

1 **Urban-rural and sex differences in cancer incidence and**
2 **mortality and the relationship with PM_{2.5} exposure: An**
3 **ecological study in the southeastern side of Hu line**

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20

21 **Abstract:** This study investigates the urban-rural and sex differences in the increased risks
22 of the ten most common cancers in China (released by the National Central Cancer Registry
23 of China) related to high PM_{2.5} concentration in the southeastern side of Hu line. Pearson

24 correlation coefficient is estimated to reveal how the cancers closely associated with PM_{2.5}
25 long-term exposure. Then linear regression is conducted to evaluate sex- and area-specific
26 increased risks of those cancers from high level PM_{2.5} long-term exposure. The results show
27 that, with the increase of every 10 µg/m³ of annual mean PM_{2.5} concentration, the relative
28 risks of lung cancer incidence and mortality increase 15% and 23% for males, and 22% and
29 24% for females in rural area, respectively. The relative risk of ovarian cancer incidence
30 increases 9% for females in urban area. For prostatic cancer, the relative risk of incidence
31 increases 17% for males in urban area. For leukemia, in rural area, the relative risks of
32 incidence and mortality increase 22% and 19% for females, respectively. While the relative
33 risk of mortality increases 9% for males; and incidence increases 6% for females in urban
34 area. The results demonstrated that, with PM_{2.5} exposure, the risks of ovarian and prostatic
35 cancer increase significantly in urban area, while lung cancer and leukemia increase
36 significantly in rural area. Moreover, the elevated risks of lung cancer and leukemia with
37 higher PM_{2.5} exposure seems more significant for female. This study suggests that the
38 carcinogenic effects of PM_{2.5} have obvious sex and urban-rural differences.

39 **Keywords:** Urban-rural difference; Sex difference; Relative risk; PM_{2.5}; Cancer incidence;
40 Cancer mortality.

41

42 **1. Introduction**

43 The threat to the public health caused by the exposure to fine particulate matter and air
44 pollution has attracted more and more attentions from the public, governments and health
45 organizations worldwide [1-3]. Recent studies show that air pollution has become a major
46 global health risk factor [4-7], particulate matter with aerodynamic diameter less than 2.5 µm
47 (PM_{2.5}) shortens life expectancy due to its health impact on morbidity and mortality [8-10],
48 especially for lung cancer [11,12] and cardiovascular diseases [13-15]. Cohen et al. [16]
49 indicated that 4.2 million deaths in 2015 were caused by the exposure to PM_{2.5}, and more

50 than 1.1 million deaths were in China. WHO issued a PM_{2.5} guideline value of annual mean
51 10 µg/m³, and interim targets (IT) level 1, 2 and 3 of 35, 25 and 15 µg/m³. At IT-1 level, a
52 15% higher long-term mortality risk is reported relative to the guideline level [17]. However,
53 IT-1 level is not achieved at most of the areas of China, and population-weighted mean of
54 PM_{2.5} concentration in Chinese cities were 61 µg/m³ at the year of 2013 [18, 19]. Therefore,
55 the health impact caused by PM_{2.5} exposure has become an urgent issue in China [20-24].

56 The studies in the developed areas revealed that air pollution caused by PM_{2.5} was a
57 serious threat to human health in various aspects, i.e. its enhancement of cardiopulmonary
58 diseases [25-31], premature birth and low birth weight [32-35], and systemic diseases [36-
59 39]. In China, many studies showed that short-term exposure of PM_{2.5} was also associated
60 with the rise of hospital emergency-room visits, cardio-respiratory diseases and mortality in
61 city areas [40-48]; while cohort studies show that ambient particulate matter can increase the
62 risks of total, cardiovascular and respiratory mortality [49-53]. There are two main causes of
63 these health hazards: one is that the fine particles in PM_{2.5} are small enough to arrive a large
64 part of human organs (including the respiratory system, the circulatory system, and the
65 reproductive system), and another is that there are numerous kinds of hazardous substances
66 in the PM_{2.5}, i.e. carcinogenic polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), heavy metals (such
67 as lead, mercury, chromium and cadmium), and pathogenic microorganisms (such as bacteria,
68 viruses and fungi) [54-56]. However, most of these studies only focused on the possible
69 diseases caused by the former while ignore some other possible diseases caused by the later.
70 Thus, to understand the health effects of PM_{2.5} exposure in China, we should not only choose
71 some potential diseases to study, but also instead screen all the most common diseases, since
72 the PM_{2.5} concentration in China has been at the high level for a long time and the main
73 hazardous substances in PM_{2.5} such as PAHs and heavy metals probably increase the risks of
74 several kinds of common disease [57-60].

