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Greenness around schools associated with lower risk of hypertension among children: Findings from the Seven Northeastern Cities Study in China

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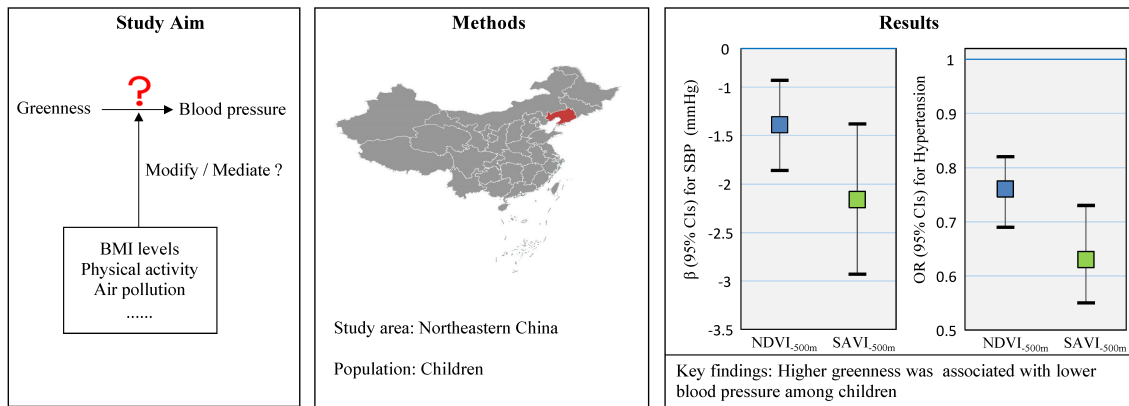
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1 **Greenness around Schools Associated with Lower Risk of Hypertension among Children:**  
2 **Findings from the Seven Northeastern Cities Study in China**

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45 **Abstract**

46 Evidence suggests that residential greenness may be protective of high blood pressure, but  
47 there is scarcity of evidence on the associations between greenness around schools and blood  
48 pressure among children. We aimed to investigate this association in China. Our study  
49 included 9,354 children from 62 schools in the Seven Northeastern Cities Study. Greenness  
50 around each child's school was measured by NDVI (Normalized Difference Vegetation Index)  
51 and SAVI (Soil-Adjusted Vegetation Index). Particulate matter  $\leq 1\mu\text{m}$  ( $\text{PM}_1$ ) concentrations  
52 were estimated by spatiotemporal models and nitrogen dioxide ( $\text{NO}_2$ ) concentrations were  
53 collected from air monitoring stations. Associations between greenness and blood pressure  
54 were determined by generalized linear and logistic mixed-effect models. Mediation by air  
55 pollution was assessed using mediation analysis. Higher greenness was consistently  
56 associated with lower blood pressure. An increase of 0.1 in NDVI corresponded to a reduction  
57 in SBP of 1.39 mmHg (95% CI: -1.86, -0.93) and lower odds of hypertension (OR= 0.76, 95%  
58 CI: 0.69, 0.82). Stronger associations were observed in children with higher BMI. Ambient  
59  $\text{PM}_1$  and  $\text{NO}_2$  mediated 33.0% and 10.9% of the association between greenness and SBP,  
60 respectively. In summary, greater greenness near schools had a beneficial effect on blood  
61 pressure, particularly in overweight or obese children in China. The associations might be  
62 partially mediated by air pollution. These results might have implications for policy makers to  
63 incorporate more green space for both aesthetic and health benefits.

64 **Keywords:** greenness; blood pressure; hypertension; modification; mediation

**65 Capsule**

66 Greater greenness near schools was associated with lower blood pressure among children,  
67 which might have implications for policy makers to incorporate more green space.

68

**69 Abbreviations**

70 BMI, body mass index; BP, blood pressure; CI, confidence interval; DBP, diastolic blood  
71 pressure; NDVI, normalized difference vegetation index; NO<sub>2</sub>, nitrogen dioxide; OR, odds  
72 ratio, PM<sub>1</sub>, particles with diameters  $\leq 1.0 \mu\text{m}$ ; SAVI, soil adjusted vegetation index; SBP,  
73 systolic blood pressure;

