 6**, supplementary material).

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41 222 In the cold months, the WRI/temperature relationship was non-linear in the three cities (**eFigure 4**,
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43 223 supplementary material). As for the warm period we estimated ORs comparing city-specific
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45 224 TMAX's levels in order to maximize the effect in each city; in particular we compared the 10th
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47 225 percentile (4°C) versus the first percentile (2°C) in Turin, the 25th percentile (6°C) versus the 5th
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49 226 (4°C) in Milan and the 25th percentile (10°C) versus the 5th (8°C) in Rome. Air pollutants–WRI
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51 227 relationship was linear in all the three cities for both PM₁₀ and NO₂. In both climatic periods we
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53 228 estimated effects comparing the 95th percentile versus the 25th when the relationship was non
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55 229 linear and for one unit increase when it was linear. Results were always reported for the 95th
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60 230 percentile versus the 25th (**eFigure 5**, **eFigure 6**, supplementary material).

Conditional logistic regression models (step 3)

In the warm season, the univariate analysis showed a positive association between WRI and MAT, PM₁₀ and NO₂ in all cities. In the cold season, we observed an inverse association between WRI and TMAX and a positive one between WRI and NO₂ in all cities, and between WRI and PM₁₀ only in Rome.

When adjusting temperature for one pollutant at a time in the warm months, the association with WRI resulted to be non-significant, while there was a positive significant effect when adjusting for temperature of both PM₁₀ and NO₂ in all cities; in the cold months we observed a significant association of NO₂ with WRI in all cities, and of TMAX and PM₁₀ in Rome. We reported only adjusted estimates. (Table 2)

Table 2. Adjusted Odds ratios (ORs) of WRI for temperature and air pollutants levels variations in Turin, Milan and Rome. Period 2001-2010.

Environmental exposures	OR (95% CI)	Comparison (percentile)
WARM SEASON (May-September) ^a		
Turin		
Daily maximum apparent temperature (°C) (Lag* 1-7) ^b	1.02 (0.99, 1.06)	90th vs 50th
PM ₁₀ (µg/m ³) (Lag* 0-6) ^c	1.09 (1.05, 1.12)	95th vs 25th
NO ₂ (µg/m ³) (Lag* 0-8) ^c	1.30 (1.24, 1.37)	95th vs 25th
Milan		
Daily maximum apparent temperature (°C) (Lag* 1-7) ^b	1.01 (0.98, 1.04)	90th vs 10th
PM ₁₀ (µg/m ³) (Lag* 0-7) ^c	1.13 (1.10, 1.16)	95th vs 25th
NO ₂ (µg/m ³) (Lag* 0-8) ^c	1.20 (1.16, 1.24)	95th vs 25th
Rome		
Daily maximum apparent temperature (°C) (Lag* 1-7) ^b	1.00 (0.99, 1.02)	75th vs 25th
PM ₁₀ (µg/m ³) (Lag* 0-7) ^c	1.15 (1.11, 1.18)	95th vs 25th
NO ₂ (µg/m ³) (Lag* 0-8) ^c	1.22 (1.16, 1.28)	95th vs 25th
COLD SEASON (November – February) ^d		
Turin		
Daily maximum temperature (°C) (Lag* 6-21) ^b	1.05 (0.93, 1.18)	1th vs 10th
PM ₁₀ (µg/m ³) (Lag* 2-12) ^c	0.98 (0.94, 1.02)	95th vs 25th
NO ₂ (µg/m ³) (Lag* 0-4) ^c	1.11 (1.06, 1.17)	95 ^o vs 25th
Milan		
Daily maximum temperature (°C) (Lag* 6-21) ^b	0.94 (0.92, 0.96)	5th vs 25th
PM ₁₀ (µg/m ³) (Lag* 0-3) ^c	1.00 (0.98, 1.03)	95th vs 25th

NO ₂ (µg/m ³) (Lag* 0-3) ^c	1.09 (1.06, 1.11)	95th vs 25th
Rome		
Daily maximum temperature (°C) (Lag* 0-6) ^b	1.02 (1.00, 1.04)	5th vs 25th
PM ₁₀ (µg/m ³) (Lag* 5-19) ^c	1.05 (1.03, 1.08)	95th vs 25th
NO ₂ (µg/m ³) (Lag* 1-4) ^c	1.04 (1.02, 1.06)	95th vs 25th

^a Final conditional regression model adjusted by holidays.
^b Adjusted for NO₂
^c Adjusted for MAT
^d Final conditional regression model adjusted by influenza epidemics and holidays.
^e Adjusted for TMAX
* Lags expressed in days.

The effect of NO₂

Exposure to NO₂ showed the highest positive association with the risk of being injured at work in both seasons and in all cities. In the warm season, an increase of NO₂ from the 25th to the 95th percentile was associated with an increase in work injuries ranging between 1.20 (95% CI: 1.16-1.24) in Milan and 1.30 (95% CI: 1.24-1.37) in Turin; in the cold season the effect of NO₂ was lower, ranging between 1.04 (95% CI: 1.02-1.06) in Rome and 1.11 (95% CI: 1.06-1.17) in Turin. (Table 2) No effect modifiers of the NO₂/WRI relationship in either season were found.

The effect of PM₁₀

An increase of PM₁₀ from the 25th to the 95th percentile in the warm season was associated with an increase in WRI ranging between 1.09 (95% CI: 1.05-1.12), in Turin, and 1.15 (95% CI: 1.11-1.18), in Rome. During the cold season, we found a significant effect of PM₁₀ only in Rome with a 1.05 (95% CI: 1.03-1.08) increase in WRI. (Table 2) No effect modifiers of the PM₁₀/WRI relationship in either season were found.

The effect of temperature

No significant association between temperature and injury risk was observed in the warm season overall, but for workers in the following economic sectors: transportation (Turin 1.00 - 95% CI: 0.89-1.13; Milan 1.05; 95% CI: 0.96-1.14; Rome 1.04; 95% CI: 1.00-1.09), construction (Turin 1.07 - 95% CI: 0.95-1.21; Milan 1.07; 95% CI: 0.97-1.17; Rome 1.06; 95% CI: 1.01-1.12) and

energy industries (Turin 1.56 - 95% CI: 0.95-2.58; Milan 1.57; 95% CI: 1.03-2.38; Rome 1.00; 95% CI: 0.85-1.18) (Figure 2). However the effect was modest.

The association between WRI and temperature or air pollutants by occupational activity was estimated only for those injuries occurred in one of the three economic sectors with a significant association between temperature and WRI, and only in the warm season (Transportation, Construction, and Electricity Gas and Water - Figure 2). In order to have enough statistical power we aggregated into a single category all those occupational activities for which less than 20 injuries were reported in at least one city. Blacksmith, mechanic, installer, motor worker, road worker, warehouse worker, attendant and asphalter were the only activities for which we observed a significant effect of temperature on WRI. The highest effects were observed for road workers (OR:4.05 - 95% CI:1.20-13.66), warehouse workers (OR:4.45 - 95% CI:1.10-18.02) and attendants (OR:6.91 - 95% CI:1.42-33.57). (Figure 3)

We also observed a significant effect of MAT on those working outdoors in Milan (OR:1.12 - 95% CI: 1.02-1.23) and Rome (OR:1.07 - 95% CI: 1.01-1.12), and among those working both outdoors and indoors only in Rome (OR:1.03 - 95% CI: 1.00-1.06). No effect was observed among those working only indoors (Figure 4).

In the cold season, a decrease of TMAX from 4°C to 2°C was associated with a weak and not significant increase in WRI (OR: 1.02; 95% CI: 1.00-1.04) in Rome (Table 2) while in Turin and Milan no effect was observed. No effect modifiers of TMAX-WRI in the cold season were found.

Discussion

This is the first study conducted in Italy to analyze the independent effects of temperature (hot and cold) and air pollutants on the risk of work-related injuries. The strongest effects on WRI risk was due to exposure to NO₂ in the warm season, with a WRI risk up to 1.3 times higher when NO₂ levels increased from the 25th to 95th percentile of its city-specific distribution.

In general we observed a significant association between exposure to NO₂ and WRI in both seasons, in all job categories, and in all cities; and between PM₁₀ and WRI only in Rome during the cold

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3 292 season. Temperature showed a significant effect only in specific occupational activities during the
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5 293 warm season (May to September).
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7 294 The relationship between NO₂ and the occurrence of work related injuries had a similar shape in the
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9 295 three cities in both periods (**eFigure 6**, supplementary material). As expected, NO₂ values were lower
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11 296 in the warm than in the cold season, with median values in the three cities of about 50 µg/m³ and 73
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14 297 µg/m³ respectively (eTable 1). Despite this, there was a stronger association between NO₂ and WRI
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16 298 in the warm than in the cold season, possibly due to a “ceiling effect”, given that levels of NO₂ in
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18 299 the cold season are always higher. It is also noticeable that the effect of NO₂ remained constant
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21 300 regardless of economic sector or occupational activity. Although an established causal association
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23 301 between NO₂ exposure and occupational injuries risk has not been provided by epidemiological
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25 302 published analyses in our knowledge, our results could suggest a mechanism of action through a
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28 303 decreased level of attention and lower capacity of reaction to unexpected dangerous situations at
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30 304 work. Furthermore, the ascertained evidences of an association between NO₂ exposure (with a role
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32 305 of high temperature as modifying effects) and cardiovascular and respiratory health effects, [33]
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35 306 could allow to suppose a risk of injuries at work as secondary effect of this correlation.
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37 307 PM₁₀ levels showed a similar trend as NO₂, with lower levels in the warmer months and higher
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39 308 levels and a low day by day variability in the cold period. Only in Rome, the southern of the three
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41 309 cities, PM₁₀ showed lower and more variable levels in the cold period. (**eTable 1**, supplementary
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44 310 material); and it is interesting to observe that an increase of PM₁₀ is associated to an increase in WRI
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46 311 in this season only in Rome. In the warm months the effect of PM₁₀ is consistent in the three cities,
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48 312 but lower then that of NO₂. On days in which PM₁₀ levels reach the 95th percentile of the city
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51 313 specific distribution the risk of WRI is 10% higher than on days when PM₁₀ levels are around their
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55 315 The similar shape of the pollutant-WRI risk both among cities and among pollutants supports our
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58 316 study’s robustness Furthermore, what is known about the short term health effects of exposure to
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60 317 air pollutants [33-35] made it reasonable to think of potential effects on work-related injuries. Some

previous studies have analyzed health-related outcomes in specific categories of workers, particularly those exposed to urban stressors, such as street vendors and policemen, and they showed some effects on cardiovascular diseases, pregnancy outcomes, and respiratory diseases.[36-40,20] One study measured a negative economic impact of exposure to air pollutants in agriculture workers, finding lower productivity on more polluted days.[20] Finally, a recent study [36] tried to measure the association between occupational exposure to ozone and respiratory diseases, with no conclusive results.

Mounting experimental evidence suggests that, in addition to the cardiopulmonary system, the brain may be a target of air pollution. Specific mental and neurological disorders, such as depression and headache, as well as suicide have all been linked to ambient air pollution.[41,42] Inhaled concentrated ambient particulate matter may translocate to the brain and produce neuroendocrine and neuropathological alterations.[43] The lag of these effects was short, two or three days;[44] so it is reasonable to think that these exposures might explain the association between pollution and work related injuries.

As for heat, our study showed an increase of injuries only among bricklayers, blacksmiths, mechanics, installers and asphalters working in transportation, construction and energy economic sectors, and in the more generic group of those working outdoor or performing both outdoor and indoor tasks, but not among those who work only indoors. These results are consistent with previous studies.[45,46, 28]

It is interesting that the unadjusted OR of MAT on WRI during the warm season ranged from 1.03 in Rome (75° vs 25° percentile, range=8°C) to 1.06 in Turin (90° vs 50° percentile, range=7°C), but these effects lowered to 1.01 and became not significant when adjusting for air pollution. The observed confounding of temperature by pollution should be considered when comparing our results to unadjusted estimates of temperature-WRI associations from other published studies.

Two previous studies conducted in Italy [47] and in Australia [45] found an inverse U-shaped relationship between high temperatures and WRI in summer, with maximum risk on warm days but

not on extremely hot days. The relationship observed in Turin and Milan (eFigure4) also suggest a similar trend, even if quite weak. Also, the values of MAT in correspondence of which the highest rates of injuries were observed were 33°C-34°C, while they remained stable or decreased afterwards. In Rome, which experiences warmer summer conditions than Milan and Turin, we found a linear relationship consistent with what was observed in two recent studies conducted in Melbourne and in Quebec. [46,12] Different population characteristics as well as temperature distributions might influence these differences between cities. Furthermore, it has to be considered that the trend in the effects observed in Milan and Turin might be biased by the lower statistical power in the highest extremes of the temperature distribution, due to the fewer days observed with those temperature levels. This is not the case in Rome where temperatures even above 34°C are adequately represented.

Ambient heat might increase metabolic heat that is normally produced in activities requiring physical exertion; accordingly we have observed an effect of heat in more physically demanding economic sectors and occupational activities. We categorized workers according to three different criteria as suggested in a previous study:[12] economic sector, occupational activity and outdoor or indoor location. This classification allowed us to measure both the risk associated with physical demands (economic sector and occupational activity) and the gradient of exposure to outdoor heat. Our results showed higher susceptibility among those working outdoors and no effects on those working only indoors, confirming that those working outdoors are more susceptible to pollution and temperatures exposure. However, when analysing single occupational activities, we found that among the most susceptible there were some (mechanics, warehouse workers and attendants) who spend more time indoor than outdoor but still require high physical exertion. Strenuous activity, and use of heavy impermeable personal protective clothing might increase metabolic heat and increase the risk of injuries. This might suggest that the level of physical strength required by the occupation might be an important effect modifier to be taken into account for heat-related risk, independent of work location.[12]

Our study also examine the effect of temperature and air pollutants in the cold season. As for pollution, the effect is lower than in summer, probably because the exposure level is constantly higher; this explain the low and not significant relative risks in the cold season. As for temperature, we did not observe an effect of cold. A previous study conducted in Tuscany, in the center of Italy, found significant cold effects on outdoor occupational injuries especially among agricultures and in drivers of vehicles other than cars [48].

An important strength of this study is that we estimated the independent effects of temperature and air pollution, controlling one for the other in the model. Also, we used a very large dataset that was not derived from self-reported data. However, our study presents some limits. The study population was drawn from the Italian public insurance system database that covers all work-related injuries due to violent causes that leads to death, permanent disability or temporary total disability lasting at least three days, and all occupational diseases. It is remarkable to consider that workers covered by the public insurance system for injuries and occupational diseases make up approximately 80-85% of the whole workforce in Italy. However, daily injury claims may be underestimated because of under-reporting of workers' compensation claims and due to incomplete coverage of the public insurance system lead by INAIL. Some occupational activities, such as firefighters and the armed forces, benefit from a specific welfare system in Italy and are not included in the analyzed dataset. The distribution of daily injury claims by economic sector varies greatly and the relatively small numbers in some sectors dictates a cautious interpretation of results for less represented subgroups. All exposure measures used were daily averages deriving from fixed points of measurement in the city, implying each worker was attributed the same level of exposure independently of his location in the city at the moment of injury, thus having a potential bias in exposure due to different temperatures and pollutants within the city on a given day. However, the error associated with this generalization in exposure is considered to be low.[49] Finally collinearity among NO₂ and PM₁₀ didn't allow to adjust one pollutant for the other, so that the estimate of pollutant effect might be

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3 395 confounded by concomitant exposure to the other one. This limit is proper of almost all air pollution
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9 398 **Conclusions**

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12 399 Our results suggest that exposure to nitrogen dioxide in the warm months strongly increase the risk
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14 400 of work related injuries among all categories of workers. Nitrogen dioxide also showed a significant
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16 401 effect in the cold season, but of lower intensity. These results suggest the need to further look into
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18 402 this association, to confirm our findings and to better understand the underlying mechanisms. Our
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21 403 results also show that , after removing the confounding effect of co-exposure to air pollution, the
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23 404 exposure to high temperature represents a risk only among workers who have heavier work loads
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25 405 and among those who spend most of their time outdoors. Finally our results confirms that in Italy,
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28 406 which is a Mediterranean country with a generally mild climate, ambient exposures represent a
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30 407 hazard for work related injuries only during the warmer months.
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32 408 These results contribute to the increasing knowledge about the association between temperature and
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35 409 work related injuries, and add new evidence about the potential effects of pollutants that have not
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37 410 yet been studied in Italy except on very specific subgroups.
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39 411 Identifying specific subgroups of workers as the most susceptible to these specific exposures is
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42 412 crucial information for public health organizations in order to properly target prevention plans.