75 PAHs in PM_{2.5} are suspected to be a predisposing factor of breast cancer because of its
76 disruption of BRCA-1 gene expression in estrogen receptor [61]. Parikh et al. [62] also
77 conclude that PAHs in PM_{2.5} have a significant impact on the increased incidence of female
78 breast cancer in urban areas. Further, BRCA-1 has been confirmed to be associated with
79 ovarian cancer [63]. Therefore, it could be deduced that cancer could be a manifestation of
80 the health effects of PM_{2.5} in the regions with large population density, since PAHs can almost
81 always be detected in PM_{2.5} in these regions [64]. Moreover, we need to consider the
82 geographical and sex factors, because there are spatial differences in the PM_{2.5} concentration
83 and compositions (mainly between urban and rural area) as well as sex differences in the
84 sensitivity to toxic substances. Thus, to make a detailed assessment of the health effects
85 caused by PM_{2.5} in China, firstly, we need to find out which cancers closely associated with
86 high PM_{2.5} concentration; and then, we need to evaluate sex- and area-specific increased risks
87 of those cancers from high level PM_{2.5} long-term exposure. In this study, we first investigated
88 the association between the ten most common cancers incidence and mortality with PM_{2.5}
89 concentration to find out which cancers are closely relative to PM_{2.5} by using the time series
90 data of yearly incidence and mortality of the ten most common cancers and the annual mean
91 PM_{2.5} concentration in China from 2000 to 2011. Secondly, we estimated the sex- and area-
92 specific increased cancer incidence/mortality risks from long-term exposure to high PM_{2.5}
93 concentration by using spatiotemporal series data of the southeastern side of Hu line from
94 2006 to 2009. Finally, we studied the urban-rural and sex differences in the increased risks
95 of incidence and mortality for the ten most common cancers from long-term exposure to high
96 PM_{2.5} concentration. The southeastern side of Hu line [65] was selected as our research region,
97 because this part of China has larger population density and more developed social economic
98 level, which mean the air pollution caused by PM_{2.5} is very serious and the data collected are
99 also more consistent with the actual situation.

100

101 2. Materials and methods

102 The data collection method and statistical method were presented in section 2.1 and
103 section 2.2, respectively.

104 2.1. Data

105 Cancer incidence and mortality data as well as gridded PM_{2.5} concentrations and
106 population data could be collected according to the following methods.

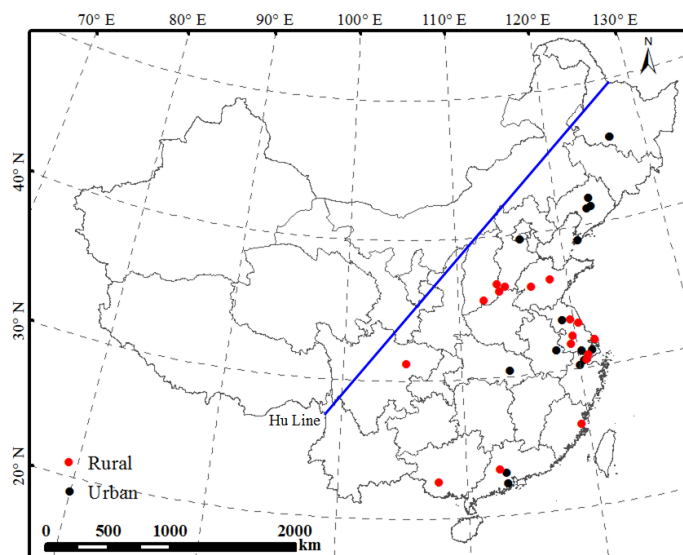
107 2.1.1. Cancer incidence and mortality data

108 The data used in this paper are:

109 1) Cancer statistics reported in the work of Chen *et al.* [49]. This is a time series dataset
110 spanning from 2000 to 2011. It consists of cancer incident and mortality of 22 registries
111 covering 44.4 million population. This dataset was employed to conduct Pearson correlation
112 coefficient analysis to investigate the relationship between cancer incidence and mortality
113 and PM_{2.5} exposure.

114 2) Chinese cancer registry annual report (2009-2012) issued by the National Central
115 Cancer Registry of China (NCCR). Data collected from the report spanning from 2006 to
116 2009. This is a spatiotemporal series dataset containing cancer incident and mortality data
117 reported from 34 local population-based cancer registries located in the area southeast of Hu
118 line known as an area with greater population density and more developed economy (as
119 presented in Figure 1). The total 34 cancer registries including 16 and 18 sites for urban and
120 rural areas respectively. This dataset was used to perform linear regression to estimate the
121 area-specific and sex-specific increased risks of cancer incidence and mortality from long-
122 term exposure to high PM_{2.5} concentration.