**74 Introduction**

75 The global urban population has increased dramatically, from approximately 751 million in  
76 1950 to 4.2 billion in 2018, and now accounts for 55% of the world's population (United  
77 Nations 2018). As one of the global health challenges being confronted in the 21st century  
78 (Giles-Corti et al. 2016), rapid urbanization has resulted in alterations to the urban  
79 environment (Zhou et al. 2018), including changes in the amount of urban green space. More  
80 attention is drawn to green space due to recent findings about its public health impacts  
81 (Nieuwenhuijsen and Khreis 2017). A growing number of studies have demonstrated that  
82 proximity to green space, measured as "greenness", has many beneficial health effects  
83 (Nieuwenhuijsen et al. 2017), such as alleviating psychological stress (Garipey et al. 2015;  
84 Pun et al. 2018; Van Aart et al. 2018), supporting normal body weight (Lachowycz and Jones  
85 2011), reducing blood lipids levels (Yang et al. 2019) and lowering cardiovascular disease risk  
86 (Lane et al. 2017; Yitshak-Sade et al. 2017).

87 To date, few epidemiological studies have investigated the relationship between greenness  
88 and blood pressure. Raised blood pressure is the leading risk factor for cardiovascular  
89 diseases (Gillespie et al. 2013; WHO 2013), which has caused 9.4 million premature deaths  
90 and accounted for 7% of the global disease burden in 2010 (WHO 2014). Although thought to  
91 be less common in children, hypertension often originates in childhood (Feber and Ahmed  
92 2010; Gupta-Malhotra et al. 2015) and may track into adolescence and adulthood (Chen and  
93 Wang 2008), possibly resulting in early vascular and heart damage (Gupta-Malhotra et al.  
94 2015).



95 Only one study has investigated the impact of residential greenness on blood pressure in  
96 children (Markevych et al. 2014), which observed inverse association between residential  
97 greenness and blood pressure. To our knowledge, these findings have not been replicated in  
98 other childhood populations. Furthermore, the greenness around a child's school may be  
99 particularly important to children, given one of the mechanisms suggested for this link is  
100 increased physical activity (Jia et al. 2018), maintaining healthy body weight (Sander et al.  
101 2017), stress relief and other recreational activities (Herrera et al. 2018; Van Aart et al. 2018).  
102 The other suggested mechanisms are reducing air pollution levels (Dadvand et al. 2012b;  
103 Thiering et al. 2016), which is itself a documented risk factor for hypertension (Yang et al.  
104 2018b). However, the specific pathways linking greenness to blood pressure are not well  
105 understood.

106 Therefore, we aimed to contribute new information to help address this knowledge gap, and  
107 hypothesized that (1) higher greenness is associated with lower blood pressure among urban  
108 children; and (2) the associations between greenness and children's blood pressure occur via  
109 lower air pollution levels.

## 110 **Methods**

### 111 *Design and study populations*

112 From April 2012 to June 2013, the Seven Northeastern Cities (SNEC) study was conducted in  
113 Liaoning Province, China, to explore the health effects of exposure to environmental factors  
114 in children. The details of the study have been described previously (Dong et al. 2015; Zeng  
115 et al. 2017). Briefly, we randomly selected 24 study districts in seven cities: Shenyang, Dalian,

116 Anshan, Fushun, Benxi, Liaoyang and Dandong. From each of the study districts we  
117 randomly selected one or two primary and one or two middle school (62 schools in total).  
118 From each grade of the schools we randomly selected one or two classes. All children in the  
119 selected classes, and their parents or guardians, were invited to participate in the study,  
120 provided that they had lived in the study district for at least two years. Participating children  
121 completed a physical examination, and participants' parents or guardians completed a study  
122 questionnaire to capture data about demographic information and environment exposure. A  
123 total of 10,428 children from the 62 random selected schools were invited and 9,567  
124 participated in the study (response rate: 91.7%). After excluding 213 children who had not  
125 resided in their current district for more than two years, the final sample for our analysis  
126 comprised 9,354 children from 4.3 to 17.8 years of age (Figure 1). All children and their  
127 parents or guardians provided written informed consent. This study was approved by the  
128 Human Studies Committee of Sun Yat-sen University.

### 129 ***Blood pressure measurements***

130 Blood pressure was measured according to the American Academy of Pediatrics guidelines  
131 (National High Blood Pressure Education Program Working Group on High Blood Pressure in  
132 and Adolescents 2004). All research personnel completed a training program to facilitate a  
133 standardized approach for blood pressure measurement. Study participants were asked not to  
134 drink coffee or tea, and to abstain from physical activity for at least 30 minutes prior to blood  
135 pressure measurements. After resting for five minutes in a quiet and temperate room,  
136 participants were seated with back support, feet on the floor, right arm supported and an  
137 appropriate cuff for children was placed around 2cm above the crease of the right arm elbow.