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47 415 **Abbreviations**

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49 416 WRI, work related injuries;
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51 417 PM₁₀, particulate matter with an aerodynamic diameter of 10 µm or less;
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53 418 NO₂, nitrogen dioxide;
54 419 MAT, maximum apparent temperature;
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56 420 TMAX, maximum temperature;
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58 421 DLNM, non-linear distributed lag model;
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60 422 OR, odd ratio;

CI, confidence interval.

Declarations

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Availability of data and materials

The data that support the findings of this study are available from *Occupational and Environmental Medicine, Epidemiology and Hygiene Department, Italian Workers’ Compensation Authority (INAIL), Rome, Italy* but restrictions apply to the availability of these data, which were used within the collaboration for the current study, and so are not publicly available. Data are however available from the authors upon reasonable request. and with permission of INAIL.

Authors’ contributions

PS conceptualized and designed the study, drafted the manuscript. FA carried out the statistical analyses, reviewed and revised the manuscript. AM and MB contributed to the draft, critically reviewed the manuscript. MD critically reviewed the manuscript. PM collaborated to conceptualize and to design the study, reviewed and revised the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript as submitted.

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4 451 **Ethics approval and consent to participate**
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6 452 Not applicable
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10 454 **Consent for publication**
11 455 Not applicable
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15 457 **Competing interests**
16 458 The authors declare that they have no competing interests to disclose.
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Figures:

Figure 1. Graphical summary of lags and shapes of exposures/WRI relationship (linear/non linear) by season and city.

Figure 2. Odds Ratios of WRI, adjusted for NO₂, for MAT (lag1-7) increase*, by economic sectors, during warm season (May-September) in Turin, Milan and Rome.

** Turin: 90° vs 50° percentile of MAT*

Milan: 90° vs 10° percentile of MAT

Rome: 75° vs 25° percentile of MAT

Figure 3. Odds Ratios of WRI, adjusted for NO₂, for MAT (lag1-7) increase* by occupational activities, in *Transportation, Construction, Electricity gas and water* industries, during warm season (May-September) in Turin, Milan and Rome.

** Turin: 90° vs 50° percentile of MAT*

Milan: 90° vs 10° percentile of MAT

Rome: 75° vs 25° percentile of MAT

Figure 4. Odds Ratios of WRI for MAT*, NO₂[§] and PM₁₀[§] increases by "Indoor/Outdoor job activity" during warm season (May-September) in Turin, Milan and Rome.

** Turin: 90° vs 50° percentile of MAT*

Milan: 90° vs 10° percentile of MAT

Rome: 75° vs 25° percentile of MAT

§ 95° vs 25° percentile of the distribution of the both air pollutants in the three cities

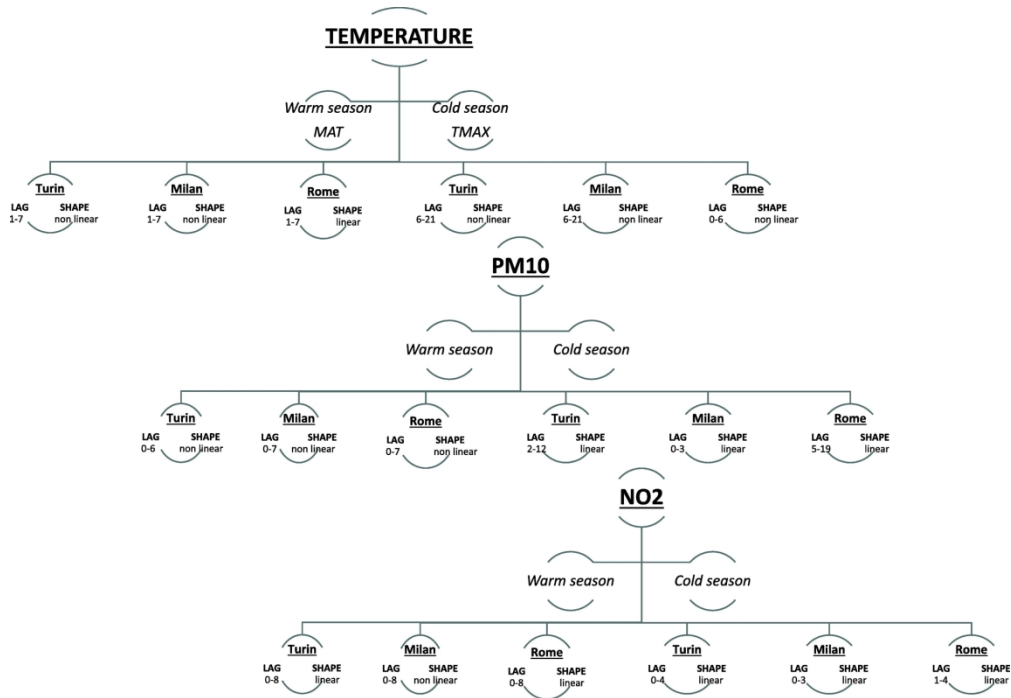


Figure 1

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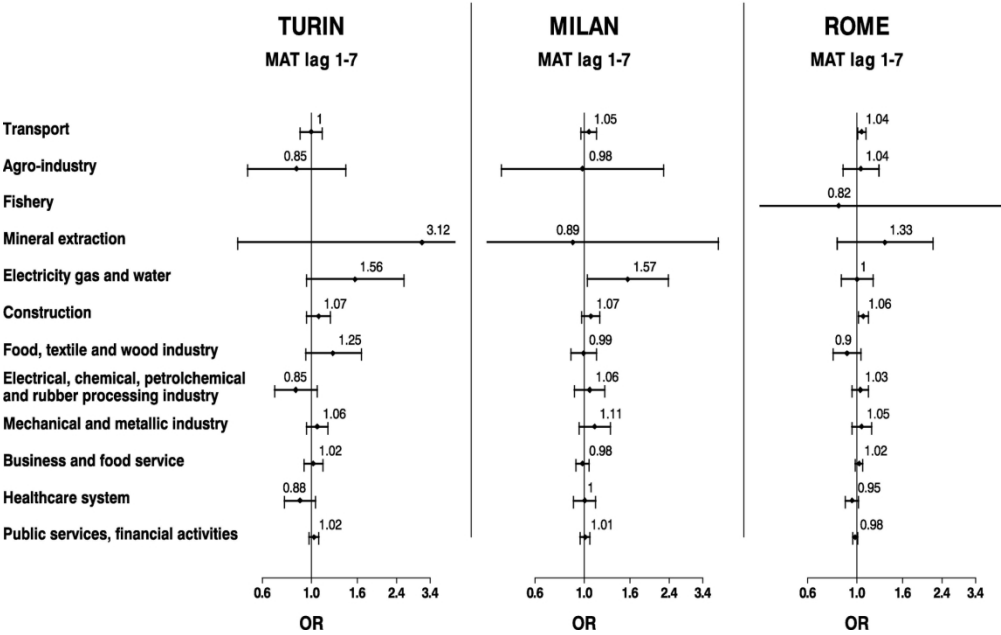


Figure 2

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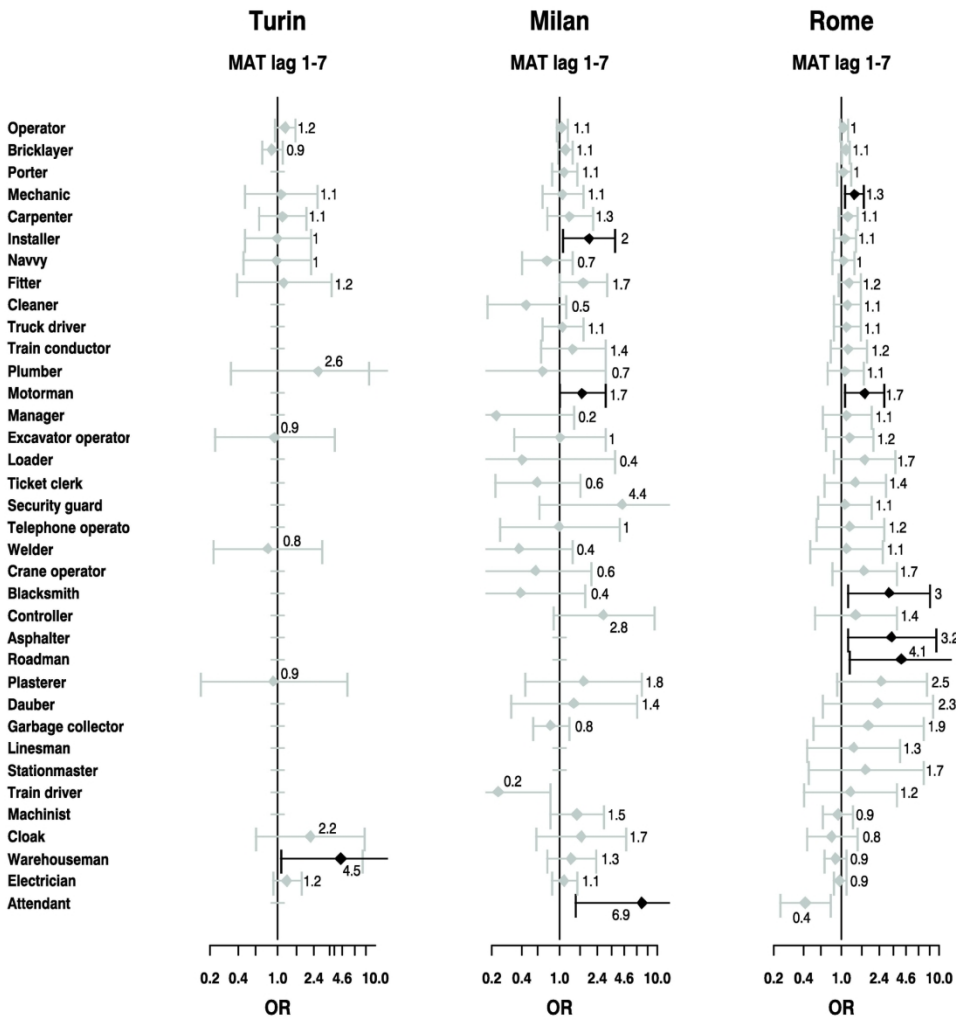


Figure 3

171x181mm (300 x 300 DPI)

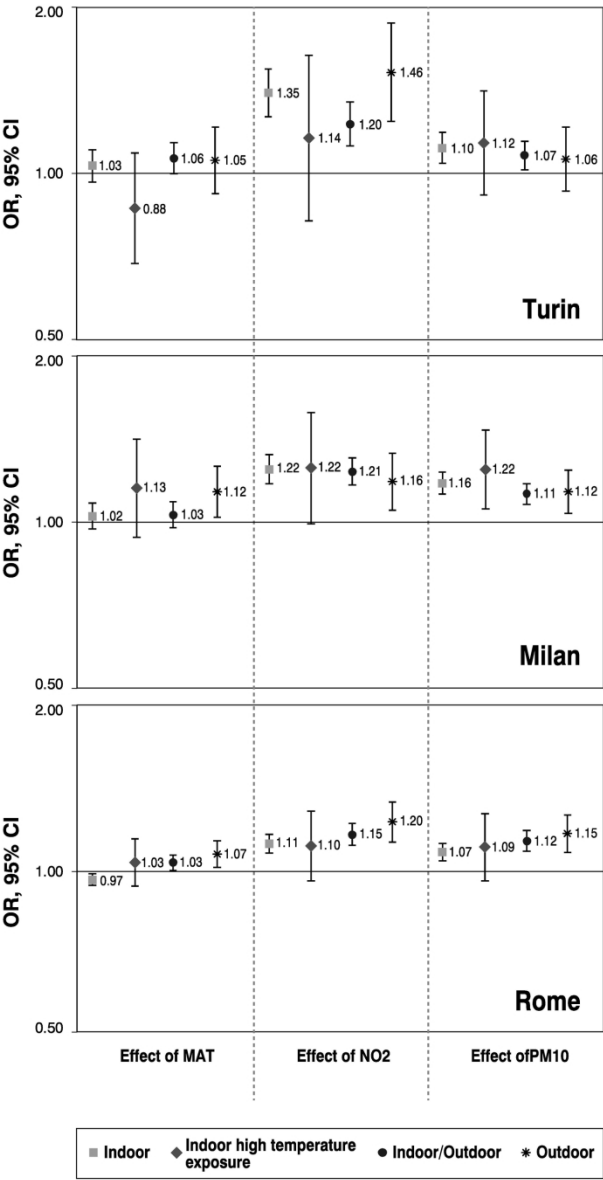


Figure 4

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eTable 1. Temperature and pollutants distribution in Turin, Milan and Rome by seasonal period, 2001–2010.