123 Both of the two datasets used in this study were validated by NCCR based on the
124 Guidelines for Chinese Cancer Registration and International Agency for Research on
125 Cancer/International Association of Cancer Registries (IARC/IACR) data-quality criteria.



126

127 **Figure 1.** Maps of the contributing cancer registries and geographic regions in China from the
 128 Chinese cancer registry annual report (2009-2012). The blue line indicates the Hu line, which
 129 marks a drastic difference in the distribution of China's population. The southeast of Hu line is
 130 known as an area with greater population density and more developed economy.

131

132 2.1.2. Gridded PM_{2.5} concentrations, population and per capita GDP data

133 Because the ground monitoring of PM_{2.5} were not reported until 2012 in China, PM_{2.5}
 134 concentration estimated from AOD was used as an alternative. The 0.1° × 0.1° gridded annual
 135 mean PM_{2.5} concentrations for the period of 2000-2011 were obtained from Atmospheric
 136 Composition Analysis Group (http://fizz.phys.dal.ca/~atmos/martin/?page_id=140). The
 137 area covered by each grid is approximately equal to the area covered by a cancer registration
 138 site. Therefore a corresponding gridded PM_{2.5} concentration can be associated with each
 139 cancer registry.

140 The permanent resident population data for each cancer registry were obtained from the
 141 5th and 6th national population census conducted in 2000 and 2010, respectively. The
 142 population were then linearly interpolated and extrapolated to the whole period of 2000-2011.

143 The annual per capita GDP data are obtained from National Bureau of Statistics of China
144 (<http://data.stats.gov.cn/easyquery.htm?cn=C01>).

145 2.2. Statistical Methods

146 2.2.1. The exposure level of PM_{2.5}

147 For each cancer registry, the population-weighted annual mean PM_{2.5} exposure
148 concentration could be calculated by Eq. (1):

$$149 \text{PWEL} = \frac{\sum(P_i \times C_i)}{\sum P_i} \quad (1)$$

150 Where PWEL (population-weighted exposure level) is the population-weighted mean PM_{2.5}
151 exposure concentration ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), and P_i and C_i are the population (10 thousands) and PM_{2.5}
152 concentration ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) at each grid of the cancer registration site, respectively.

153 2.2.2. The association analysis of the time series dataset

154 In order to find out which cancers are closely associated with PM_{2.5} long-term exposure,
155 the correlation between cancers incidence (and mortality) and the population-weighted PM_{2.5}
156 exposure concentration were evaluated. As a comparison, the correlation between cancers
157 incidence (and mortality) and per capita GDP were also calculated. Therefore, the Pearson
158 correlation coefficients (R) between the time series of population-weighted annual mean
159 PM_{2.5} concentration (or per capita GDP) and incidence (or mortality) for the ten most
160 common cancers were calculated and used to determine whether or not the two are related
161 by comparing with the critical value of R when $p < 0.05$. R can be determined by Eq. (2):

$$162 R = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2}} \quad (2)$$

163 Where R is the Pearson correlation coefficients, $n = 12$, is the number of the years. X_i and Y_i
164 are the cancer incidence (or mortality) and the population-weighted PM_{2.5} exposure

165 concentration (or per capita GDP) of the i^{th} year, respectively. $\bar{X} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i}{n}$ and $\bar{Y} =$
166 $\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i}{n}$, are the arithmetic average of X and Y, respectively.

167 2.2.3. The regression analysis of the spatiotemporal series dataset

168 The spatiotemporal series data were derived from 34 cancer registries (including 16
169 urban sites and 18 rural sites) over a 4-year period, and a sample of 136 (including 64 for
170 urban sites and 72 for rural sites) PM_{2.5}-cancer incidence (and PM_{2.5}-cancer mortality) data
171 were obtained. All the annual data at each of sites were firstly categorized at a bin of 5 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$
172 population-weighted annual mean PM_{2.5} concentration, and then bin-averaged incidence,
173 mortality and population-weighted annual mean PM_{2.5} concentration were calculated. With
174 the bin-averaged data, linear regression was performed to reveal the relation between
175 incidence/mortality of the ten most common cancers and population-weighted annual mean
176 PM_{2.5} concentration, then to obtain the increased risks of cancers incidence and mortality
177 with every 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ increment of population-weighted annual mean PM_{2.5} concentration.
178 Accordingly, the errors can be reduced and the regression precision can be improved by using
179 the average values of PM_{2.5} exposure level, cancer incidence and mortality in each bin instead
180 of original ones.