138 Trained nurses measured the brachial artery blood pressure at the upper right arm using a  
139 standardized mercury-column sphygmomanometer. Systolic blood pressure (SBP) was  
140 determined by the onset of the Korotkoff sounds (K1), and the fifth Korotkoff sound (K5)  
141 determined diastolic blood pressure (DBP). This was done three times at 2-minute intervals  
142 and we used the average of the three measurements in all analyses. Hypertension was defined  
143 as systolic (SBP) and/or diastolic blood pressure (DBP)  $\geq$  95th percentile for sex, age, and  
144 height (National High Blood Pressure Education Program Working Group on High Blood  
145 Pressure in and Adolescents 2004).

#### 146 *Greenness exposure assessment*

147 Greenness was assessed using two indices of satellite-derived vegetation measures –  
148 Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) and Soil-Adjusted Vegetation Index (SAVI).  
149 NDVI was calculated as the ratio of the difference between the reflectance of near-infrared  
150 region light and red region light by chlorophyll in plants, to the sum of these two measures  
151 (Tucker 1979). Compared with NDVI, SAVI includes a correction factor to suppress soil  
152 pixels (Huete 1988). Both indices range from -1 to +1, with -1 referring to water, values close  
153 to zero indicating barren soil and values close to +1 representing a high density of greenness.  
154 We used two cloud-free Landsat 5 Thematic Mapper satellite images from August 2010, at a  
155 spatial resolution of 30 m x 30 m (<http://earthexplorer.usgs.gov>), to derive NDVI and SAVI  
156 values at the school addresses. We calculated mean values of NDVI and SAVI values for  
157 circular buffers of 100m, 500m and 1000m around each school to assess exposure over  
158 differing proximities to the school. These calculations were performed using ArcGIS 10.4

159 (ESRI, Redlands, CA, USA). Similar methods have been used previously (Casey et al. 2016;  
160 Lane et al. 2017; Markevych et al. 2014).

### 161 *Covariates and mediators*

162 We selected the following covariates: age (years), gender (boy, girl), annual family income  
163 (RMB yuan), family history of hypertension (yes/no), premature birth (yes/no), environmental  
164 tobacco exposure (yes/no), home coal use (yes/no), parental education level (primary school  
165 or lower vs. middle school or higher), personal living area ( $\text{m}^2$  /person) and the season when  
166 BP was measured. Additionally, we used concentrations of air pollutants as possible mediators  
167 in our mediation analyses. BMI was calculated as measured body weight divided by height  
168 squared ( $\text{kg}/\text{m}^2$ ). BMI higher than the 85th percentile based on gender, age, and height was  
169 considered to be overweight.

170 Blood pressure is reported to be associated with both ambient air pollution and urban  
171 greenness (Dadvand et al. 2012a; Yang et al. 2018b). We chose particulate matter with an  
172 aerodynamic diameter  $\leq 1\mu\text{m}$  ( $\text{PM}_{10}$ ) and nitrogen dioxide ( $\text{NO}_2$ ) as two proxies of air pollution.  
173 Four-year (2009-2012) average  $\text{PM}_{10}$  concentrations were predicted by using spatiotemporal  
174 models based on  $\text{PM}_{10}$  concentrations from air monitoring stations, satellite-based aerosol  
175 optical depth (AOD), meteorology and land use information. In brief, two types of Moderate  
176 Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) Collection six aerosol optical depth (AOD)  
177 data—Dark Target (DT) and Deep Blue (DB)—were combined to generate the spatiotemporal  
178 models. Four-year average ground-monitored  $\text{NO}_2$  concentration was used. (Supplementary  
179 File). The details have been described in previous studies (Yang et al. 2018c).

180 *Statistical analysis*

181 As multiple levels (both individual and school) of data existed in our study, we applied  
182 generalized linear mixed-effects regression models (lmer and glmer function in R package) to  
183 investigate associations between greenness and blood pressure or childhood hypertension  
184 (Supplementary File). We used city and school as random effect in the models. Similar  
185 statistical models were used in our previous study (Zeng et al. 2017).