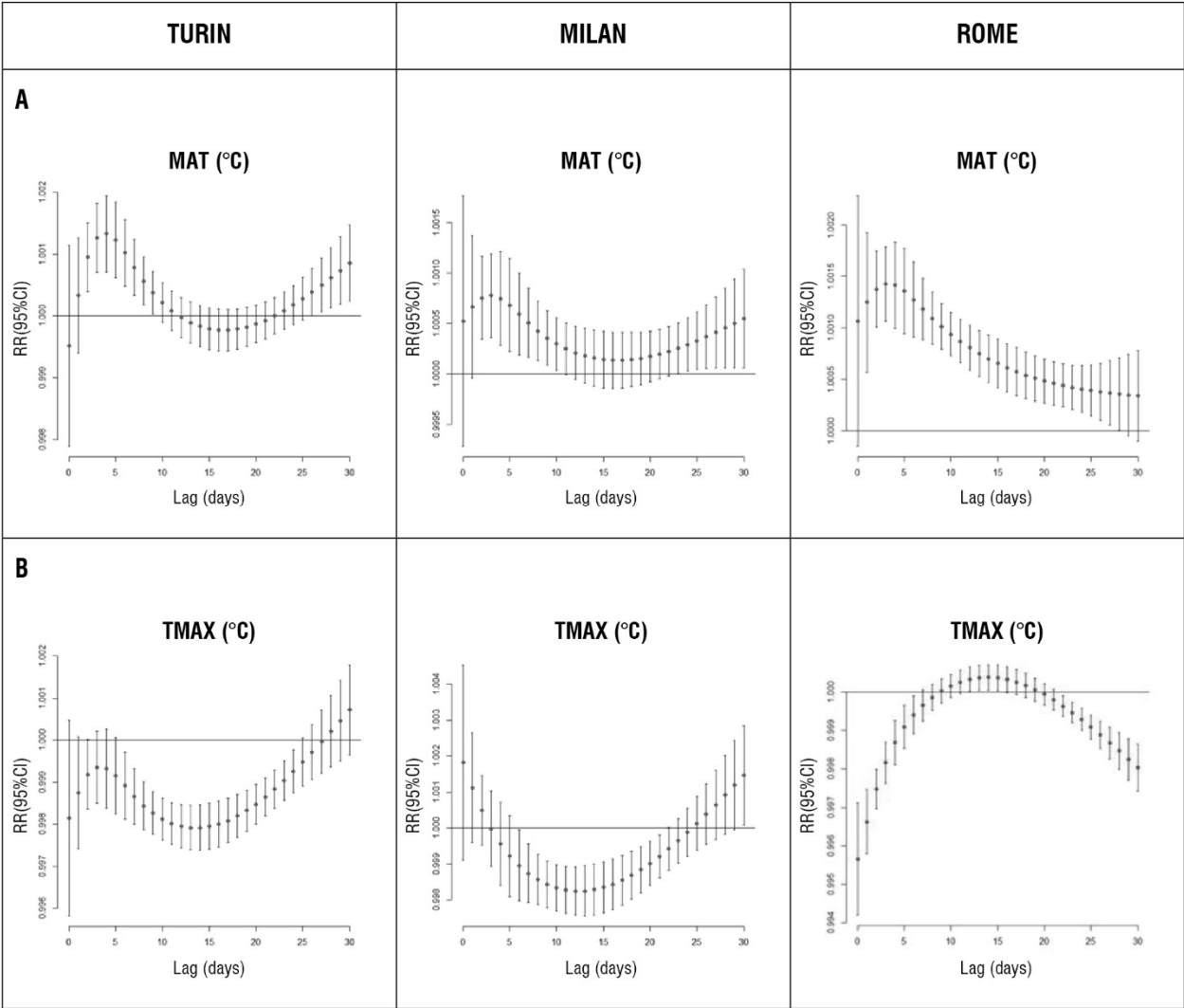
Exposure	Min	25° pctl	50° pctl	75° pctl	Max
WARM SEASON (May - September)					
Turin					
Daily maximum apparent temperature (°C)	9.0	22.3	26.3	30.1	39.7
PM ₁₀ (µg/m ³)	1.0	20.7	28.0	36.5	89.5
NO ₂ (µg/m ³)	12.7	36.8	47.2	59.6	135.1
Milan					
Daily maximum apparent temperature (°C)	6.7	23.9	28.3	32.6	44.0
PM ₁₀ (µg/m ³)	4.9	22.5	29.6	38.5	87.4
NO ₂ (µg/m ³)	11.2	33.9	43.4	53.8	128.1
Rome					
Daily maximum apparent temperature (°C)	12.4	24.4	28.3	32.2	39.7
PM ₁₀ (µg/m ³)	7.3	26.3	32.1	39.6	106.0
NO ₂ (µg/m ³)	11.9	41.9	52.3	62.7	110.1
COLD SEASON (November – February)					
Turin					
Daily maximum temperature (°C)	-7.6	4.7	7.7	10.9	24.9
PM ₁₀ (µg/m ³)	8.0	50.5	75.0	102.0	242.0
NO ₂ (µg/m ³)	19.9	64.9	79.0	92.9	197.9
Milan					
Daily maximum temperature (°C)	-3.2	5.3	8.3	11.3	21.6
PM ₁₀ (µg/m ³)	9.3	44.3	67.3	93.2	314.6
NO ₂ (µg/m ³)	29.6	60.2	72.3	87.2	202.1
Rome					
Daily maximum temperature (°C)	5.5	10.3	12.6	14.5	23.2
PM ₁₀ (µg/m ³)	10.7	27.4	39.4	53.9	141.6
NO ₂ (µg/m ³)	23.9	58.4	68.1	78.2	117.3

eTable 2. Pearson correlation coefficients between daily temperature and pollutants in both seasons for the three cities.

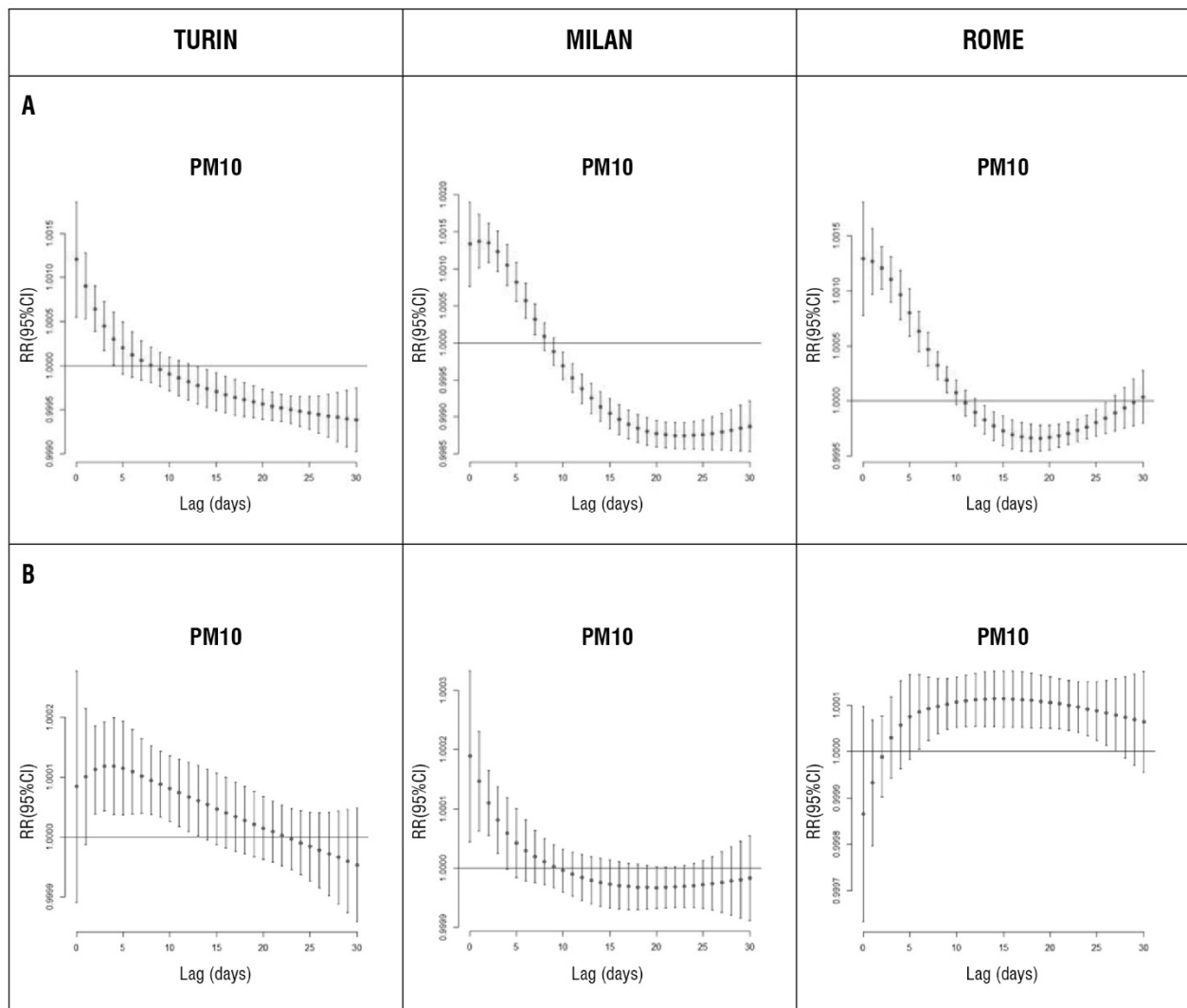
WARM SEASON				COLD SEASON			
TURIN							
	MAT lag 1-7	NO2 lag 0-8	PM10 lag 0-6		TMAX lag 6-21	NO2 lag 0-4	PM10 lag 2-12
MAT lag 1-7	1			TMAX lag 6-21	1		
NO2 lag 0-8	-0.12*	1		NO2 lag 0-4	-0.42*	1	
PM10 lag 0-6	-0.01*	0.61*	1	PM10 lag 2-12	-0.20*	0.51*	1
MILAN							
	MAT lag 1-7	NO2 lag 0-8	PM10 lag 0-7		TMAX lag 6-21	NO2 lag 0-3	PM10 lag 0-3
MAT lag 1-7	1			TMAX lag 6-21	1		
NO2 lag 0-8	-0.22*	1		NO2 lag 0-3	-0.36*	1	
PM10 lag 0-7	0.28*	0.56*	1	PM10 lag 0-3	-0.29*	0.77*	1
ROME							
	MAT lag 1-7	NO2 lag 0-8	PM10 lag 0-7		TMAX lag 0-6	NO2 lag 1-4	PM10 lag 5-19
MAT lag 1-7	1			TMAX lag 0-6	1		
NO2 lag 0-8	-0.08*	1		NO2 lag 1-4	-0.05	1	
PM10 lag 0-7	0.40*	0.49*	1	PM10 lag 5-19	-0.01	0.19*	1

* p-value < 0,05

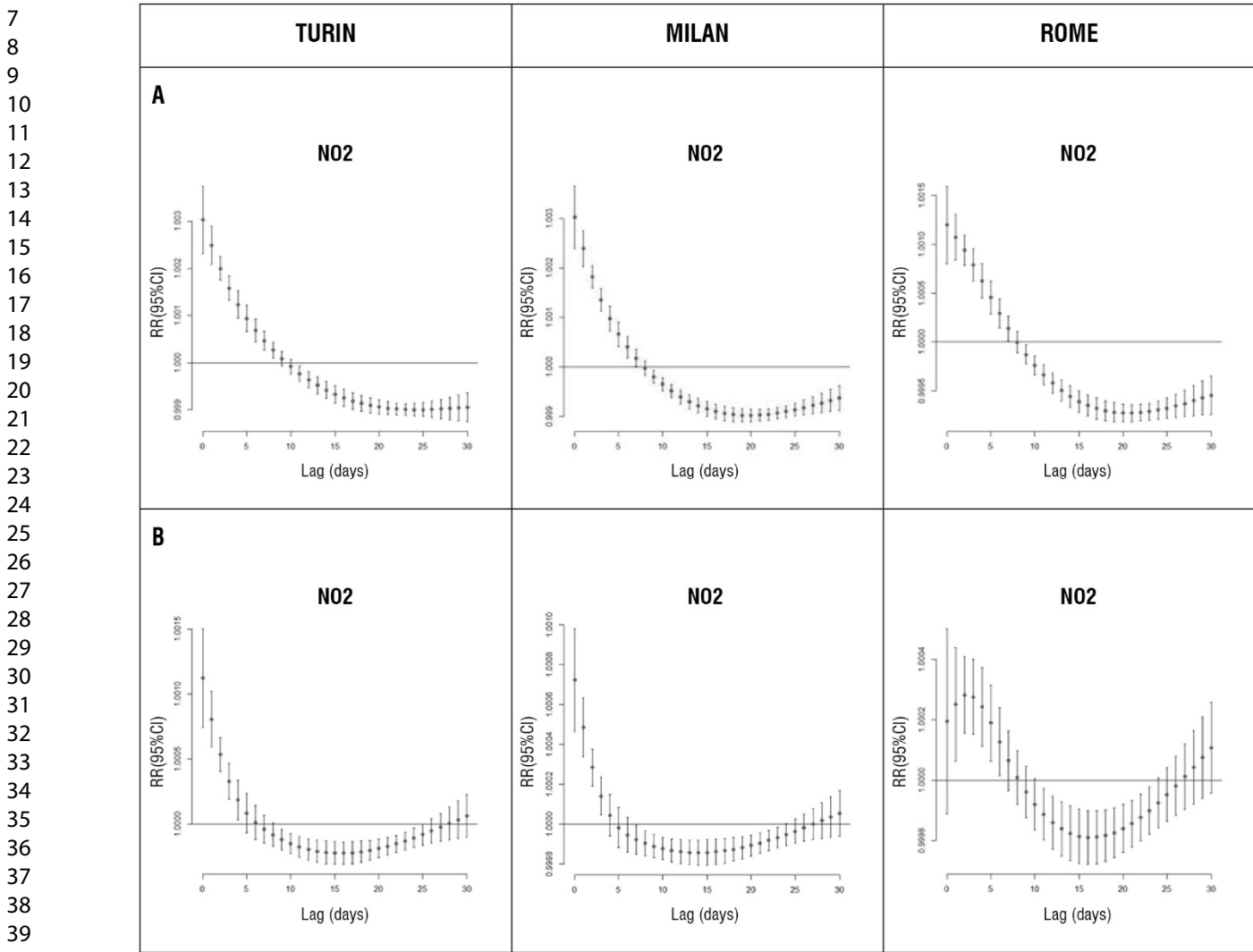
eFigure 1. Lag structure of Relative Risks (RR) of injury for 1 °C increase in temperature in the three cities obtained by a non-linear distributed lag models, warm season (A) and cold season (B)



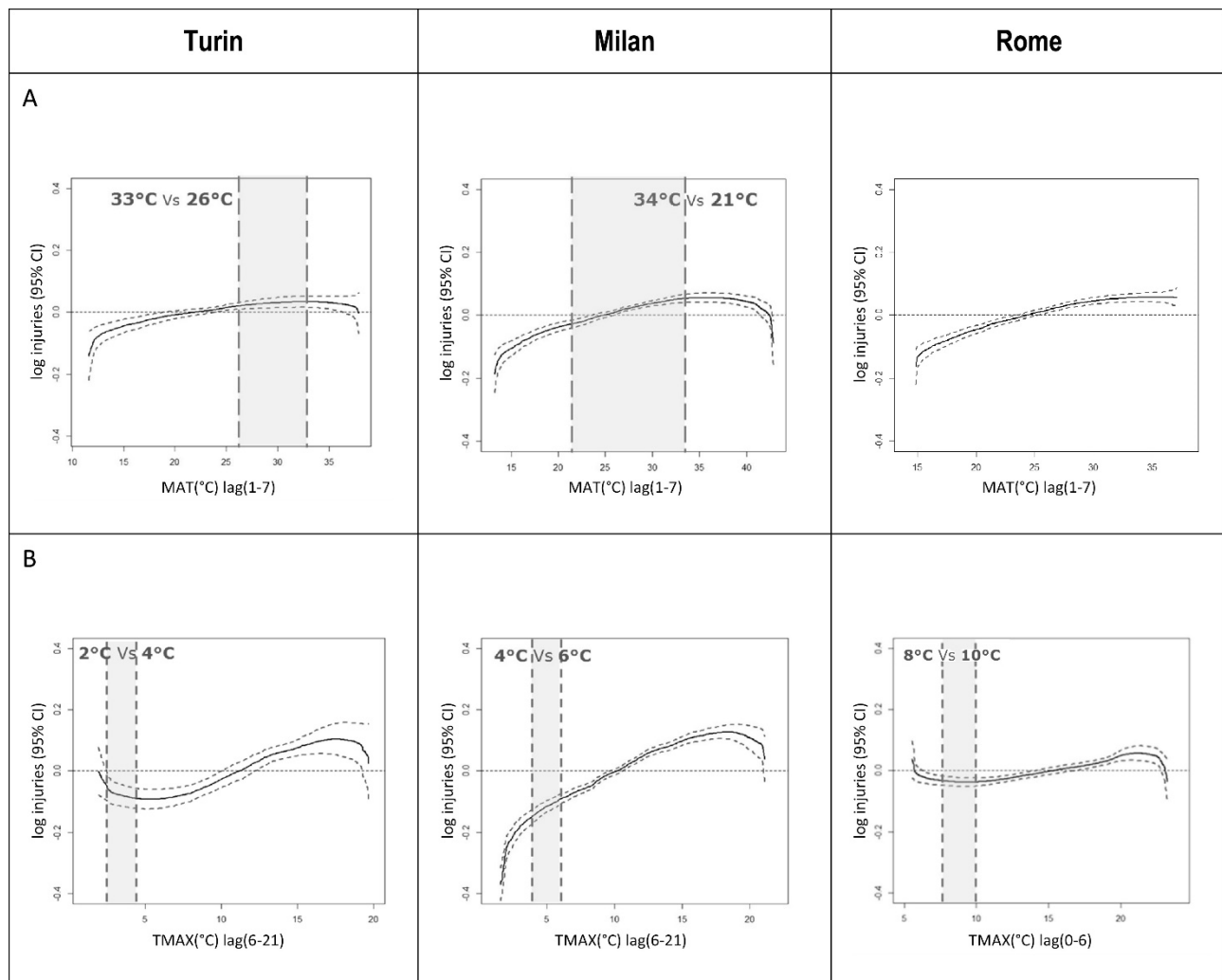
eFigure 2. Lag structure of Relative Risks (RR) of injury for 1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ increase in PM_{10} in the three cities obtained by a non-linear distributed lag models, warm season (A) and cold season (B)