181

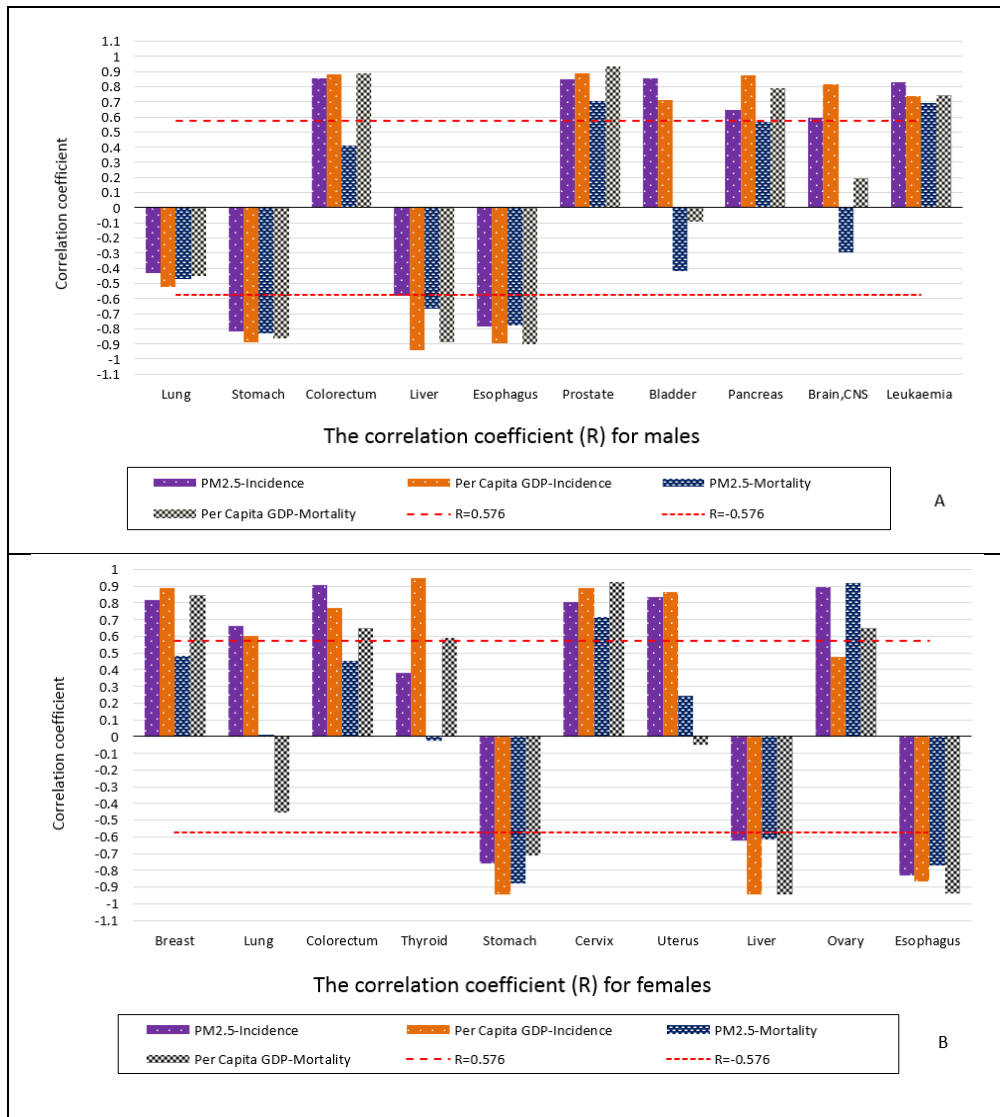
182 3. Results and Discussion

183 The results of this study were firstly presented in this section, then, the results were
184 discussed in details.

185 *3.1. The association between the time series of PM_{2.5} and incidence (and mortality) of the ten*
186 *most common cancers during 2000-2011*

187 The correlation coefficients between the time series of population-weighted annual mean
188 PM_{2.5} concentration and incidence (and mortality) of the ten most common cancers for both
189 males and females were presented in Figure 2. The parameter-per capita GDP was added as
190 a contrast, because economy is an important interference factor which can not only contribute
191 to environmental deterioration but also the public health condition. In fact, studies have
192 reported that some high cancers incidence were stimulated by the economic development
193 [54], and two main reasons were speculated: firstly, environmental degradation usually
194 follows with economic development [55], the results in this study also validated this ($R_{PM_{2.5}-$
195 $per\ capita\ GDP}$ is 0.594, means the population-weighted annual mean PM_{2.5} concentration is
196 positively related with per capita GDP between 2000 and 2011); secondly, more mature
197 cancer screening methods were applied with economic development, and advanced methods
198 can diagnose cancers earlier to reduce the missed diagnosis cases, and finally result in
199 increased incidence [56]. For example, the incidence of female thyroid cancer increased year
200 by year may be a false alarm due to the improvement of medical technology [57].