186 We implemented two sets of models for each endpoint: (1) crude mixed effect model, without  
187 adjustment for covariates; (2) adjusted mixed effect model, adjusted for age, gender, parental  
188 education, income, and season. In line with previous studies, we used the 500m buffer NDVI  
189 and SAVI values for the main analyses (Dzhambov et al. 2018a; Markevych et al. 2014; Yang  
190 et al. 2018a). Finally, we evaluated effects in the adjusted models for NDVI and SAVI  
191 averaged over 100m and 1000m buffers in a sensitivity analysis to assess the stability of our  
192 results. We also excluded participants with a family history of hypertension from the adjusted  
193 models in sensitivity analysis to assess the impact of a family history of hypertension. In  
194 another sensitivity analysis, in order to investigate if there is any study that were so  
195 heterogeneous that can bias the overall effect estimates, seven additional sensitivity analyses  
196 were also conducted in which we excluded one city at a time in each analysis.

197 We performed stratified and interaction analyses by using age, sex, BMI, family income and  
198 parental education levels as modifiers to investigate the potential difference of effect of  
199 residential greenness among different subgroups. For these analyses, age ( $\leq 11$  vs  $> 11$  years)  
200 and family income level ( $\leq 30000$  vs  $> 30000$  yuan per year) were split at the median. The

201 interaction effect was estimated by significance of the corresponding interaction item  
202 (greenness\*modifier) additionally added in the models.

203 We followed the Baron-Kenny's step for mediation analyses to examine whether air pollutants  
204 concentrations could be modes or mechanisms through which greenness affected blood  
205 pressure and hypertension (Baron and Kenny 1986). Briefly, we first constructed a full model  
206 that includes the exposure, mediator and all covariates. Then we constructed a mediate model  
207 that mediator was regressed on the exposure and all covariates. Last, the exposure effect in  
208 first model was compared with the counterpart in the second model. These results were  
209 generated by bootstrapping (500 simulations) using the function mediate implemented in the  
210 R package 'mediation' (Imai et al. 2010).

211 All statistical analyses were performed using R version 3.5.1. All statistical tests used  
212 two-tailed  $P < 0.05$  to indicate statistical significance.

## 213 **Results**

### 214 *Baseline characteristics*

215 Study participants were 10.9 years of age on average (ranging from 4.3 to 17.8 years), just  
216 under half (49%) were girls, and 41.5% lived in a family with an annual income greater than  
217 30000 yuan (Table 1). The average systolic and diastolic blood pressures were (111.0±14.1)  
218 mmHg and (64.5±9.8) mmHg, respectively, and 13.8% were hypertensive. Compared to  
219 normotensive children, participants with hypertension were older ( $P < 0.05$ ), had higher BMI  
220 ( $P < 0.05$ ), were more likely to be exposed to environmental tobacco smoke ( $P < 0.05$ ) and to

221 have a family history of hypertension ( $P < 0.05$ ). Greenness levels varied markedly across  
222 different schools (Supplementary Materials, Figure S1, Table S1). For example,  $NDVI_{500m}$   
223 levels ranged from -0.09 to 0.77, with a median value of 0.31, whereas  $SAVI_{500m}$  levels  
224 ranged from 0.00 to 0.47 with a median value of 0.18. The greenspace indices were also  
225 strongly positively inter-correlated ( $r_s$ : 0.63 to 0.99), while their inverse correlations with air  
226 pollutant concentrations were comparatively weaker ( $r_s$ : -0.15 to -0.33).

### 227 *Associations between greenness and blood pressure*

228 Associations of greenness with systolic and diastolic blood pressure and with hypertension,  
229 are presented in Table 2. In the adjusted model, a 0.1-unit increase in  $NDVI_{500m}$  exposure was  
230 significantly associated with a -1.39 (95% CI: -1.86, -0.93) mmHg reduction in SBP and a 24%  
231 (OR= 0.76, 95% CI: 0.69, 0.82) lower odds of hypertension, similarly, a 0.1-unit increase in  
232  $SAVI_{500m}$  exposure was significantly associated with a -2.16 (95% CI: -2.93, -1.38) mmHg  
233 reduction in SBP and a 37% (OR= 0.63, 95% CI: 0.55, 0.73) lower odds of hypertension. We  
234 did not observe any significant association with DBP in adjusted model.

### 235 *Sensitivity analyses*

236 The direction and significance of our results were consistent when participants with a family  
237 history of hypertension were excluded (Supplementary file, Table S2), when participants  
238 exposed to environmental tobacco were excluded (Supplementary file, Table S3), when 100m  
239 and 1000m buffers were used to calculate NDVI and SAVI values (Supplementary file, Table  
240 S4) and when the participants from each one of the seven cities were excluded  
241 (Supplementary file, Table S5 and Table S6).

