



Industrial air emissions, and proximity to major industrial emitters, are associated with anti-citrullinated protein antibodies



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ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:

Anti-citrullinated antibodies
ACPA
Air pollution
Particulate matter
PM_{2.5}
SO₂
Rheumatoid arthritis

ABSTRACT

Objective: To determine the association of anti-citrullinated antibodies (ACPA) with the ambient air pollutants fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}) and sulfur dioxide (SO₂).

Methods: The CARTaGENE first-wave cohort includes 20,000 general population subjects from Quebec (Canada). On a sample of unselected 1586 subjects, we determined serum ACPA and performed multivariable logistic regression, for the outcome of positive ACPA, assessing for independent effects of our air pollution variables, adjusting for age, sex, smoking, and French Canadian origin. Two models assessed distance to main industrial emitters of PM_{2.5}, and of SO₂, and two models assessed tons of SO₂ and of PM_{2.5} annual emissions. We also assessed associations with PM_{2.5} regional ambient concentrations estimated with satellite imagery.

Results: Adjusted analyses suggested a positive association between annual industrial PM_{2.5} and SO₂ emissions and the presence of ACPA antibodies (OR: 1.02, 95%CI 1.00–1.04 per 10 t of PM_{2.5} and 100 t of SO₂). The data were also consistent with a negative association between the presence of ACPA, and distance to a major industrial emitter of both PM_{2.5} and SO₂. We found no association with PM_{2.5} estimates of ambient levels.

Conclusions: These analyses suggest that exposure to industrial emissions of air pollutants is related to ACPA positivity.

1. Introduction

Rheumatoid arthritis (RA) is a serious autoimmune rheumatic disease affecting up to 1% of the population. Much remains to be learned about the risk factors for RA. During a pre-clinical course lasting up to several years, RA-related antibodies (particularly anti-citrullinated protein antibodies, ACPA), can be detected even prior to clinical manifestations. Rantapaa-Dahlqvist et al. (2003); Forslind et al. (2004).

Air pollution has also been associated with RA in a few studies, although this has not been consistent (Sun et al., 2016). Issues relating to measurement of air pollution, both in terms of types and timing, may in part explain the inconsistencies in previous reports. We therefore undertook this study to determine the association between industrial emissions of fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}) and sulfur dioxide (SO₂)

and the presence of ACPA, in a sample of a large population-based cohort. Most particulate matter is formed from gases emitted from industries and motor vehicles, although some particulate matter is directly emitted from smokestacks and other sources (EPA, 2009). Industrial activities are the largest sources of SO₂ emissions followed by fossil fuel combustion from motor vehicles. US EPA (2008).

2. Methods

Our analyses were based within the CARTaGENE cohort, 20,000 general population subjects drawn from four census metropolitan areas: Montreal, Quebec City, Sherbrooke, Saguenay–Lac-Saint-Jean, all in the province of Quebec, Canada. Participants were randomly selected from the provincial health insurance registries (fichier administratif des inscriptions des personnes assurées de la Régie de l'assurance maladie

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du Quebec, RAMQ). This excluded residents of First Nations Reserves or long-term health care facilities or prisons. The participants were selected according to the age distribution in these areas to obtain a representative sample. The CARTaGENE sample has an overall concordance in the distribution of socio-demographic characteristics as compared to the general population of Quebec, and the distribution of some common co-morbidity (e.g. hypertension, diabetes) is also comparable.

The baseline cohort data generated on enrolment of subjects (2008–2009) include demographics (age, sex, and self-reported French Canadian ancestry), health data (e.g. self-reported chronic diseases, including RA), smoking habits (current and past), and stored serum (taken at the baseline visit). Our analyses included a random sample of 3600 subjects. Of these, 1586 subjects provided data on residence, including a valid postal code, and these were used for our analyses. Serum ACPA was determined on biobanked sera using the Inova enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (Quanta Lyte, CCP3 IgG; Inova Diagnostics Inc., San Diego, CA).