201 According to Figure 2, it could be concluded that the incidence of six cancers in the ten
202 most common cancers are significantly positive associated with population-weighted annual
203 mean PM_{2.5} concentration and per capita GDP both for male (including prostatic cancer,
204 leukemia, brain/central nervous system (CNS) cancer, pancreatic cancer, bladder cancer, and
205 colorectal cancer) and female (including lung cancer, breast cancer, colorectal cancer, uterine
206 cancer, ovarian cancer and cervical cancer). On the Contrary, there are only two cancers
207 whose mortality are significantly positive associated with population-weighted annual mean
208 PM_{2.5} concentration and per capita GDP, both for male (including leukemia and prostatic
209 cancer) and female (ovarian cancer and cervical cancer).



210 **Figure 2.** The correlation coefficient (R) between population-weighted annual mean PM_{2.5}
 211 concentrations (and per capita GDP) and cancer incidence, between population-weighted annual
 212 mean PM_{2.5} concentrations (and per capita GDP) and cancer mortality for males and females.
 213 The R = ± 0.576 lines are also shown in the figure as orange dashed lines (when |R| > 0.576, P
 214 < 0.05, and the correlation is significant). The cancer with a larger incidence is at a more left
 215 position on X-axis. R_{PM_{2.5}-per capita GDP} is 0.594.

216

217 Consequently, the negative correlation of cancer-PM_{2.5}/ GDP presented in Figure 2 can
 218 be attributed to the health effects of economic development, while the positive correlation
 219 was associated with the environmental deterioration (PM_{2.5} is one of the most dangerous
 220 pathogenic contaminants) or/and more mature cancer screening methods.

221 More concretely, significant positive association between cancer incidence and per
222 capital GDP reveals that there is an increased risk from environmental deterioration (mainly
223 from $PM_{2.5}$) and / or more mature cancer screening methods, while significant positive
224 association between cancer mortality and per capital GDP was irrelevant to the screening
225 methods. Meanwhile, negative association shows that there is a decreased risk because of
226 some healthy factors along with a higher per capital GDP such as a lower smoking rate.
227 Therefore, the negative association between cancer and $PM_{2.5}$ should be attributed to the
228 health effects of GDP and the positive correlation between $PM_{2.5}$ and GDP. And the positive
229 association between cancer incidence and $PM_{2.5}$ were caused by two reasons: one is that $PM_{2.5}$
230 pollution increases the risk of cancer incidence, and another is that more mature cancer
231 screening methods increase the cancer incidence. Meanwhile, there is only one reason for the
232 positive association between cancer mortality and $PM_{2.5}$, and it is that $PM_{2.5}$ pollution can
233 increase the risk of cancer mortality.

234 A lower smoking rate was one of the most important protector of health [66]. According
235 to the work of Research on National Health Services in Global Adult Tobacco Survey
236 between 1993 and 2010, smoking rates in China are declining (see Table 1), which is the
237 possible cause of the decreasing incidence of lung cancer, esophagus cancer, liver cancer and
238 stomach cancer. Meanwhile, Figure 2 also shows that the incidence and mortality of male
239 lung cancer were not correlated with $PM_{2.5}$ concentration, and the results was inconsistent
240 with literature [14, 20, 21] due to the smoke rate data. The positive correlation between
241 female lung cancer incidence and population-weighted annual mean $PM_{2.5}$ concentration
242 demonstrates the effect of $PM_{2.5}$ exposure on lung, while the hazards by $PM_{2.5}$ exposure to
243 lung for male have been papered over. A possible explanation is that the effect of $PM_{2.5}$ on
244 lung is not noticeable on people with high smoking rate (male) but significant on those with
245 low smoking rates (female), because smoking is much more harmful compared with $PM_{2.5}$
246 [25].

247

Table 1. Smoking rates for residents over 15 years old (%)

Year	Male			Female		
	Total	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural
2010	52.9	49.2	56.1	2.4	2.6	2.2
1993	59.3	56.8	60.3	5.0	6.2	4.5

248

249 To summarize, for the ten most common cancers, the incidence of six cancers and the
 250 mortality of two cancers are closely related with PM_{2.5} exposure. The involved organs include
 251 cardiovascular system, respiratory system, reproductive system, digestive system and
 252 hematopoietic system.