**242 Effect modification**

243 We also evaluated modification of the greenness-blood pressure associations according to the  
244 key factors shown in Table 3. We found statistically significant interactions for BMI, in which  
245 stronger associations for both NDVI ( $P<0.0001$ ) and SAVI ( $P<0.0001$ ) with SBP were  
246 observed among overweight/obese participants compared to those with normal weight (Table  
247 4). The 3D response surface and the 2D contour plots are graphical representations of the  
248 regression equation (Figure 2). Each contour curve represents an infinite number of  
249 combinations of greenness and BMI. Greenness showed a negative association with SBP  
250 when the BMI level was fixed. There was a linear increase in SBP with an increase in BMI,  
251 but a decrease in greenness level. We also detected statistically significant interactions of  
252 NDVI ( $P<0.0001$ ) and SAVI ( $P<0.0001$ ) with sex, in which higher levels of greenness was  
253 associated with higher DBP in boys, but with lower DBP in girls. No interaction with SES  
254 factors (family income and parental education levels) was observed.

**255 Mediation analyses**

256 We found that 33.0% and 10.9% of the effects of greenness on SBP was mediated by lower  
257 ambient levels of  $PM_{10}$  and  $NO_2$ , respectively ( $P < 0.0001$ ). It is important to note that road  
258 traffic is a source of both of these pollutants ( $PM_{10}$  and  $NO_2$ ), therefore there is usually an  
259 association between their concentrations in close proximity to a roadway. However, we did  
260 not detect significant mediation effects for exercise time (data not shown). The mediation  
261 analysis results were similar for the associations between greenness and hypertension (Table  
262 5). We used BMI as potential moderators in the mediation models (Supplementary file, Table



263 S7). The mediation effect of air pollutants varied remarkably by BMI quantiles.

## 264 **Discussion**

### 265 *Key findings*

266 Higher exposure to greenness surrounding school, as measured by NDVI and SAVI, was  
267 significantly associated with lower SBP and lower odds of hypertension in children living in  
268 Northeast China. The relationship was stronger among overweight/obese children.  
269 Furthermore, ambient PM<sub>1</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations might be mediating variables in the  
270 associations between greenness and SBP and greenness and hypertension.

### 271 *Comparison with other studies and interpretations*

272 To our knowledge, only one previous study has investigated the associations between  
273 greenness and blood pressure in children. In that study, Markevych et al. (2014) found  
274 beneficial associations between lower greenness levels (calculated as NDVI) and higher SBP  
275 and DBP in 10-year-old German children, which are in line with our results. However, a  
276 number of studies have reported associations on greenness and blood pressure in adults.  
277 Dzhambov et al. (2018a) conducted a study in residents of an Alpine valley in Austria and  
278 observed that an interquartile range (IQR = 0.16) increase in greenness was associated with  
279 lower odds (OR=0.64 95% CI: 0.52, 0.78) of hypertension and a 2.84 mmHg decrease in SBP.  
280 A twin cohort study carried out in Belgium reported that an interquartile increase (IQR = 46%  
281 change) in residential greenness in early life resulted in a decrease of 3.59 mmHg and 4.0  
282 mmHg in night-time SBP and DBP respectively (Bijnens et al. 2017). Jendrossek et al. (2017),  
283 however, detected no effect of greenness on maternal hypertension assessed by questionnaire.

284 A recent meta-analysis pooling most previously published studies indicated that the current  
285 evidence generally supports a relationship between higher greenness levels and lower blood  
286 pressure levels (Twohig-Bennett and Jones 2018). Collectively, our results, combined with  
287 previous studies, support an inverse relationship between greenness and SBP levels and  
288 importantly, the overall observed associations in adults can also be detected at much younger  
289 ages. However, given the cross-sectional nature of the studies addressing the influence of  
290 greenness on children's blood pressure, future longitudinal studies in children are needed to  
291 confirm our findings.