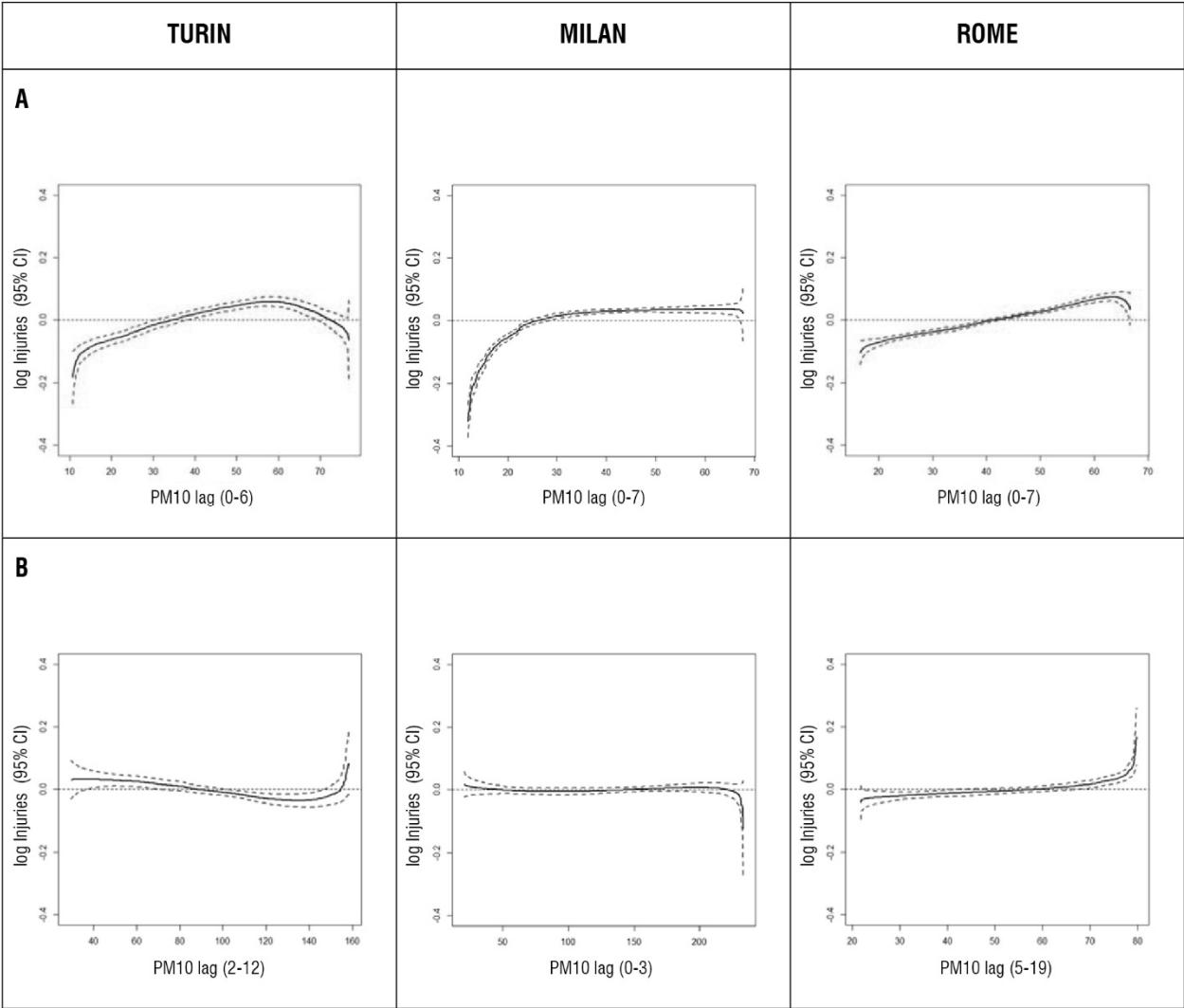
eFigure 3. Lag structure of Relative Risks (RR) of injury for 1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ increase in NO_2 in the three cities obtained by distributed lag models, warm season (A) and cold season (B)



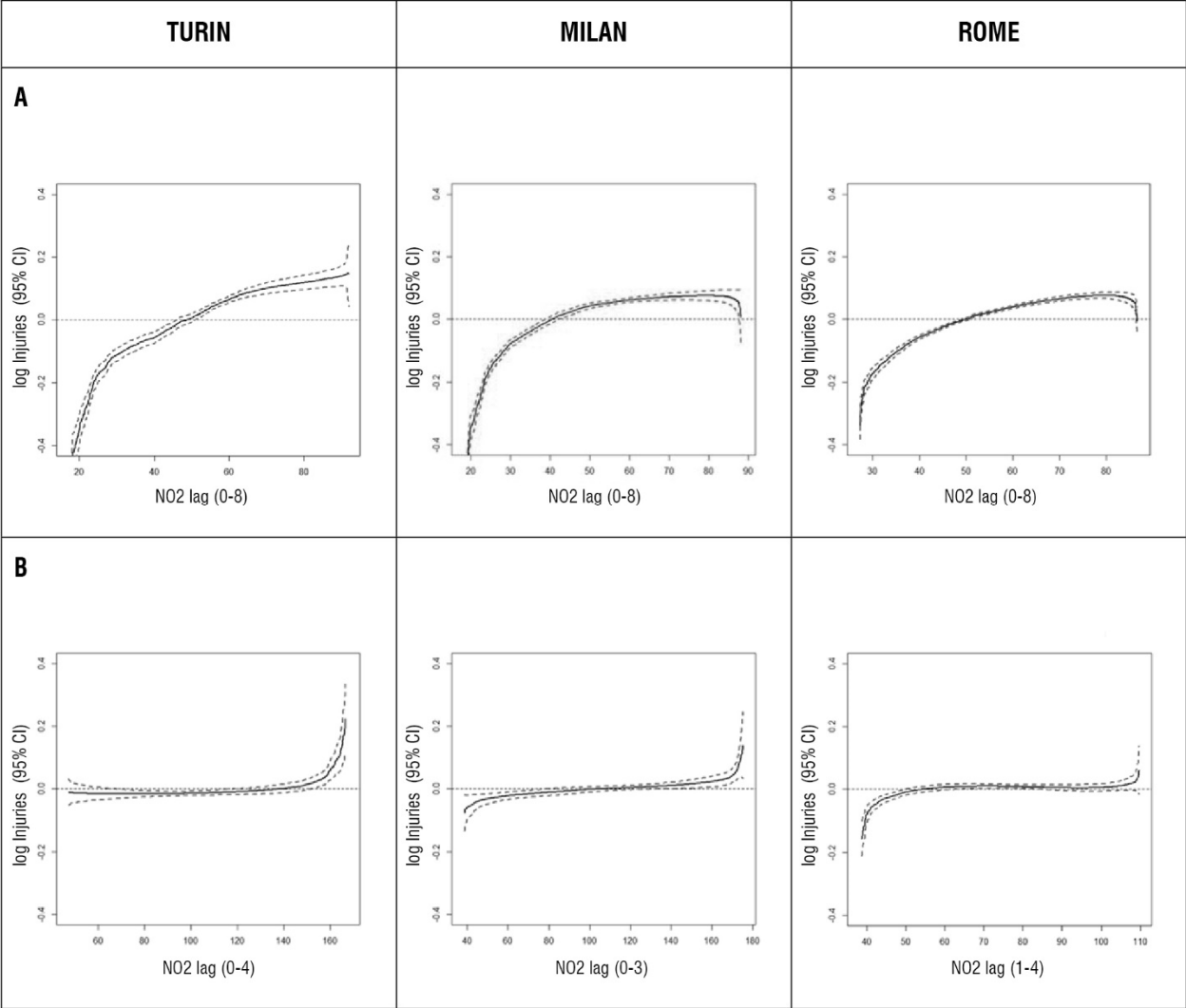
eFigure 4. The injury-temperature relationship in Turin, Milan and Rome in warm season (A) and cold season (B), estimated by a Poisson generalized additive models



eFigure 5. The injury–PM₁₀ relationship in Turin, Milan and Rome in warm season (A) and cold season (B), estimated by a Poisson generalized additive models



eFigure 6. The injury–NO₂ relationship in Turin, Milan and Rome in warm season (A) and cold season (B), estimated by a Poisson generalized additive models



BMJ Open

Do exposure to outdoor temperatures, NO2 and PM10 affect the work-related injuries risk? A case-crossover study in three Italian cities, 2001-2010.

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Title Page

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Manuscript title: Do exposure to outdoor temperatures, NO₂ and PM₁₀ affect the work-related injuries risk? A case-crossover study in three Italian cities, 2001-2010.

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Manuscript title: Do exposure to outdoor temperatures, NO₂ and PM₁₀ affect the work-related injuries risk? A case-crossover study in three Italian cities, 2001-2010.

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Abstract

Objectives

Studies on the effect of temperature on rates of work-related injuries (WRI) are very recent, and are evolving in depth and scope. However less is known about potential effects of air pollutants. Our objective was to analyze the association between WRI and NO₂, PM₁₀ and air temperature in three major Italian cities, and to identify groups of workers more at risk in Italy.

Design time-stratified case-crossover study

Settings Milan, Turin, Rome, years 2001-2010

Participants A total of 468,816 WRI occurred between 2001-2010 in Milan, Turin and Rome were extracted from the Italian national workers' compensation authority (INAIL) database.

Main outcomes Associations between WRI and temperature, PM₁₀, NO₂, separately in the warm and in the cold season (WS, May-September; CS, November-February). Effect modification was studied by economic sector, occupational activity and indoor/outdoor job activity.

Results

Exposure to NO₂ (lag 0-8) showed the highest effect on the risk of WRI, with ORs ranging from 1.20 (95% CI: 1.16-1.24) in Milan to 1.30 (95% CI: 1.24-1.37) in Turin in the WS. The effect of exposure to PM₁₀ was milder but consistent across all cities: ORs from 1.09 (95% CI: 1.05-1.12) in Turin to 1.15 (95% CI: 1.11-1.18) in Rome. Temperature was associated with risk of WRI only among those working in construction (highest association in Rome 1.06; 95% CI: 1.01-1.12), transportation (highest association in Milan 1.05; 95% CI: 0.96-1.14) and the energy industry (highest association

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3 63 in Milan 1.57; 95% CI: 1.03-2.38) in the WS in all cities. A weak effect of low temperatures was
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5 64 observed in the CS only in Rome.

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7 65 **Conclusions**

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9 66 Exposures to NO₂ resulted as strongest hazard for work related injuries, mainly in warm months,
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11 67 while the independent effect of temperature was significant only in specific subgroups of workers.
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14 68 These results could be considered to better plan safety prevention programs.

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18 70 **Keywords:** air pollution; temperature; climate change; occupational health; work-related injuries;
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21 71 case crossover study
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25 73 **Strenghts and Limitations**

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28 74 • We used a very large dataset that was not derived from self-reported data
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30 75 • We analysed data from three major Italian cities with different meteorological and pollution
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32 76 condition
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35 77 • we estimated the independent effects of temperature and air pollution, controlling one for
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37 78 the other in the model
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39 79 • daily injury claims may be underestimated because of under-reporting of workers'
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41 compensation claims and due to incomplete coverage of the public insurance system lead by
42 80 INAIL
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46 82 • All exposure measures used were daily averages deriving from fixed points of measurement
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49 83 in the city
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51 84 **Background**

52
53 85 Extreme weather events are becoming more frequent and intense as a result of climate change [1] and
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55 86 the relationship between extreme temperature and population health has been well documented.[2]
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58 87 Furthermore, air quality is influenced by a changing climate, which in turn impacts population
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60 88 health.[3]The association between outdoor temperature and air pollutants with mortality and

morbidity in the general population has stimulated a large body of research, identifying susceptible subgroups, such as the elderly, people with chronic respiratory and cardiovascular diseases, and children.[4,5]

However, the consequences of climate and pollutants on work environments and their subsequent effects on job performance and safety are only recently coming to light.

Numerous factors such as worksite location and weather conditions may affect occupational exposure to air pollution; and likewise, indoor workplace environments may affect and exacerbate the adverse health effects of exposure to outdoor air pollutants. This is particularly a concern in workers with pre-existing health conditions and could theoretically lead to an increase in safety issues. The association between intense and prolonged occupational exposure to heat and health effects on workers is characterized by dehydration and spasms, increased perceived fatigue, exacerbating hazards resulting from sweaty palms, fogged-up safety glasses, dizziness, and reduced brain function, reduced productivity and decreased reaction capacities.[6-11] Young, male workers and those in occupations requiring physical labor, and outdoor workers, are at higher risk of adverse impact because of their exposure to heat and humid conditions, as well as prolonged exposure to solar radiation and/or other artificial heat sources.[12-15] Furthermore, cultural social and ethnical characteristics of workers could play a significant role. [16] As well, workers exposed to extreme cold may be at risk of cold stress, increased cardiovascular and respiratory diseases risks, musculoskeletal and dermatological disorders, loss of dexterity and injuries related to hypothermia.[7,17]

There is good evidence of the negative effects of short-term exposure to PM_{10} on respiratory health, such as aggravated asthma, respiratory symptoms and an increase in hospital admissions.[18]

Nitrogen dioxide (NO_2) is a strong respiratory irritant gas originating from high-temperature combustion; a large study has shown a positive association between daily increases of NO_2 and natural, cardiovascular, and respiratory mortality.[19] Also, air pollution has been shown to negatively affect other outcomes such as productivity of agricultural workers.[20] To the best of our

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3 115 knowledge, there is a lack of study on the association between air pollution and occupational injuries.
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5 116 Only recently, acute neuropsychological effects have been studied on humans by Sunyer et al.,2017
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7 117 [21] showing an acute effect of air pollution on fluctuations in attention in children that probably
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9 118 arises through the same mechanism as the long-term association. A recent review [22] on this topic
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11 119 stated there is consistent evidence from animal studies showing impairments for short term memory
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13 120 due to air pollution exposure these deteriorations could be involved also as potential explanation of
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15 121 work-related injuries. Another potential mechanism of action that could be involved occurs through
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17 122 acute cardiovascular events triggered by air pollution [23] and leading to a decreased level of attention
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19 123 and lower capacity of reaction to unexpected dangerous situations at work as an acute secondary
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21 124 effect of this correlation.
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25 125 In addition, levels of exposure to pollutants might also vary according to several factors, such as SES,
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27 126 educational level, air conditioning use, proximity to roadways, and work environment.[24]
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29
30 127 The warm season has been seen to be the strongest effect modifier of the effect of some pollutants on
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32 128 natural mortality;[25,26] this might be due to the fact that in summer, measured concentrations of air
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34 129 pollutants are more representative of true exposure because people spend more time outside and open
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36 130 windows more often.
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38
39 131 A recently published review [27] summarized what is known about the heat and cold effects on work
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41 132 related injuries, and identified categories of workers at risk and evaluated heterogeneity and sources
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43 133 of bias of the included studies. Authors concluded that most studies had design limitations with
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45 134 regards to establishing a causal relationship and underlined the need for good quality studies that
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47 135 provide accurate estimates of relative risk of heat effects on occupational injuries.
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51 136 The objective of this study is to estimate the short-term effects of summer and winter outdoor
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53 137 temperatures and air pollution on the risk of work related injuries, and to identify susceptible groups
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55 138 of workers.