253 *3.2. The association between the spatiotemporal series of PM_{2.5} and incidence/mortality of*
 254 *the ten most common cancers during 2006-2009*

255 In order to investigate the urban-rural and sex differences of the health effects of PM_{2.5}
 256 exposure, the association between the spatiotemporal series of PM_{2.5} and incidence (and
 257 mortality) of the ten most common cancers during 2006-2009 were analyzed. According to
 258 results in section 3.1, cancer incidence was increased both by PM_{2.5} pollution and mature
 259 screening methods, while cancer mortality was only increased by PM_{2.5} pollution, therefore,
 260 in order to exclude the impact of mature screening methods, we select the cancers whose
 261 mortality are significantly positive related with PM_{2.5} as our study subjects in this section. As
 262 a special case, lung cancer was also analyzed in this section because it is fully demonstrated
 263 to be affected by PM_{2.5} exposure [11].

264

Table 2. The number of data in each PM_{2.5} concentration range

Bins of PM _{2.5} concentration ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)	Urban area (numbers of data)	Rural area (numbers of data)
21-25	0	4
26-30	0	0
31-35	1	7
36-40	5	3

41-45	9	8
46-50	15	6
51-55	6	10
56-60	15	9
61-65	7	16
66-70	2	4
71-75	3	2
76-80	0	3
81-85	1	0
Total	64	72

265

266 The annual mean of PM_{2.5} concentration at most of the sites falls into the range of 36-60
 267 µg/m³, and only 9% are below 35 µg/m³ (IT-1 level), 92% of which are from rural area.
 268 Furthermore, there are about 20% of urban areas and 35% of rural areas with PM_{2.5}
 269 concentration more than 60 µg/m³ respectively, which means more rural population were
 270 exposed to high levels PM_{2.5} concentration. It is worth pointing out that the annual mean
 271 PM_{2.5} concentration was not weighted by population because the area of 0.1° × 0.1° grid is
 272 almost equal to the area covering by a cancer registry.

273 For each kind of cancer, the regression of cancer with urban male, rural male, urban
 274 female and rural female were carried out. The regression formula was presented in Eq. (3):

275

$$276 \quad y=Bx+b_0 \quad (3)$$

277

278 Where y is cancer incidence or mortality, x is annual mean PM_{2.5} concentration. All the
 279 data need to be preprocessed with the method stated in section 2.2.3.

280 **Table 3.** The R² and significance of regression model for cancer incidence and mortality.

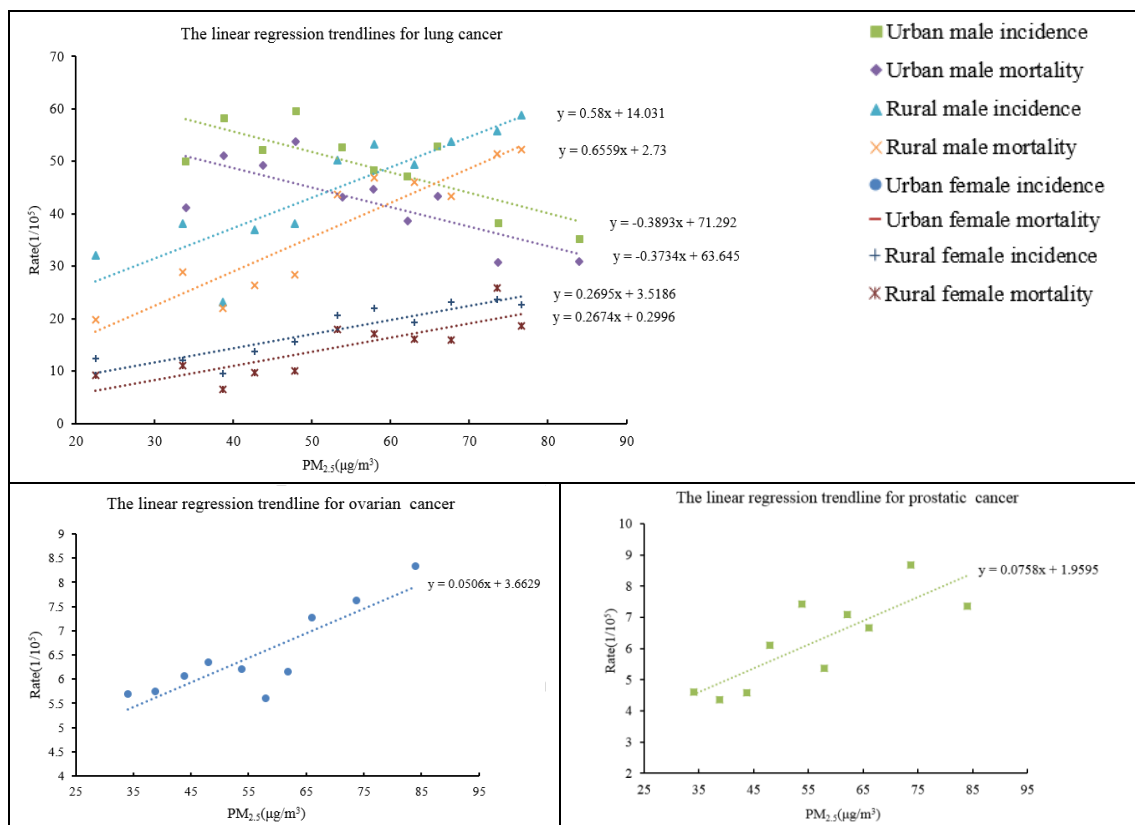
Site	Urban				Rural			
	Male		Female		Male		Female	
	Incidence	Mortality	Incidence	Mortality	Incidence	Mortality	Incidence	Mortality