### 292 *Effects modification and mediation*

293 In stratified analyses, we found a statistically significant interaction between greenness and  
294 sex. To the best of our knowledge, this study is the first reporting on the interaction between  
295 greenness and sex, so it is difficult for us to compare the results and discuss the possible  
296 explanations. And the interaction showed only on DBP, so this result should be interpreted  
297 cautiously. It is likely that psychological and endocrine factors may contribute to the  
298 differences of the effect. We also found a stronger association between NDVI<sub>500m</sub> and SBP  
299 among children with higher BMI. As far as we are aware, only one previous study showed a  
300 similar result (Dzhambov et al. 2018a). In our data, under or normal weight children and  
301 overweight or obese children exercised for 7.5 hours/week and 7.8 hours/week on average  
302 (data not shown), respectively (P=0.17). Thus, children with higher BMI levels might benefit  
303 more from increasing greenness than those with lower BMI given the same physical activity  
304 level. Unfortunately, we did not collect information about individual greenspace use and so

305 future studies that include such data may provide more definitive answers. Notably, our  
306 results indicated that family income and parental education level did not modify the  
307 relationship between greenness and blood pressure, while previous studies have shown that  
308 the relationship between greenness with health outcomes was stronger in lower income  
309 groups (Browning and Rigolon 2018; Dzhambov et al. 2018a). The inconsistency could be  
310 attributed in part to differences in the study populations – children in our study and adults in  
311 the previously reported studies, different greenness exposure – school-based versus residential,  
312 and differences in ethnic groups. Also, our study population resided in a region dominated by  
313 heavy industry, and so the industrial influence and economic development status may be quite  
314 different to those studies conducted in developed countries (Dzhambov et al. 2018a;  
315 Jendrossek et al. 2017). For example, participants with lower income were surrounded by  
316 higher greenness (average NDVI<sub>500m</sub> is 0.34 in the lower income versus 0.32 in the higher  
317 income group,  $P < 0.05$ ), contrary to other studies in which lower income residents were  
318 surrounded by lower greenness (Astell-Burt et al. 2014; Bell et al. 2008).

319 We found that higher levels of greenness were significantly associated with lower air  
320 pollution, and mediation analyses showed that both airborne particles and gaseous pollutants  
321 might partially explain the associations between greenness and blood pressure. Previous  
322 studies have suggested that the concentration levels of urban ambient air pollutants can be  
323 reduced by vegetation (Hirabayashi and Nowak 2016; Nowak et al. 2013; Uni and Katra  
324 2017). Green areas, which are barriers between the pollution source and receptors, can  
325 remove some particles and gaseous pollutants, although the efficacy is likely to be limited

326 (Gómez-Moreno et al. 2019; Markevych et al. 2017; Xing and Brimblecombe 2019).  
327 Regardless of the ability of greenness to act as a filter of air pollution, its presence may reflect  
328 a relative absence of pollutant sources and also can increase the distance between the source  
329 and the receptor (Richmond-Bryant et al. 2018), enabling greater dilution. In addition, some  
330 studies have also speculated that people were more likely to engage in physical activities  
331 when exposed to higher green space (Markevych et al. 2017), which in turn may be protective  
332 against hypertension (Huai et al. 2013; Lagisetty et al. 2016). Jia et al. (2018) found that  
333 physical activity accounted for a 55% reduced risk of hypertension in adults when exposed to  
334 higher greenness. However, based on our data, we did not find that the greenness association  
335 with blood pressure was mediated through physical activity levels (data not shown). One  
336 possible explanation for the discrepancy could be that children's exercise time in schools is  
337 usually scheduled and consequently would be independent of greenness levels around schools.  
338 Nevertheless, our results were consistent with previous study (Markevych et al. 2014) which  
339 also reported that the effect on children's blood pressure was independent of physical activity.  
340 It should be noticed that even though greenness around school may not affect the time of  
341 children's exercise but rather, greenness may affect the environmental quality of the place  
342 where they exercise or engage in other recreational activities, through lowering stress and  
343 increasing social engagement (Herrera et al. 2018; Markevych et al. 2017). More interestingly,  
344 BMI tended to moderate or modify the greenness-air pollution-blood pressure process instead  
345 of mediating the association directly. Among participants with higher BMI, less effect of  
346 greenness could be explained by air pollution.

347 ***Implications for policy makers***

348 As children usually spend lots of time in school and most of their outdoor activities (taking  
349 exercise, reading a book outside, or doing other recreational activity) may happen in school,  
350 school-based greenness is important to children. This study suggests a beneficial effect for  
351 greenness surrounding schools on children's blood pressure. This finding may have important  
352 implications for policy makers to plan more greenspace around schools for not only the  
353 aesthetic benefits but also the health effect that may influence all children in the school.