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60 140 **Methods**

Study population

We examined all work injuries that occurred between May and September and between November and February in the years 2001- 2010 in three major Italian cities: Milan, Turin and Rome.

Data were extracted from the Italian national workers' compensation authority (INAIL) database, which covers about 85% of Italian workers. For each injury episode that caused absences of three or more days, we gathered socio-demographic characteristics, occupation, and job title, and modalities and causes of the injury. Injuries in subjects younger than 17 years of age were excluded.

Meteorological and air pollution data

Rome, Milan and Turin are large metropolitan areas with different climatic conditions. Milan and Turin are located in Northern Italy and have a cold humid subtropical or mild continental climate, characterized by hot, humid summers with frequent thunderstorms and cold, damp winters often featuring fog in low-lying areas. Rome is located in central Italy 20 km from the Tyrrhenian Sea and has a typical Mediterranean climate with hot, dry summers and mild, wet winters.

Based on previous heat studies conducted in the same cities we chose maximum daily apparent temperature (MAT) [28-30] for the warm season (May-September), [31] and maximum daily temperature (TMAX) for the cold season (November-February) as indicators of temperature.[32] The choice of using two different indicators in the two seasons was driven by statistical reasons; we choose, among the more common indicators used, the one with the best AIC values.

These were measured at the airport station closest to each city. With regards to air pollutants, we used the 24-hr mean daily value of nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) and of particulate matter with an aerodynamic diameter of 10 µm (PM₁₀). Data were extracted from the Regional Environmental Protection Agency (ARPA); values were obtained by averaging monitor-specific daily measurements available from different monitoring stations; we used city-specific daily mean values for all subjects.[33]

Statistical analysis

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3 167 The analysis was organized in three steps. Because not much is already known about the relationship
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5 168 between work related injuries and temperature and air pollution variations, we first explored the city
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7 169 and season-specific lag structures of each exposure. We used a non-linear distributed lag model
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9 170 (DLNM),[34] allowing a maximum lag structure of 30 days, with the aim of selecting the lags
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11 171 showing the strongest association, using crossbasis centered on the median values of each exposure
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13 172 distribution using a natural cubic spline with df equals 4. As a second step we checked the linearity
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15 173 of the environmental exposure-injury risk relationship, at the lag defined by the previous step,
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17 174 through a Poisson generalized additive model, in each city and season. In both steps models were
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19 175 adjusted for long and seasonal trends using a triple interaction between year, month and day of the
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21 176 week, for holiday days and for influenza epidemics (only in cold season models).
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26 177 As a third step the effect of environmental exposures on work-injury risk was evaluated using a time
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28 178 stratified case-crossover design separately for each city.[35] For each “case” (the day a work injury
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30 179 occurred) three more days were chosen as controls, matched by day of the week, month and year with
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32 180 the case day, to control for long-term trends, seasonality and day of the week. We estimated odds
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34 181 ratios (OR) and 95% confidence intervals (CI) through a conditional logistic regression model, further
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36 182 adjusted for holidays and influenza epidemics (only in the cold season). Models were exposure,
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38 183 season, and city specific. Lags and shape of the relationship were those defined in the previous two
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40 184 steps. Lagged exposure was computed as the average exposure in the days identified by the lag.
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45 185 We adjusted one exposure with the others in the model only when their correlation was lower than
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47 186 0.4.
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50 187 We tested potential effect modification, of the environmental exposure-injury risk relationship by
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52 188 economic sector (using the Statistical Classification of Economic Activities in the European
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54 189 Community [NACE], Rev. 2 – 2008”), time spent outdoors or indoors (Indoor/Outdoor job activity)
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56 190 and occupational activity, including an interaction term between each variable and the exposure in
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58 191 the model.
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Patient and Public Involvement

Patients and or public were not involved in this study

Results

Study Population

We analyzed a total of 468,807 work-related injuries, i.e about 52,000 per month independently by the season (Table 1).

Table 1. Injury distribution by workers' demographic and job characteristics, 2001-2010.

	Warm Season	Cold Season
Total : 468,807	262,804	206,003
Age group, n(%)		
< 30	60,599 (23.0)	48,408 (23.5)
30 - 50	158,086 (60.2)	121,997 (59.2)
>50	44,119 (16.8)	35,598 (17.3)
Gender, n(%)		
Male	165,054 (62.8)	124,671 (60.5)
Female	97,750 (37.2)	81,332 (39.5)
Economic sector, n(%)		
Transport	31,914 (12.1)	24,257 (11.8)
Agro-industry	1,242 (0.5)	969 (0.5)
Fishery	2 (0.0)	2 (0.0)
Mineral extraction	179 (0.1)	140 (0.1)
Electricity gas and water	1,725 (0.7)	1,418 (0.7)
Construction	23,373 (8.9)	16,208 (7.9)
Food, textile and wood industry	6,588 (2.5)	5,264 (2.5)
Electrical, chemical, petrochemical and rubber processing industry	8,445 (3.2)	6,511 (3.2)
Mechanical and metallic industry	10,860 (4.1)	7,413 (3.6)
Business and food service	44,810 (17.0)	34,690 (16.8)
Healthcare system	14,719 (5.6)	11,980 (5.8)
Public services, financial activities	118,947 (45.3)	97,151 (47.2)
Indoor/Outdoor job activity, n(%)		
Indoor	105,215 (40.0)	87,578 (42.5)
Indoor high temperature exposure	7,099 (2.7)	5,669 (2.8)
Indoor/Outdoor	88,231 (33.6)	65,299 (31.7)
Outdoor	23,585 (9.0)	16,442 (8.0)

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3		Missing	38,674 (14.7)
4	202		31,015 (15.0)
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6	203	Meteorological and air pollutants data	
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8	204	Warm season	
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10	205	Rome and Milan showed a common median value of MAT of about 28°C, while Turin showed a	
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12	206	median MAT of 26°C. Rome had the higher minimum value for MAT, (eTable 1, supplementary	
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15	207	material). As for pollution, values were quite similar in the three cities; we observed a moderate	
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17	208	correlation between PM ₁₀ and NO ₂ (p≥0.5) in all cities and between MAT and PM ₁₀ (p=0.4) in Rome	
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20	209	(eTable 2, supplementary material).	
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22	210	Cold season	
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24	211	Rome was the warmest city with a median TMAX of 13°C, while Turin and Milan were cooler and	
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26	212	had similar median TMAX values of about 8°C. We observed a minimum of -8°C for TMAX in Turin	
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29	213	and of -3°C in Milan, while Rome never went below 5°C of TMAX (eTable 1, supplementary	
30			
31	214	materials). As for air pollution we observed similar values of NO ₂ in the three cities, and higher values	
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33	215	of PM ₁₀ in Turin and Milan. (eTable 1, supplementary materials). We observed positive correlations	
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36	216	between PM ₁₀ and NO ₂ in Turin (p=0.5) and Milan (p=0.6) (eTable 2, supplementary material).	
37			
38	217	Lag structure and shape of the exposure-work injury relationship (step 1 and step2)	
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40	218	Analysis of the lag structure indicated a delayed effect on injury risk of all analysed exposures; during	
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42	219	the warm period the greatest effects were observed within the first week after exposure, while in the	
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45	220	cold period effects could persist up to 20 days. (eFigure 1, eFigure 2, eFigure 3, supplementary material).	
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47	221	A summary, for all exposures, of chosen lags and of the shape of relationship (linear/non linear) with	
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49	222	WRI risk were reported in Figure 1.	
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52	223	In the warm period the work-related injury/temperature relationship was linear in Rome (eFigure 4,	
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54	224	supplementary materials) and non-linear in Turin and Milan. In these two cities we estimated ORs	
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56	225	comparing city-specific MAT levels chosen in order to maximize the contrast. These points were	
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59	226	identified by observing the injury-temperature relationship in eFigure4. In particular, we compared	
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227		the 90th percentile (33°C) versus the 50th (26°C) in Turin and 90th percentile (34°C) versus the 10th	

(21°C) in Milan; results for Rome were reported for the interquartile range (32°C versus 24°C). As for air pollutants, the PM₁₀/WRI relationship was linear in Rome and nonlinear in Turin and Milan (eFigure 5, supplementary material), while the NO₂/WRI relationship was linear in Rome and Turin and non-linear in Milan (eFigure 6, supplementary material).

In the cold months, the WRI/temperature relationship was non-linear in the three cities (eFigure 4, supplementary material). As for the warm period we estimated ORs comparing city-specific TMAX's levels in order to maximize the effect in each city; in particular we compared the 10th percentile (4°C) versus the first percentile (2°C) in Turin, the 25th percentile (6°C) versus the 5th (4°C) in Milan and the 25th percentile (10°C) versus the 5th (8°C) in Rome. Air pollutants–WRI relationship was linear in all the three cities for both PM₁₀ and NO₂. In both climatic periods we estimated effects comparing the 95th percentile versus the 25th when the relationship was non linear and for one unit increase when it was linear. Results were always reported for the 95th percentile versus the 25th (eFigure 5, eFigure 6, supplementary material).

Conditional logistic regression models (step 3)

In the warm season, the univariate analysis showed a positive association between WRI and MAT, PM₁₀ and NO₂ in all cities. In the cold season, we observed an inverse association between WRI and TMAX and a positive one between WRI and NO₂ in all cities, and between WRI and PM₁₀ only in Rome.

When adjusting temperature for one pollutant at a time in the warm months, the association with WRI resulted to be non-significant, while there was a positive significant effect when adjusting for temperature of both PM₁₀ and NO₂ in all cities; in the cold months we observed a significant association of NO₂ with WRI in all cities, and of TMAX and PM₁₀ in Rome. We reported only adjusted estimates. (Table 2)

Table 2. Adjusted Odds ratios (ORs) of WRI for temperature and air pollutants levels variations in Turin, Milan and Rome. Period 2001-2010.

Environmental exposures	OR (95% CI)	Comparison
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		(percentile)
WARM SEASON (May-September) ^a		
Turin		
Daily maximum apparent temperature (°C) (Lag* 1-7) ^b	1.02 (0.99, 1.06)	90th vs 50th
PM ₁₀ (µg/m ³) (Lag* 0-6) ^c	1.09 (1.05, 1.12)	95th vs 25th
NO ₂ (µg/m ³) (Lag* 0-8) ^c	1.30 (1.24, 1.37)	95th vs 25th
Milan		
Daily maximum apparent temperature (°C) (Lag* 1-7) ^b	1.01 (0.98, 1.04)	90th vs 10th
PM ₁₀ (µg/m ³) (Lag* 0-7) ^c	1.13 (1.10, 1.16)	95th vs 25th
NO ₂ (µg/m ³) (Lag* 0-8) ^c	1.20 (1.16, 1.24)	95th vs 25th
Rome		
Daily maximum apparent temperature (°C) (Lag* 1-7) ^b	1.00 (0.99, 1.02)	75th vs 25th
PM ₁₀ (µg/m ³) (Lag* 0-7) ^c	1.15 (1.11, 1.18)	95th vs 25th
NO ₂ (µg/m ³) (Lag* 0-8) ^c	1.22 (1.16, 1.28)	95th vs 25th
COLD SEASON (November – February) ^d		
Turin		
Daily maximum temperature (°C) (Lag* 6-21) ^b	1.05 (0.93, 1.18)	1th vs 10th
PM ₁₀ (µg/m ³) (Lag* 2-12) ^c	0.98 (0.94, 1.02)	95th vs 25th
NO ₂ (µg/m ³) (Lag* 0-4) ^c	1.11 (1.06, 1.17)	95th vs 25th
Milan		
Daily maximum temperature (°C) (Lag* 6-21) ^b	0.94 (0.92, 0.96)	5th vs 25th
PM ₁₀ (µg/m ³) (Lag* 0-3) ^c	1.00 (0.98, 1.03)	95th vs 25th
NO ₂ (µg/m ³) (Lag* 0-3) ^c	1.09 (1.06, 1.11)	95th vs 25th
Rome		
Daily maximum temperature (°C) (Lag* 0-6) ^b	1.02 (1.00, 1.04)	5th vs 25th
PM ₁₀ (µg/m ³) (Lag* 5-19) ^c	1.05 (1.03, 1.08)	95th vs 25th
NO ₂ (µg/m ³) (Lag* 1-4) ^c	1.04 (1.02, 1.06)	95th vs 25th

^a Final conditional regression model adjusted by holidays.
^b Adjusted for NO2
^c Adjusted for MAT
^d Final conditional regression model adjusted by influenza epidemics and holidays.
^e Adjusted for TMAX
* Lags expressed in days.

The effect of NO₂

Exposure to NO₂ showed the highest positive association with the risk of being injured at work in both seasons and in all cities. In the warm season, an increase of NO₂ from the 25th to the 95th percentile was associated with an increase in work injuries ranging between 1.20 (95% CI: 1.16-1.24) in Milan and 1.30 (95% CI: 1.24-1.37) in Turin; in the cold season the effect of NO₂ was lower,

ranging between 1.04 (95% CI: 1.02-1.06) in Rome and 1.11 (95% CI: 1.06-1.17) in Turin. (Table 2) No effect modifiers of the NO₂/WRI relationship in either season were found.

The effect of PM₁₀

An increase of PM₁₀ from the 25th to the 95th percentile in the warm season was associated with an increase in WRI ranging between 1.09 (95% CI: 1.05-1.12), in Turin, and 1.15 (95% CI: 1.11-1.18), in Rome. During the cold season, we found a significant effect of PM₁₀ only in Rome with a 1.05 (95% CI: 1.03-1.08) increase in WRI. (Table 2) No effect modifiers of the PM₁₀/WRI relationship in either season were found.

The effect of temperature

No significant association between temperature and injury risk was observed in the warm season overall, but for workers in the following economic sectors: transportation (Turin 1.00 - 95% CI: 0.89-1.13; Milan 1.05; 95% CI: 0.96-1.14; Rome 1.04; 95% CI: 1.00-1.09), construction (Turin 1.07 - 95% CI: 0.95-1.21; Milan 1.07; 95% CI: 0.97-1.17; Rome 1.06; 95% CI: 1.01-1.12) and energy industries (Turin 1.56 - 95% CI: 0.95-2.58; Milan 1.57; 95% CI: 1.03-2.38; Rome 1.00; 95% CI: 0.85-1.18) (Figure 2). However the effect was modest.

The association between WRI and temperature or air pollutants by occupational activity was estimated only for those injuries occurred in one of the three economic sectors with a significant association between temperature and WRI, and only in the warm season (Transportation, Construction, and Electricity Gas and Water - Figure 2). In order to have enough statistical power we aggregated into a single category all those occupational activities for which less than 20 injuries were reported in at least one city. Blacksmith, mechanic, installer, motor worker, road worker, warehouse worker, attendant and asphalter were the only activities for which we observed a significant effect of temperature on WRI. The highest effects were observed for road workers (OR:4.05 - 95% CI:1.20-13.66), warehouse workers (OR:4.45 - 95% CI:1.10-18.02) and attendants (OR:6.91 - 95% CI:1.42-33.57). (Figure 3)

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3 288 We also observed a significant effect of MAT on those working outdoors in Milan (OR:1.12 - 95%
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5 289 CI: 1.02-1.23) and Rome (OR:1.07 - 95% CI: 1.01-1.12), and among those working both outdoors
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7 290 and indoors only in Rome (OR:1.03 - 95% CI: 1.00-1.06). No effect was observed among those
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9 291 working only indoors (Figure 4).