Within this subsample, we performed multivariable logistic regression models for the outcome of positive ACPA, assessing for independent effect of industrial air pollution exposure (see definitions below), adjusting for age, sex, smoking, and self-reported French Canadian ancestry (since race/ethnicity, age, and smoking have all been suggested as possible determinants of ACPA positivity, we considered them *a priori*). Miriovsky et al. (2010); Diaz et al. (2011); Kumagai et al. (2009). The smoking variable was categorical, capturing current versus past or never smoker status.

Pollution exposures were determined at the level of the postal code, which in Canada is a six-character alphanumeric string associated with one or more mail delivery points. One postal code serves on average about 20 households.

Exposure to industrial air pollutant emissions were determined from residential proximity (based on baseline six digit postal code of residence) to industrial PM_{2.5} or SO₂ emitters, estimated using the National Pollutant Release Inventory (NPRI). The NPRI is Canada's legislated, publicly-accessible database of pollutant releases, disposals and transfers by facilities. Over 8700 facilities report to the NPRI, providing comprehensive air pollutant emission data for contaminants affecting air quality, including PM_{2.5} and SO₂.

Our analyses of the effects of pollution on ACPA antibodies were assessed with five logistic regression models as follows; using the baseline residential postal code for each subject, two separate models assessed distance to main industrial emitters of PM_{2.5} and of SO₂, and two models assessed tons of PM_{2.5} and SO₂ annual industrial emissions, while the remaining model assessed regional satellite PM_{2.5}. As has been done in the past (Brand et al., 2016) 'main' emitters were defined as any industry emitting more than an average of 100 t of either PM_{2.5} or SO₂ for at least 5 continuous years from 2002 to 2010; all individuals at a distance larger than 7.5 km (km) from a main emitter were given the distance value of 7.5 km. Industrial emissions of PM_{2.5} and SO₂ in 2008 were summed up for all industries (main emitters or not) within 2.5 km of each postal code.

We also used regional PM_{2.5} levels estimated from satellite imagery, produced with the Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer and multi-angle imaging spectroradiometer systems. Information from these images has been interpreted using the chemical transport model of atmospheric compositions (Goddard Earth Observing System, GEOS-Chem) to estimate regional PM_{2.5} levels with a geographic resolution of 10×10 km units. Estimates of long-term PM_{2.5} averages (2001–2006) have been developed based on aerosol optical-depth data from satellite instruments. van Donkelaar et al. (2010) All six digit postal codes located within a 10×10 km cell were given the same regional PM_{2.5} levels.

Sensitivity analyses were done to decompose the exposure variables as suggested by Leffondre et al., 2002 (Leffondre et al., 2002) into two exposure variables, one binary (coded 1 for exposed and 0 for

Table 1

: Baseline characteristics of the sample (N=1586), anti-citrullinated protein antibody (ACPA) positive and negative.

	ACPA positive (173)	ACPA negative (1413)
Mean age (standard deviation)	55.0 (7.3)	54.8 (8.0)
N (%) Female	89 (51.4)	738 (52.2)
N (%) French Canadian	111(64.1)	982 (69.5)
N (%) Never smokers	78 (45.1)	549 (38.9)
N (%) living within 2.5 km of any industrial emitter of PM _{2.5}	66 (38.2)	560 (39.6)
N (%) living within 2.5 km of any industrial emitter of SO ₂	30 (17.3)	238 (16.8)
N (%) living within 7.5 km of a major industrial emitter of PM _{2.5}	14 (8.1)	85 (6.0)
N (%) living within 7.5 km of a major industrial emitter of SO ₂	84(48.6)	618 (43.7)

unexposed) and one continuous variable, centered to the mean exposure of those exposed (i.e. those with a value of one for the binary variable). Additional sensitivity analyses controlled for the four census metropolitan areas (Montreal, Quebec City, Sherbrooke, Saguenay–Lac-Saint-Jean) from which the subjects had been recruited.

3. Results

Among the 1586 individual CARTaGENE subjects studied in these analyses, the mean age at baseline was 55 years (SD 7.8). Just over half (N=827, 52%) were female and most (N=1,093, 69%) were French-Canadian. Almost half (43%) were past smokers, 17% were current smokers and the remainder were never-smokers. Just over 75% (1200) of the subjects came from the Montreal CMA, with 248 subjects coming from the Quebec City CMA, 75 from the Sherbrooke CMA, and 63 from Saguenay–Lac-Saint-Jean.