354 ***Strengths and limitations***

355 Our study is the largest to date to evaluate the association between greenness and childhood  
356 blood pressure and hypertension. It was based on a large sample size and we achieved a high  
357 participation rate (91.7%), minimizing the likelihood for selection bias and strengthening the  
358 external validity of our results. We leveraged two widely recognized, valid and reliable  
359 indices to assign greenness exposure, the NDVI and SAVI, and we captured a comprehensive  
360 profile of covariates to adjust for confounders. Several sensitivity analyses were also  
361 conducted to validate the robustness of the associations. We also examined interactions  
362 according to the most likely effect modifiers and conducted mediation analyses to determine  
363 the contribution of ambient PM<sub>1</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub>, as well as physical activity and BMI to the  
364 greenness-BP associations. In addition, our study is the first to date to evaluate the health  
365 effect of school-based greenness on children given that children usually spend much time  
366 participating in a wide range of outdoor activities in school.

367 Our study also had some limitations and therefore the results should be interpreted cautiously.

368 First, we may not capture greenness exposure from other non-school places (such as home).  
369 However, due to a Chinese policy restricting children from attending trans-regional schools,  
370 our data showed that the average walk time from their homes to schools was about 12 minutes,  
371 and thus the school-based greenness exposures are very likely to represent residential  
372 greenness exposure to a large extent. The latter was also confirmed when we generated  
373 similar results using a larger buffer (1000m exposure buffer instead of the 500m exposure  
374 buffer) and found that the results were consistent. The major limitation of exposure  
375 assessment in our study was that we could not differentiate greenness within the premises of  
376 the schools from the buffered greenness so that we could not determine how much of the  
377 exposure was contributed by the greenness within schools as this could vary depending the  
378 area of each school. Some studies showed slight differences between the effect of greenness  
379 within and around school boundaries, which should be considered in further study. Second,  
380 although we adjusted for the most likely confounders in our analysis, we cannot rule out the  
381 possibility of unmeasured confounding due to other factors that co-vary with greenness and  
382 have been shown to impact blood pressure, including noise (Dzhambov et al. 2018b),  
383 walkability (James et al. 2017) and psychological status (Herrera et al. 2018; Van Aart et al.  
384 2018). We were also unable to adjust our analyses for neighborhood socioeconomic status  
385 because we did not have such data, either. Third, although we tried to explore the mediation  
386 effect of air pollution by using model predicted  $PM_{10}$  and  $NO_2$  from air monitoring stations,  
387 the deviation of air pollution assessment brought by inherent limitation of model prediction  
388 was inevitable, thus the results of mediation analysis should be interpreted with caution. Forth,  
389 the cross-sectional design of our study prevented us from inferring temporality, in that we

390 cannot be sure if greenness exposure preceded blood pressure values in time. Still, we believe  
391 it unlikely for children's blood pressure to have impacted the distribution of greenness around  
392 their homes and schools. However, for mediation analyses, we cannot rule out the possibility  
393 that greener schools were located in regions where air pollution levels were lower, thus  
394 temporality of the mediation process cannot be inferred, either.

### 395 **Conclusion**

396 Higher levels of greenness near schools was associated with lower systolic blood pressure and  
397 lower odds ratio of hypertension in school children from Northeastern China, especially in  
398 children with higher BMI. Air pollutants might partly mediate the associations. Further  
399 well-designed longitudinal studies with more specific assessment of individual greenness  
400 exposure are needed to confirm our results. If confirmed in future studies, this effect could  
401 have implications for policy makers and public health authorities to build more greenery, not  
402 only for its aesthetic benefits but also for better health.

### 403 **Declaration of interests**

404 None.

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567 **Figure legends**

568 **Figure 1.** Children recruitment flow chart of the Seven Northeastern Cities Study

569

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570 **Figure 2.** The 3D response surface and 2D contour plots showing interactive effects of BMI  
571 and greenness (500m buffer) on blood pressure

572

573

574 Footnote: Panel A for SBP-NDVI-BMI, Panel B for DBP-NDVI-BMI, Panel C for  
575 SBP-SAVI-BMI, Panel D for DBP-SAVI-BMI.