11
12 292 In the cold season, a decrease of TMAX from 4°C to 2°C was associated with a weak and not
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14 293 significant increase in WRI (OR: 1.02; 95% CI: 1.00-1.04) in Rome (Table 2) while in Turin and
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16 294 Milan no effect was observed. No effect modifiers of TMAX-WRI in the cold season were found.

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19 295 **Discussion**

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21 296 This is the first study conducted in Italy to analyze the independent effects of temperature (hot and
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23 297 cold) and air pollutants on the risk of work-related injuries. The strongest effects on WRI risk was
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25 298 due to exposure to NO₂ in the warm season, with a WRI risk up to 1.3 times higher when NO₂ levels
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27 299 increased from the 25th to 95th percentile of its city-specific distribution.

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30 300 In general we observed a significant association between exposure to NO₂ and WRI in both seasons
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32 301 and in all cities; and between PM₁₀ and WRI only in Rome during the cold season and in all the three
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34 302 cities during summer. Temperature showed a significant effect only in specific occupational activities
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36 303 during the warm season (May to September).

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39 304 The relationship between NO₂ and the occurrence of work related injuries had a similar shape in the
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41 305 three cities in both periods (eFigure 6, supplementary material). As expected, NO₂ values were lower
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43 306 in the warm than in the cold season, with median values in the three cities of about 50 µg/m³ and 73
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45 307 µg/m³ respectively (eTable 1). Despite this, there was a stronger association between NO₂ and WRI
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47 308 in the warm than in the cold season, although levels of NO₂ in the cold season are always higher. It
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49 309 is also noticeable that the effect of NO₂ remained constant regardless of economic sector or
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51 310 occupational activity.

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55 311 The relationship between PM₁₀ and the occurrence of work related injuries had a non linear shape in
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57 312 Turin and Milan, while was linear in Rome in the warm season; during winter, instead, the shape was
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59 313 similar in the three cities (eFigure 5, supplementary material). PM₁₀ levels showed a similar trend as

NO₂, with lower levels in the warmer months and higher levels and a low day by day variability in the cold period. Only in Rome, the southern of the three cities, PM₁₀ showed lower and more variable levels in the cold period. (eTable 1, supplementary material); and it is interesting to observe that an increase of PM₁₀ is associated to an increase in WRI in this season only in Rome. In the warm months the effect of PM₁₀ is consistent in the three cities, but lower then that of NO₂. On days in which PM₁₀ levels reach the 95th percentile of the city specific distribution the risk of WRI is circa 10% higher than on days when PM₁₀ levels are around their 25th percentile.

The differences observed in the shape of the pollutant-WRI risk among cities could be explained by the different geographical and climatic characteristics and also by sources of air pollution; for example in Rome there are additional sources on particulate matters levels, above all Saharan dust storms [36].

Mounting experimental evidence suggests in addition to the well-known short-term effects on various health outcomes [23, 37-38], such as cardiopulmonary system, the brain may be a target of air pollution. Specific mental and neurological disorders, such as depression and headache, as well as suicide have all been linked to ambient air pollution.[39,40] Moreover evidence on acute neuropsychological effect has been studied only very recently on humans by Sunyer et al.,2017, [21] showing a short-term association between air pollutants and fluctuations in attention in children. These effects could probably arise through the same mechanism as the long-term association, since a recent review [22] showed as potential mechanisms oxidative stress/inflammation, altered levels of dopamine and/or glutamate and changes in synaptic plasticity/structure based on consistent evidence from animal studies. Inhaled concentrated ambient particulate matter is deposited in pulmonary alveolar regions of lung from which it can pass to the blood circulation and thus impact other organs and produce neuroendocrine and neuropathological alterations.[41] Another gateway to the brain involve translocation of pollution across the olfactory epithelium in the nasal cavity. [22] In our study the lag of PM₁₀ and NO₂ effects was short, two or three days;[42] so it is reasonable to think that these exposures might explain the association between pollution and work related injuries. Some previous

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3 340 studies have analyzed health-related outcomes in specific categories of workers, particularly those
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5 341 exposed to urban stressors, such as street vendors and policemen, and they showed some effects on
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7 342 cardiovascular diseases, pregnancy outcomes, and respiratory diseases.[43-47,20] One study
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9 343 measured a negative economic impact of exposure to air pollutants in agriculture workers, finding
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11 344 lower productivity on more polluted days.[20] Finally, a recent study [43] tried to measure the
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14 345 association between occupational exposure to ozone and respiratory diseases, with no conclusive
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16 346 results. It could be considered that above mentioned mechanisms may differ between seasons; during
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18 347 the warm season, part of the observed effect of pollutants may be attributable to the synergistic effect
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21 348 between temperature and air quality as previously suggested in the general population studies [48].
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23 349 One mechanism involve the higher frequency of air pollution peaks occurring during stagnation
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25 350 events common in summer season. Moreover, during the hottest months the activation of
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28 351 thermoregulatory mechanisms such as the increase in ventilation rate could increase the intake of air
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30 352 pollutants into the airways.
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32 353 As for heat, our study showed an increase of injuries only among bricklayers, blacksmiths, mechanics,
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34 354 installers and asphalters working in transportation, construction and energy economic sectors , and
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37 355 in the more generic group of those working outdoor or performing both outdoor and indoor tasks, but
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39 356 not among those who work only indoors. These results are consistent with previous studies.[49,50,
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44 358 It is interesting that the unadjusted OR of MAT on WRI during the warm season ranged from 1.03 in
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46 359 Rome (75° vs 25° percentile, range=8°C) to 1.06 in Turin (90° vs 50° percentile, range=7°C), but
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49 360 these effects lowered to 1.01 and became not significant when adjusting for air pollution. The
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51 361 observed confounding of temperature by pollution should be considered when comparing our results
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53 362 to unadjusted estimates of temperature-WRI associations from other published studies.
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55 363 Two previous studies conducted in Italy [51] and in Australia [49] found an inverse U-shaped
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58 364 relationship between high temperatures and WRI in summer, with maximum risk on warm days but
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60 365 not on extremely hot days. The relationship observed in Turin and Milan (eFigure4) also suggest a

similar trend, even if quite weak. Also, the values of MAT in correspondence of which the highest rates of injuries were observed were 33°C-34°C, while they remained stable or decreased afterwards. In Rome, which experiences warmer summer conditions than Milan and Turin, we found a linear relationship consistent with what was observed in two recent studies conducted in Melbourne and in Quebec. [50,12] Different population characteristics as well as temperature distributions might influence these differences between cities. Furthermore, it has to be considered that the trend in the effects observed in Milan and Turin might be biased by the lower statistical power in the highest extremes of the temperature distribution, due to the fewer days observed with those temperature levels. This is not the case in Rome where temperatures even above 34°C are adequately represented. Ambient heat might increase metabolic heat that is normally produced in activities requiring physical exertion; accordingly we have observed an effect of heat in more physically demanding economic sectors and occupational activities. We categorized workers according to three different criteria as suggested in a previous study:[12] economic sector, occupational activity and outdoor or indoor location. This classification allowed us to measure both the risk associated with physical demands (economic sector and occupational activity) and the gradient of exposure to outdoor heat. Our results showed higher susceptibility among those working outdoors and no effects on those working only indoors, confirming that those working outdoors are more susceptible to pollution and temperatures exposure. However, when analysing single occupational activities, we found that among the most susceptible to heat there were some (mechanics, warehouse workers and attendants) who spend more time indoor than outdoor but still require high physical exertion. Strenuous activity, and use of heavy impermeable personal protective clothing might increase metabolic heat and increase the risk of injuries. This might suggest that the level of physical strength required by the occupation might be an important effect modifier to be taken into account for heat-related risk, independent of work location.[12]

Our study also examine the effect of temperature and air pollutants in the cold season. As for pollution, the effect is lower than in summer; for temperature, we did not observe an effect of cold.

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3 392 A previous study conducted in Tuscany, in the center of Italy, found significant cold effects on
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5 393 outdoor occupational injuries especially among agricultures and in drivers of vehicles other than cars
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7 394 [52].
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9 395 An important strength of this study is that we estimated the independent effects of temperature and
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11 396 air pollution, controlling one for the other in the model. Also, we used a very large dataset that was
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14 397 not derived from self-reported data. However, our study presents some limits. The study population
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16 398 was drawn from the Italian public insurance system database that covers all work-related injuries due
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18 399 to violent causes that leads to death, permanent disability or temporary total disability lasting at least
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21 400 three days, and all occupational diseases. It is remarkable to consider that workers covered by the
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23 401 public insurance system for injuries and occupational diseases make up approximately 80-85% of the
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25 402 whole workforce in Italy. However, daily injury claims may be underestimated because of under-
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28 403 reporting of workers' compensation claims and due to incomplete coverage of the public insurance
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30 404 system lead by INAIL. Some occupational activities, such as firefighters and the armed forces, benefit
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32 405 from a specific welfare system in Italy and are not included in the analyzed dataset. The distribution
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35 406 of daily injury claims by economic sector varies greatly and the relatively small numbers in some
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37 407 sectors dictates a cautious interpretation of results for less represented subgroups.
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39 408 All exposure measures used were daily averages deriving from fixed points of measurement in the
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42 409 city, implying each worker was attributed the same level of exposure independently of his location in
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44 410 the city at the moment of injury, thus having a potential bias in exposure due to different temperatures
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46 411 and pollutants within the city on a given day. However, the error associated with this generalization
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49 412 in exposure is considered to be low.[53] Finally collinearity among NO₂ and PM₁₀ didn't allow to
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51 413 adjust one pollutant for the other, so that the estimate of pollutant effect might be confounded by
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53 414 concomitant exposure to the other one. This limit is proper of almost all air pollution studies.
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57
58 416 **Conclusions**
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Our results show that , after removing the confounding effect of co-exposure to air pollution, the exposure to high temperature represents a risk only among workers who have heavier work loads and among those who spend most of their time outdoors. Our results also suggest that exposure to air pollution, especially NO₂, seems also to increase the risk of work related injuries with a stronger effect in the warm months. These results suggest the need to further look into this association, to confirm our findings and to better understand the underlying mechanisms. In conclusion, our results confirms that in Italy, which is a Mediterranean country with a generally mild climate, ambient exposures represent a hazard for work related injuries. These results contribute to the increasing knowledge about the association between temperature and work related injuries, and add new evidence about the potential effects of pollutants that have not yet been studied in Italy except on very specific subgroups.

Identifying specific subgroups of workers as the most susceptible to these specific exposures is crucial information for public health organizations in order to properly target prevention plans.

Abbreviations

WRI, work related injuries;
PM₁₀, particulate matter with an aerodynamic diameter of 10 µm or less;
NO₂, nitrogen dioxide;
MAT, maximum apparent temperature;
TMAX, maximum temperature;
DLNM, non-linear distributed lag model;
OR, odd ratio;
CI, confidence interval.

Declarations

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6
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8
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10 447

11
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13
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15
16 450 Modello integrato di monitoraggio dell’esposizione ambientale, allerta, sorveglianza rapida sanitaria
17
18 e promozione di misure di prevenzione per ridurre l’impatto sulla salute”funded by CCM – Ministero
19 451 della Salute.
20
21 452

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23 453

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25 454 **Availability of data and materials**

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27
28 455 The data that support the findings of this study are available from *Occupational and Environmental*
29
30 456 *Medicine, Epidemiology and Hygiene Department, Italian Workers’ Compensation Authority*
31
32 457 *(INAIL), Rome, Italy* but restrictions apply to the availability of these data, which were used within
33
34 the collaboration for the current study, and so are not publicly available. Data are however available
35 458 from the authors upon reasonable request. and with permission of INAIL.
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41 461 **Authors’ contributions**

42
43 462 PS conceptualized and designed the study, drafted the manuscript. FA carried out the statistical
44
45 analyses, reviewed and revised the manuscript. AM and MB contributed to the draft, critically
46 463 reviewed the manuscript. MD critically reviewed the manuscript. PM collaborated to conceptualize
47
48 464 and to desig the study, reviewed and revised the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final
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50 465 manuscript as submitted.
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56 468 **Ethics approval and consent to participate**

57
58 469 Not applicable
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60 470

Consent for publication

Not applicable

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests to disclose.

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Figures:

Figure 1. Graphical summary of lags and shapes of exposures/WRI relationship (linear/non linear) by season and city.

Figure 2. Odds Ratios of WRI, adjusted for NO₂, for MAT (lag1-7) increase*, by economic sectors, during warm season (May-September) in Turin, Milan and Rome.

* Turin: 90° vs 50° percentile of MAT
 Milan: 90° vs 10° percentile of MAT
 Rome: 75° vs 25° percentile of MAT

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Figure 3. Odds Ratios of WRI, adjusted for NO₂, for MAT (lag1-7) increase* by occupational activities, in *Transportation, Construction, Electricity gas and water* industries, during warm season (May-September) in Turin, Milan and Rome.
* *Turin: 90° vs 50° percentile of MAT*
Milan: 90° vs 10° percentile of MAT
Rome: 75° vs 25° percentile of MAT

Figure 4. Odds Ratios of WRI for MAT*, NO₂§ and PM₁₀§ increases by "Indoor/Outdoor job activity" during warm season (May-September) in Turin, Milan and Rome.
* *Turin: 90° vs 50° percentile of MAT*
Milan: 90° vs 10° percentile of MAT
Rome: 75° vs 25° percentile of MAT
§ *95° vs 25° percentile of the distribution of the both air pollutants in the three cities*