Among the subjects living within 7.5 km of a main emitter to PM_{2.5}, the mean exposure was 148.4 t/year (standard deviation, SD 291.0) and among subjects living within 7.5 km of a main emitter of SO₂, the mean exposure to SO₂ was 197.6 (SD 834.9).

Of the 1586 subjects, 173 (10.9%) were positive for ACPA. Table 1 provides univariate comparisons between the ACPA positive and negative subjects.

Adjusted analyses (Table 2) suggested positive associations between exposure to industrial emissions and ACPA. Every 10 t increase in the sum of annual PM_{2.5} emissions of industries located within 2.5 km of the residence was associated with a 2% (95% CI 1–4%) increase in the odds of ACPA. Similar results were found with exposure to SO₂ emissions (with the lower confidence limit extending to the null value). As for the models where the exposures were defined by distance to a major emitter, for those living within 7.5 km of a major industrial emitter of PM_{2.5}, every one-km decrease from the mean distance between the residences and the closest major emitter was associated with an OR of 0.81 (95% CI 0.69, 0.96) for ACPA positivity. The same trend was also suggested with the distance from major emitters of SO₂ per km (OR 0.92; 95% CI 0.84–1.00).

We did not see strong evidence of an association between ambient residential PM_{2.5} levels (as estimated by satellite imagery) and ACPA.

None of the sensitivity analyses produced appreciably different results for the exposure variables.

As can be seen in Table 2, in the adjusted analyses, there were no clear evidence that age, sex, smoking, or French ancestry were independently associated with serum ACPA positivity.

4. Discussion

Genetic risk factors associated with RA are known, such as the HLA-DRB1 'shared epitope' (Huizinga et al., 2005). However, since many

Table 2

: Effects of air pollution variables on anti-citrullinated antibody positivity: Odds ratios with 95% confidence intervals (CI).

	Adjusted odds ratio	95%	CI
PM _{2.5} emissions ^a	1.02	1.01	1.04
Age (continuous)	1.00	0.98	1.02
Female	0.99	0.72	1.36
Current Smoker ^b	1.06	0.70	1.61
French Canadian	0.76	0.54	1.06
	Adjusted odds ratio	95%	CI
PM _{2.5} distance ^c	0.81	0.69	0.96
Age	1.00	0.98	1.02
Female	0.99	0.72	1.36
Current Smoker	1.08	0.71	1.63
French Canadian	0.76	0.55	1.06
	Adjusted odds ratio	95%	CI
SO ₂ emissions ^a	1.02	1.00	1.04
Age	1.00	0.98	1.02
Female	0.99	0.72	1.36
Current Smoker	1.06	0.70	1.61
French Canadian	0.77	0.55	1.08
	Adjusted odds ratio	95%	CI
SO ₂ distance ^b	0.92	0.84	1.00
Age	1.00	0.98	1.02
Female	0.99	0.72	1.35
Current Smoker	1.07	0.70	1.61
French Canadian	0.78	0.56	1.08
	Adjusted odds ratio	95%	CI
Regional ambient PM _{2.5} estimates ^d	0.97	0.92	1.03
Age	1.00	0.98	1.02
Female	0.98	0.71	1.35
Current Smoker	1.07	0.70	1.61
French Canadian	0.76	0.54	1.07

^a PM_{2.5} per 10 t increase or SO₂ per 100 t increase in emissions exposures.

^b Current (versus never or past) smoking.

^c Average distance (kilometres) to a major industrial source, for those living within 7.5 km of an industrial emitter.