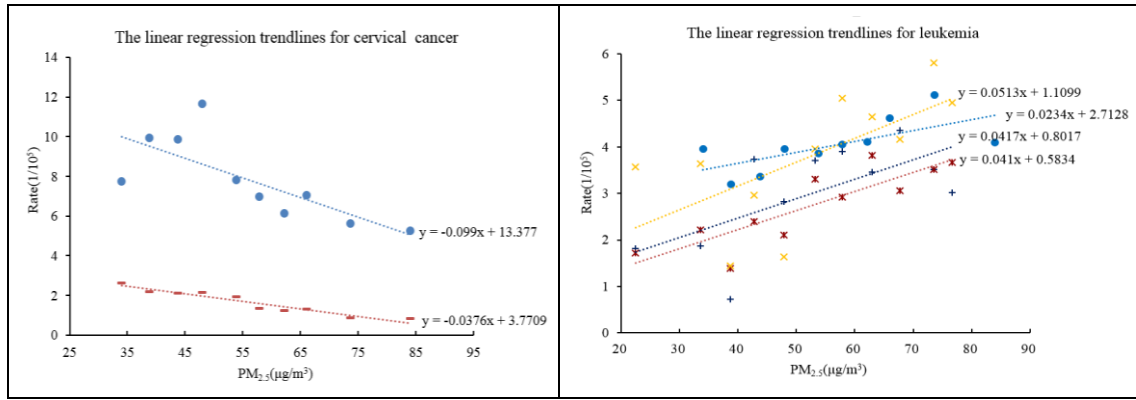
Lung	0.616*	0.576*	0.307	0.387	0.766*	0.861*	0.805*	0.671*
Ovary	/	/	0.747*	0.015	/	/	0.291	0.009
Prostate	0.668*	0.009	/	/	0.048	0.279	/	/
Cervix	/	/	0.561*	0.924*	/	/	0.162	0.087
Leukaemia	0.021	0.269	0.454*	0.236	0.198	0.415*	0.429*	0.742*

281 ** indicates $P < 0.05$ and the regression is significant.

282

283 According to Table 3, there is not always a linear relationship between the incidence and
 284 mortality of the selected five cancers and $PM_{2.5}$ concentration. For the same cancer, there are
 285 significant sex and urban-rural differences in the health effects of $PM_{2.5}$. And for different
 286 cancers, $PM_{2.5}$ has different hazards in urban and rural areas. The regression relationships
 287 were employed to identify the trends and patterns, as presented Figure 3.





288 **Figure 3.** The linear regression trendlines for the five cancers. The formulas in the chart are the
 289 regression formulas of the corresponding regression trendlines.

290

291 Accordingly, it could be estimated that the increased relative risks (RRs) of the five
 292 cancers incidence and mortality for every 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ increment of annual mean $\text{PM}_{2.5}$
 293 concentration, compared with which is at 35 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ can be determined according to Eqs.4-5.

294
$$\text{RR}_I = 10B/I_0 \quad (4)$$

295
$$\text{RR}_M = 10B/M_0 \quad (5)$$

296 Where RR_I and RR_M are the increased relative risk for incidence and mortality respectively,
 297 and I_0 and M_0 are incidence and mortality when annual mean $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentration is at 35
 298 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (IT-1 proposed by WHO) respectively,. B is the coefficient of the corresponding
 299 formula.

300 **Table 4.** The RRs of cancer incidence and mortality for every 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ increment of annual mean
 301 $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentration, compared with which is at 35 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$.

Site	Urban				Rural			
	Male		Female		Male		Female	
	Incidence	Mortality	Incidence	Mortality	Incidence	Mortality	Incidence	Mortality
Lung	-8%	-9%	Non	Non	15%	23%	22%	24%

Ovary	/	/	9%	Non	/	/	Non	Non
Prostate	17%	Non	/	/	Non	Non	/	/
Cervix	/	/	-13%	-14%	/	/	Non	Non
Leukaemia	Non	Non	6%	Non	Non	9%	22%	19%

302 'Non' represents there is no significant risk.