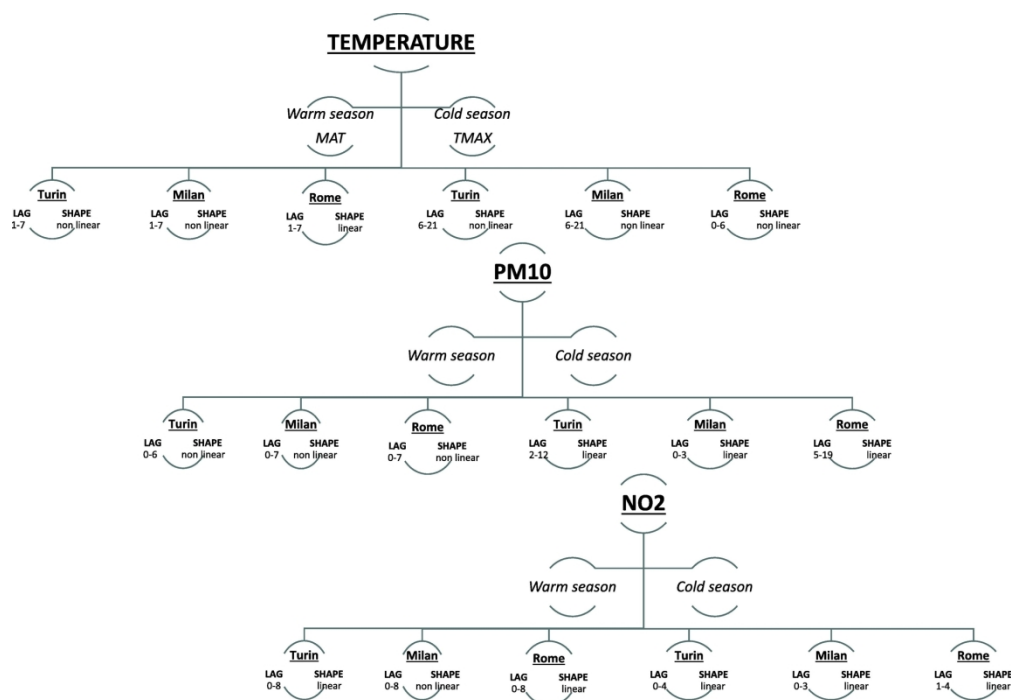


Figure 1

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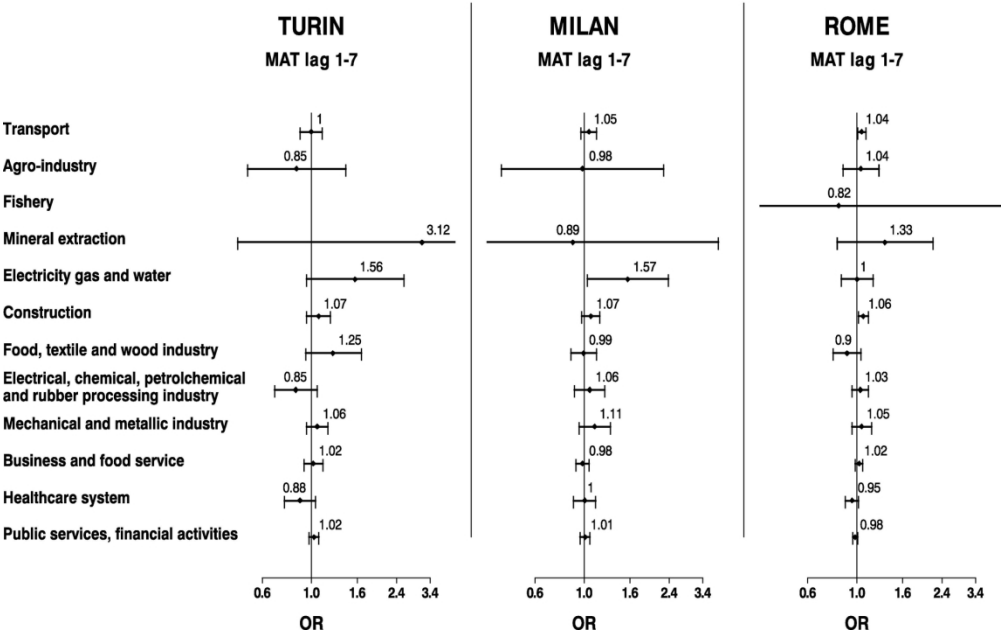


Figure 2

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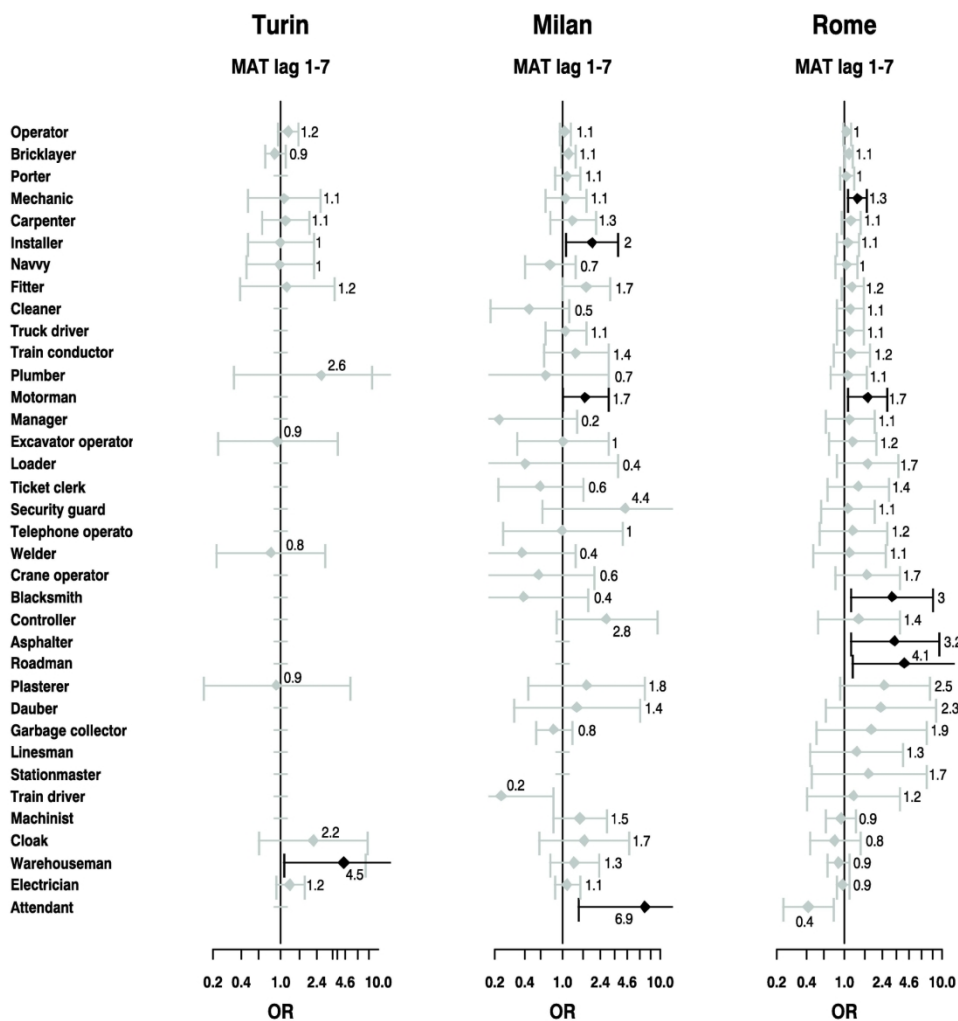


Figure 3

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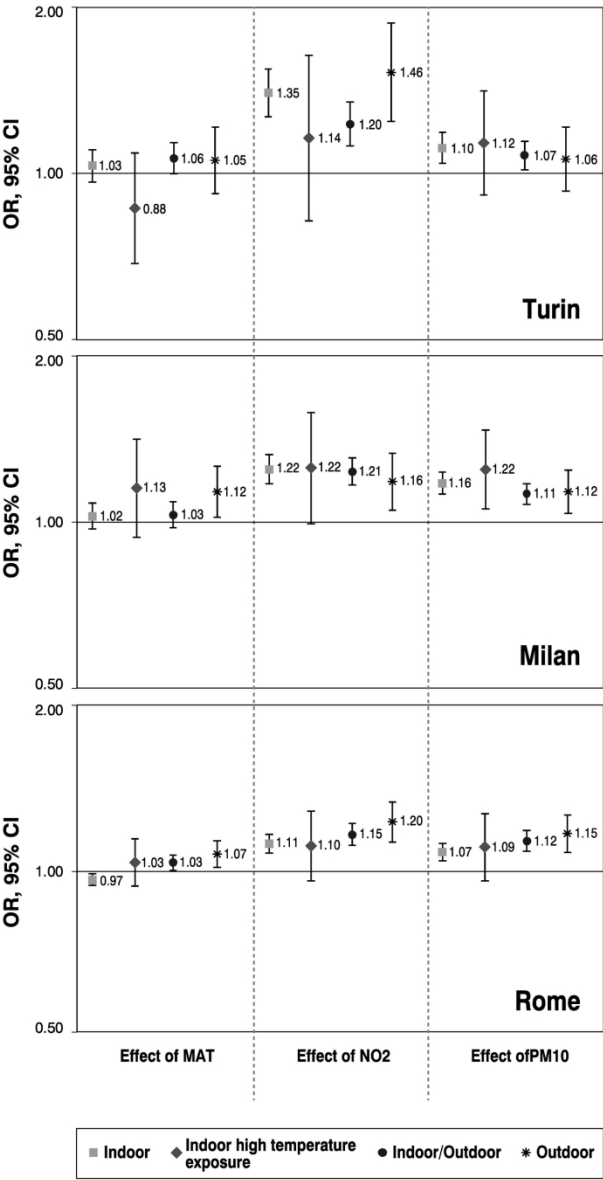


Figure 4

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eTable 1. Temperature and pollutants distribution in Turin, Milan and Rome by seasonal period, 2001–2010.

Exposure	Min	25° pctl	50° pctl	75° pctl	Max
WARM SEASON (May - September)					
Turin					
Daily maximum apparent temperature (°C)	9.0	22.3	26.3	30.1	39.7
PM ₁₀ (µg/m ³)	1.0	20.7	28.0	36.5	89.5
NO ₂ (µg/m ³)	12.7	36.8	47.2	59.6	135.1
Milan					
Daily maximum apparent temperature (°C)	6.7	23.9	28.3	32.6	44.0
PM ₁₀ (µg/m ³)	4.9	22.5	29.6	38.5	87.4
NO ₂ (µg/m ³)	11.2	33.9	43.4	53.8	128.1
Rome					
Daily maximum apparent temperature (°C)	12.4	24.4	28.3	32.2	39.7
PM ₁₀ (µg/m ³)	7.3	26.3	32.1	39.6	106.0
NO ₂ (µg/m ³)	11.9	41.9	52.3	62.7	110.1
COLD SEASON (November – February)					
Turin					
Daily maximum temperature (°C)	-7.6	4.7	7.7	10.9	24.9
PM ₁₀ (µg/m ³)	8.0	50.5	75.0	102.0	242.0
NO ₂ (µg/m ³)	19.9	64.9	79.0	92.9	197.9
Milan					
Daily maximum temperature (°C)	-3.2	5.3	8.3	11.3	21.6
PM ₁₀ (µg/m ³)	9.3	44.3	67.3	93.2	314.6
NO ₂ (µg/m ³)	29.6	60.2	72.3	87.2	202.1
Rome					
Daily maximum temperature (°C)	5.5	10.3	12.6	14.5	23.2
PM ₁₀ (µg/m ³)	10.7	27.4	39.4	53.9	141.6
NO ₂ (µg/m ³)	23.9	58.4	68.1	78.2	117.3

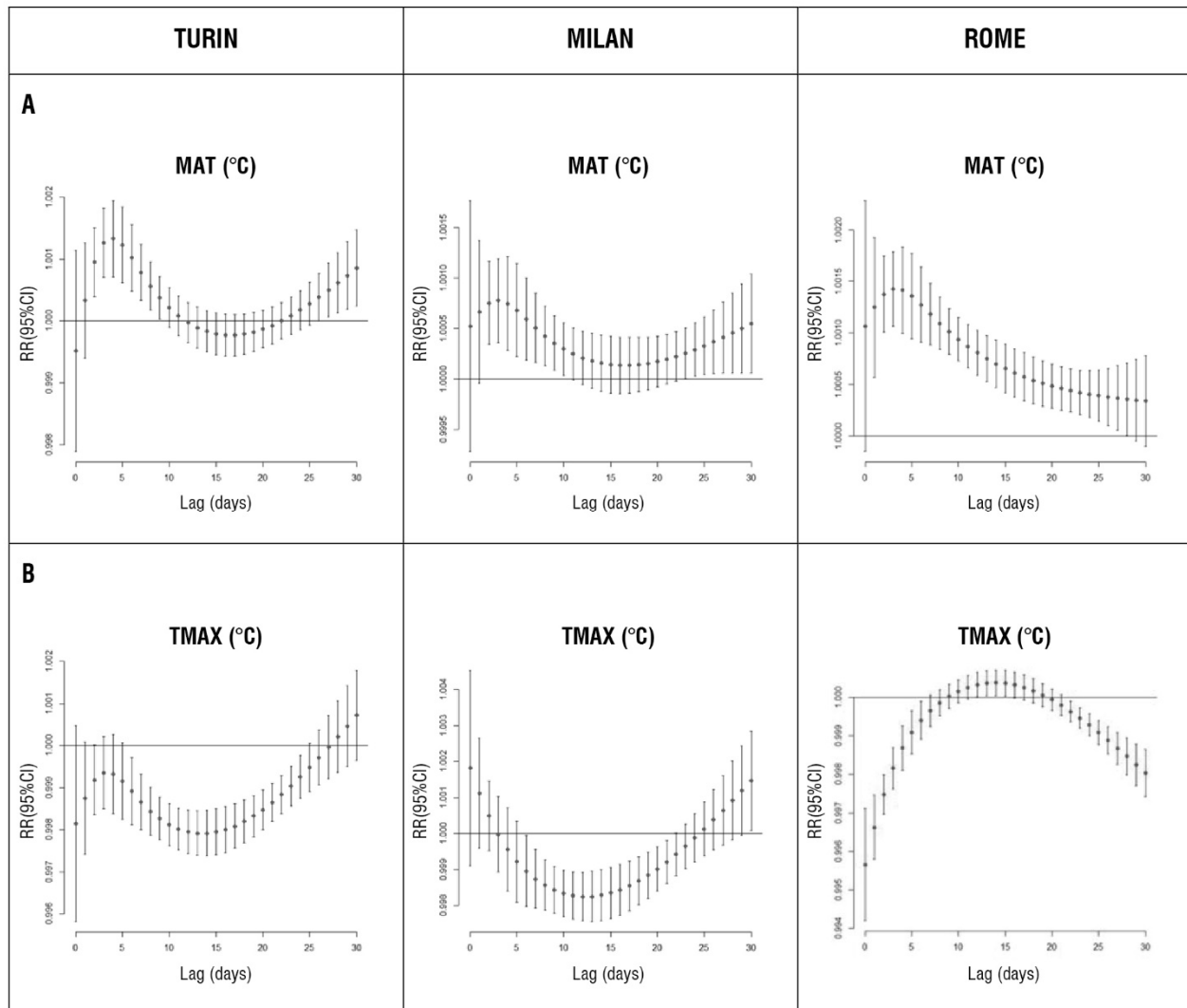
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eTable 2. Pearson correlation coefficients between daily temperature and pollutants in both seasons for the three cities.