^d Regional ambient PM_{2.5} levels (µg/m³) were estimated using satellite imagery.

people with these genetic markers never develop RA, interactions with the environment may also be critical in disease onset. The individual effects of susceptibility genes are likely to be small, and it is the combination of alleles along with strong effects on the specific pathways affected by these susceptibility genes that are essential for the development of RA. Ambient air pollution, as a trigger for the development of autoimmune rheumatic diseases like RA, has been the focus of recent studies, with conflicting conclusions. In 2009, analyses of the Nurses' Health Study, pollution emissions from road traffic were suggested as an environmental risk factor for RA (Hart et al., 2009), and in a Swedish cohort, the authors found that exposure to NO₂, but not particulate matter (based on PM₁₀), was associated with RA risk (Hart et al., 2013a). However, in a follow up analysis of the Nurses' Health Study, associations with either NO₂ or PM_{2.5} were not detected (Hart et al., 2013b). More recently, one study using administrative claims (in British Columbia, Canada) for new cases of RA found no clear links between RA onset and traffic-related NO₂ levels or regional PM_{2.5} (De Roos et al., 2014) levels, while another study (using administrative data from Taiwan) found an association between NO₂ and RA. Chang et al. (2016).

Since particulate matter may trigger a host of non-rheumatologic health problems (Brook, 2008), it would be intriguing to be able to confirm whether some components of air pollution trigger rheumatic disease as well. One study reported that measures of air pollution levels were associated with a 60% increased risk of juvenile idiopathic arthritis in young children (Zeft et al., 2009). Our own team has shown links between PM_{2.5} levels and systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE) activity (Bernatsky et al., 2011), as well as suggesting that PM_{2.5} exposures were associated with an increased risk of systemic autoimmune rheumatic diseases (those analyses included SLE but not RA). Bernatsky et al. (2015).

Serum ACPA, one of the hallmarks of RA, are often accompanied by pro-inflammatory cytokines (Kokkonen et al., 2010), even years prior to the development of RA (Quinn et al., 2003), potentially representing a 'window of opportunity' to intervene and potentially prevent the onset of disease. Van Dongen et al. (2007) Although many believe that airborne stimuli, such as tobacco smoking, may induce ACPA (Makrygiannakis et al., 2008; Anderson et al., 2016), to date, no prior published papers have linked air pollution and ACPA. One previous study presented in abstract form, suggesting that among 320 RA patients enrolled in the Veterans Affairs Rheumatoid Arthritis registry, higher levels of ACPA were seen with higher PM_{2.5} ambient levels (Kunkel et al., 2011). Another study was unable to detect associations, within first degree family members of RA patients, between PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀, and a combined serological outcome (anti-CCP2 and/or two or more rheumatoid factor, RF, isotypes) (Gan et al., 2013); the point estimate for PM_{2.5} and RF-positive visits was actually compatible with a positive association (odds ratio 1.36, 95% CI 0.82–2.24) but the results were imprecise, precluding definitive conclusions.

There are potential limitations with respect to the exposure variables we used, which may have introduced non-differential misclassification. Recorded industrial emissions are rough estimates of concentrations of pollutants to which people are exposed to. Emissions are diluted in a volume of air, which can vary with meteorological conditions and concentrations are higher downwind of industries. Here we did not model concentrations of exposure based on emissions and meteorological conditions; we assume that the exposure is only a function of distance and quantity of pollutants emitted. We believe this non-differential misclassification of exposure would have underestimated our observed relationships of ACPA with pollution emissions.

Also, associations reported in most papers, including our own, are based on residential exposures of subjects, and does not account for exposures that individuals may encounter at work (although the workplace of many individuals is close to their residence, and individuals still spend more time at home than at work). This may also have led to non-differential misclassification of our exposures and conservative estimates. It may in fact be one reason why the existing literature on ambient air pollution and RA risk is so inconsistent.

In summary, we provide intriguing evidence that industrial air pollution emissions, and proximity to major industrial emitters, are associated with ACPA. Our results are more precise for PM_{2.5} than SO₂, and require duplication in other datasets and improved exposure estimates. If confirmed in other datasets, these results may strengthen the case for initiatives to improve air quality, in order to decrease chronic disease burden and improve the health of our nation.

Acknowledgements

This project was funded by the CIHR. The authors thank Allan Brand and Patrick Belisle for their thorough analyses of the data.

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