303

304 Table 4 shows that, there are obvious urban-rural and male-female distinctions for the
305 health impact of PM_{2.5} exposure. More specifically, the risks of PM_{2.5} exposure are higher in
306 urban area for ovarian cancer and prostatic cancer; while for lung cancer and leukaemia, the
307 risks are higher in rural area. Moreover, the risks of male lung cancer and cervical cancer in
308 urban decrease along with every 10 µg/m³ increment of annual mean PM_{2.5} concentration,
309 and this should be an erroneous conclusion, since that recent years in developed areas when
310 annual mean PM_{2.5} concentration kept growing, and the declined smoking rate was a
311 dominant factor for diminished lung cancer; and more advanced medical techniques inhibited
312 cervical cancer.

313 More concretely, compared to the situation of 35 µg/m³ annual mean PM_{2.5} concentration
314 (IT-1), RRs of lung cancer mortality for males and females in rural area increases 23% and
315 24% respectively with every 10 µg/m³ increase of annual mean PM_{2.5} concentration, which
316 is consistent with Turner et al. [67], and there is almost no sex difference in lung cancer
317 mortality in rural area. Different from rural area, the risks of incidence and mortality for male
318 (female) lung cancer decline (change insignificantly) with PM_{2.5} respectively in urban area,
319 which again suggests that smoking rate decline could be the dominant factor for lung cancer.
320 The urban and rural differences of RRs of incidence and mortality for other cancers are as
321 following: with every 10 µg/m³ increment of annual mean PM_{2.5} concentration, the RR of
322 ovarian cancer incidence increases 9% in urban area, which changes insignificantly in rural

323 area; the RR of prostatic cancer incidence increases 17%, which also changes insignificantly
324 in rural area; for male leukemia, only the RR of mortality in rural increase 9%, but for female
325 leukemia, the RRs of incidence and mortality increase 22% and 19% in rural area respectively,
326 and in urban area, only the RR of incidence increases 6%, which suggests that the RR of
327 leukemia from PM_{2.5} exposure is more significant in rural area than urban area, and it is more
328 significant for females than males.

329

330 **4. Conclusions**

331 Particulate matter pollution has become an urgent issue in most areas in China because
332 that the annual mean PM_{2.5} concentration has remained at a high level greater than 35 µg/m³
333 for a long period. In this paper we used the data of cancer incidence/mortality and PM_{2.5}
334 concentration to carry out a preliminary exploration of the sex and urban-rural differences in
335 the health effects of PM_{2.5} pollution in densely populated areas located in the southeastern
336 side of Hu line of China. Pearson correlation coefficient and linear regression were performed
337 to analyze the association between PM_{2.5} and the incidence (and mortality) of the ten most
338 common cancers. For the ten most common cancers, the incidence of six cancers and the
339 mortality of two cancers are closely related with PM_{2.5} exposure. The mainly involved organs
340 include cardiovascular system, respiratory system, reproductive system, digestive system and
341 hematopoietic system. For the same cancer, there is a big gap in RRs of PM_{2.5} long term
342 exposure between urban and rural area, and between male and female. For different cancers,
343 the hazards of PM_{2.5} vary in urban and rural areas. Our results are demonstrated reliable
344 because of the consistency with Turner et al. [67].

345 All in all, PM_{2.5} long term and high concentration exposure sharply raises the risks of
346 some cancers in China, meanwhile, the responses of cancers to PM_{2.5} are inconsistent in urban
347 and rural areas, and in different sex. Specifically, the responses of lung cancer and leukaemia

348 to PM_{2.5} are more significant in rural area, while the responses of ovarian cancer and prostatic
349 cancer are more significant in urban area. In addition, the hazards of PM_{2.5} on female are
350 more significant. Therefore, urban and rural differences and sex differences should be taken
351 into account in the management of the air pollution and the associated health problem.

352 Our research is the first step of differential study of the health risks of PM_{2.5} long term
353 and high concentration exposure in urban-rural areas and different sex, so the interference of
354 some other factors is not completely excluded and leads to some abnormal results. A case in
355 point is that the RRs of male lung cancer and cervical cancer in urban area decrease along
356 with PM_{2.5} concentration increment, which suggests that there may be other influencing
357 factors leading to the result, such as the declined smoking rate and more advanced medical
358 techniques. In order to get more accurate exposure-response relationship between cancers
359 and long-term PM_{2.5} exposure, it is necessary to choose typical areas to carry on large-scale
360 prospective cohort study.

361

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368 conducted data analysis. J. R. led this manuscript; L.C., K.C., and Y.L. gave some useful
369 comments and suggestions to this work. All the authors reviewed the manuscript.

370 **Conflicts of Interest:** The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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