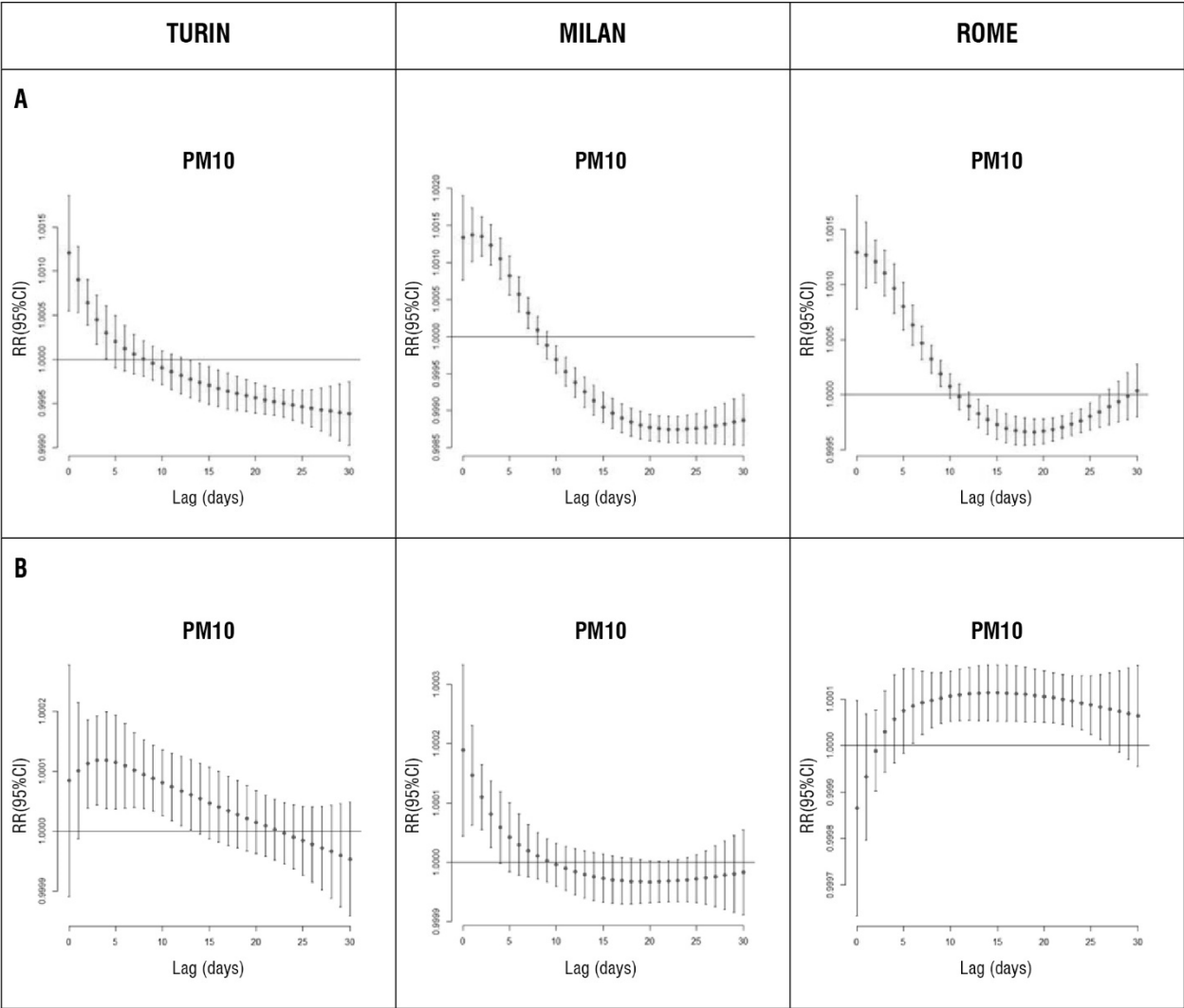
WARM SEASON				COLD SEASON			
TURIN							
	MAT lag 1-7	NO2 lag 0-8	PM10 lag 0-6		TMAX lag 6-21	NO2 lag 0-4	PM10 lag 2-12
MAT lag 1-7	1			TMAX lag 6-21	1		
NO2 lag 0-8	-0.12*	1		NO2 lag 0-4	-0.42*	1	
PM10 lag 0-6	-0.01*	0.61*	1	PM10 lag 2-12	-0.20*	0.51*	1
MILAN							
	MAT lag 1-7	NO2 lag 0-8	PM10 lag 0-7		TMAX lag 6-21	NO2 lag 0-3	PM10 lag 0-3
MAT lag 1-7	1			TMAX lag 6-21	1		
NO2 lag 0-8	-0.22*	1		NO2 lag 0-3	-0.36*	1	
PM10 lag 0-7	0.28*	0.56*	1	PM10 lag 0-3	-0.29*	0.77*	1
ROME							
	MAT lag 1-7	NO2 lag 0-8	PM10 lag 0-7		TMAX lag 0-6	NO2 lag 1-4	PM10 lag 5-19
MAT lag 1-7	1			TMAX lag 0-6	1		
NO2 lag 0-8	-0.08*	1		NO2 lag 1-4	-0.05	1	
PM10 lag 0-7	0.40*	0.49*	1	PM10 lag 5-19	-0.01	0.19*	1

* p-value < 0,05

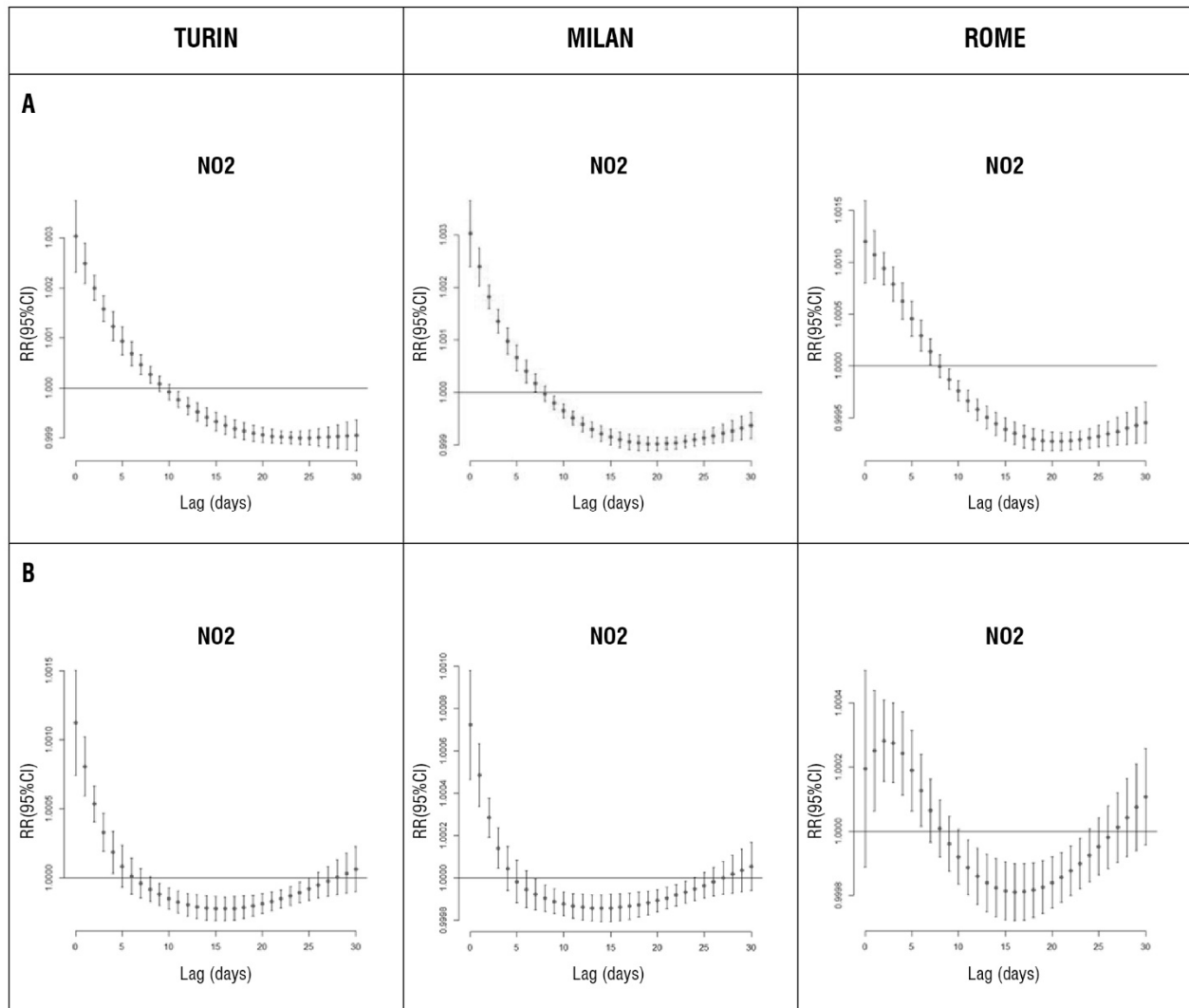
eFigure 1. Lag structure of Relative Risks (RR) of injury for 1 °C increase in temperature in the three cities obtained by a non-linear distributed lag models, warm season (A) and cold season (B)



eFigure 2. Lag structure of Relative Risks (RR) of injury for 1 µg/m3 increase in PM₁₀ in the three cities obtained by a non-linear distributed lag models, warm season (A) and cold season (B)

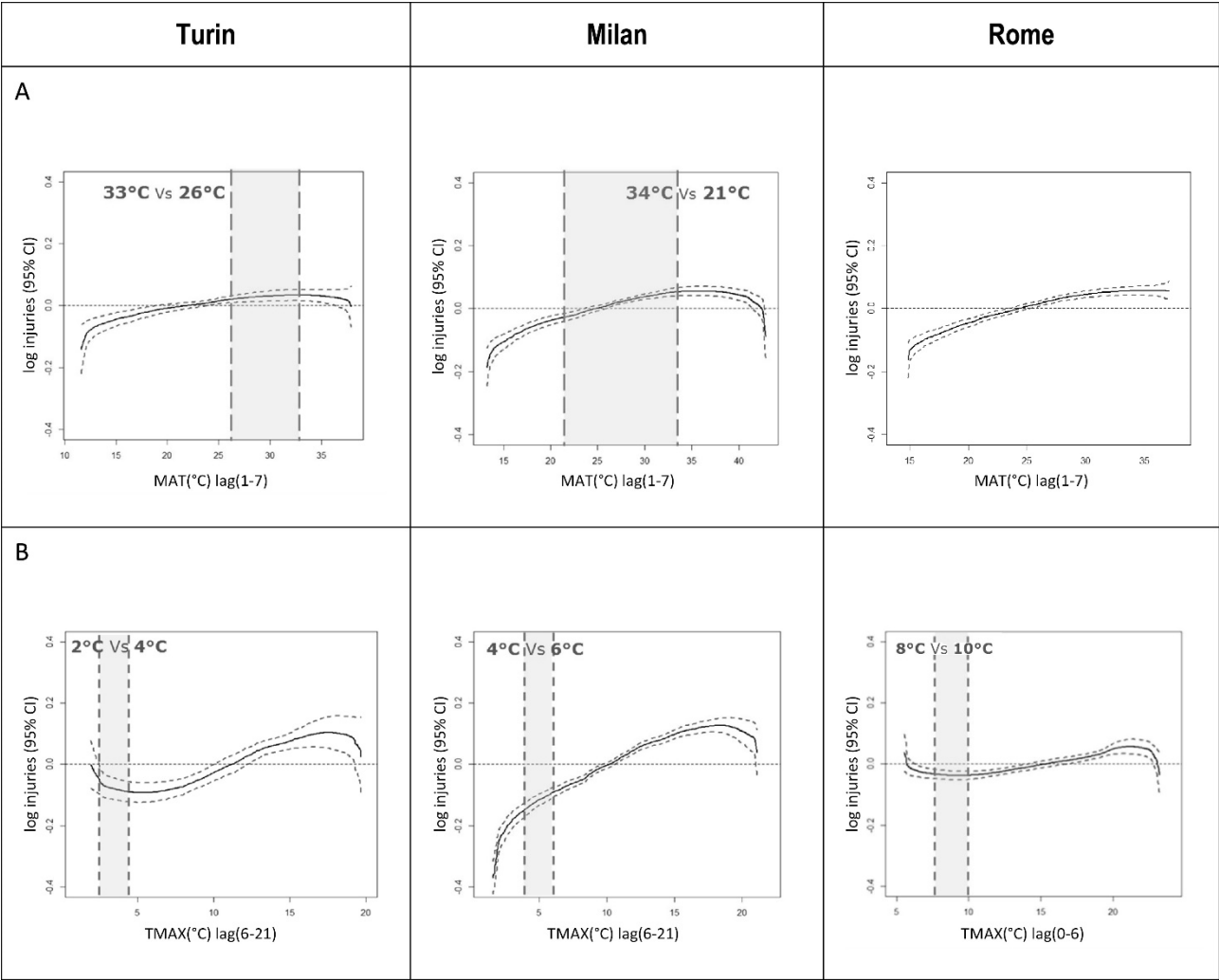


eFigure 3. Lag structure of Relative Risks (RR) of injury for 1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ increase in NO_2 in the three cities obtained by distributed lag models, warm season (A) and cold season (B)

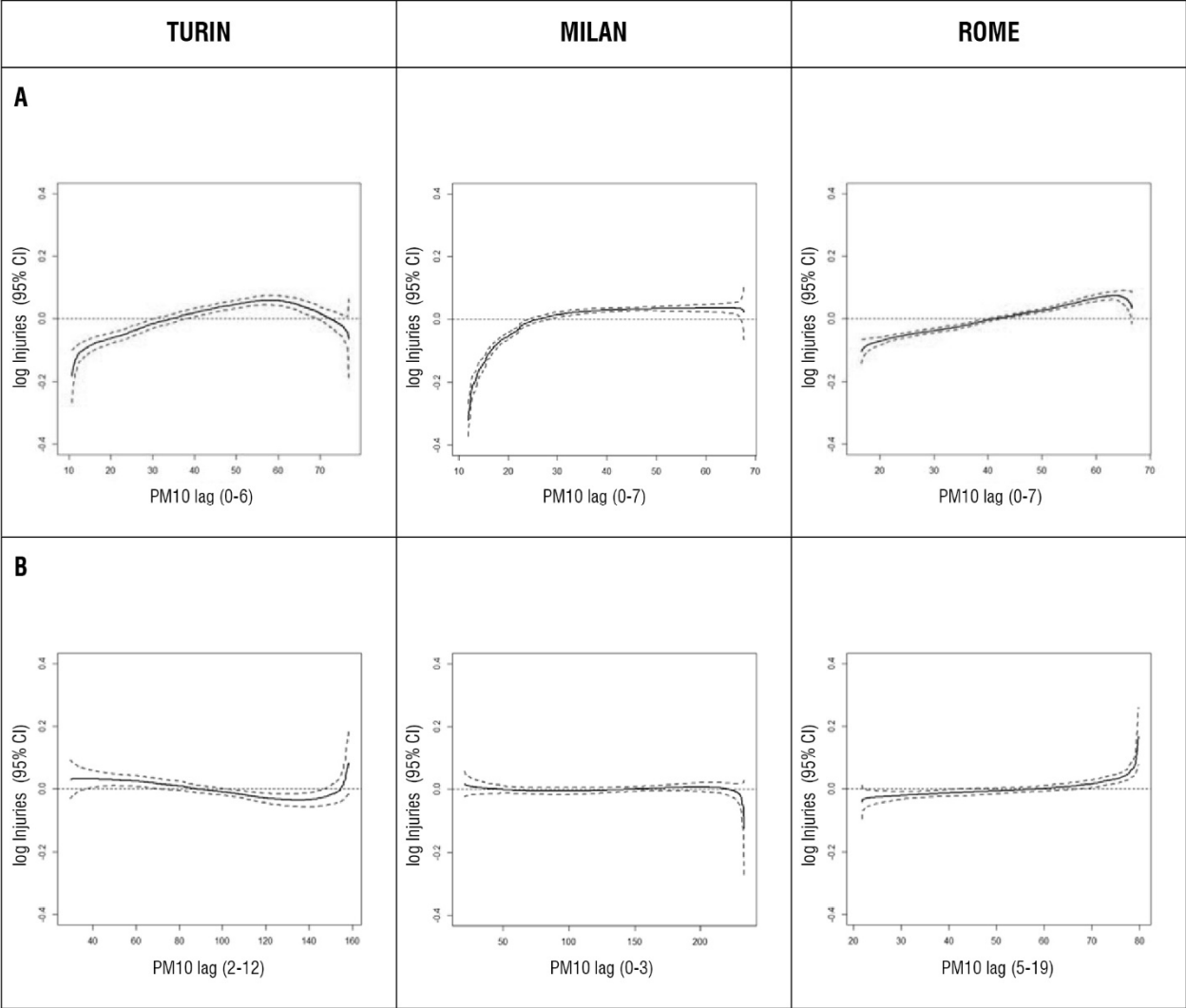


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eFigure 4. The injury-temperature relationship in Turin, Milan and Rome in warm season (A) and cold season (B), estimated by a Poisson generalized additive models



eFigure 5. The injury–PM₁₀ relationship in Turin, Milan and Rome in warm season (A) and cold season (B), estimated by a Poisson generalized additive models



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eFigure 6. The injury–NO₂ relationship in Turin, Milan and Rome in warm season (A) and cold season (B), estimated by a Poisson generalized additive models