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577 **Table 1** Characteristics of participants from the Seven Northeastern Chinese Cities Study

Characteristic	Mean $\pm$ SD, n (%)		
	Total (n = 9354)	Non-hypertension (n = 8065)	Hypertension (n = 1289)
Age (years) <sup>a</sup>	10.9 $\pm$ 2.6	10.8 $\pm$ 2.6	11.9 $\pm$ 2.5
Sex			
Boys	4771 (51.0%)	4112 (51.0%)	659 (51.1%)
Girls	4583 (49.0%)	3953 (49.0%)	630 (48.9%)
BMI (kg/m <sup>2</sup> ) <sup>a</sup>	19.6 $\pm$ 4.3	19.2 $\pm$ 4.1	21.7 $\pm$ 5.2
Family income per year			
$\leq$ 5000 yuan	1032 (11.0%)	891 (11.0%)	141 (10.9%)
5000-10000 yuan	1211 (12.9%)	1023 (12.7%)	188 (14.6%)
10000-30000 yuan	3230 (34.5%)	2778 (34.4%)	452 (35.1%)
30000-100000 yuan	3441 (36.8%)	2994 (37.1%)	447 (34.7%)
> 100000 yuan	440 (4.7%)	379 (4.7%)	61 (4.7%)
Parental education level <sup>a</sup>			
Primary school or lower	3595 (38.4%)	3066 (37.9%)	529 (41.0%)
Middle school or higher	5759 (61.6%)	4999 (62.1%)	760 (59.0%)
Family history of hypertension <sup>a</sup>			
No	5755 (61.5%)	5024 (62.3%)	731 (56.7%)
Yes	3599 (38.5%)	3041 (37.7%)	558 (43.3%)
Environment tobacco exposure <sup>a</sup>			
No	4868 (52.0%)	4264 (52.9%)	604 (46.9%)
Yes	4486 (48.0%)	3801 (47.1%)	685 (53.1%)
Home coal use <sup>a</sup>			
No	8466 (90.5%)	7328 (90.9%)	1137 (88.2%)
Yes	888 (9.5%)	737 (9.1%)	151 (11.8%)
Season of measurements <sup>a</sup>			
Spring	3622 (38.7%)	3048 (37.8%)	574 (44.5%)
Summer	1055 (11.3%)	858 (10.6%)	197 (15.3%)
Fall	1135 (12.1%)	866 (10.7%)	269 (20.9%)
Winter	3542 (37.9%)	3293 (40.8%)	249 (19.3%)
Average exercise per week (hours)	7.6 $\pm$ 7.8	7.6 $\pm$ 7.0	7.7 $\pm$ 8.6
Person living area (m <sup>2</sup> )	22.7 $\pm$ 10.2	22.7 $\pm$ 9.8	22.3 $\pm$ 12.5
Temperature ( $^{\circ}$ C) <sup>a</sup>	14.7 $\pm$ 6.0	15.0 $\pm$ 5.8	12.8 $\pm$ 6.5
Systolic blood pressure (mmHg) <sup>a</sup>	111.0 $\pm$ 14.1	108.1 $\pm$ 12.1	129.1 $\pm$ 11.5
Diastolic blood pressure (mmHg) <sup>a</sup>	64.5 $\pm$ 9.8	62.7 $\pm$ 8.3	75.6 $\pm$ 11.2

578 Abbreviations: BMI, body mass index

579 <sup>a</sup> P < 0.05 for difference between hypertension and non-hypertension groups.

580 **Table 2** Associations of greenness indices<sup>a</sup> (per 0.1-unit increase) with blood pressure and hypertension ( $n = 9354$ )

Greenness	$\beta$ / OR (95% CI) for NDVI			$\beta$ / OR (95% CI) for SAVI		
	SBP ( $\beta$ )	DBP ( $\beta$ )	Hypertension (OR)	SBP ( $\beta$ )	DBP ( $\beta$ )	Hypertension (OR)
<b>Buffer 500m</b>						
Crude	-2.68 (-3.82, -1.53)	-0.84 (-1.28, -0.41)	0.70 (0.63, 0.77)	-4.12 (-5.98, -2.26)	-1.34 (-2.05, -0.62)	0.56 (0.47, 0.66)
Adjusted <sup>b</sup>	-1.39 (-1.86, -0.93)	-0.41 (-0.87, 0.05)	0.76 (0.69, 0.82)	-2.16 (-2.93, -1.38)	-0.64 (-1.39, 0.11)	0.63 (0.55, 0.73)

581 Abbreviations: BMI, body mass index. CI, confidence interval. DBP, diastolic blood pressure. NDVI, normalized difference vegetation index.

582 OR, odds ratio, SAVI, soil adjusted vegetation index. SBP, systolic blood pressure.

583 <sup>a</sup> Greenness defined using a 500m buffer around each of the participating schools.584 <sup>b</sup> Adjusted for age, sex, parental education, income and season.

585

586 **Table 3** Associations of greenness indices (per 0.1-unit increase) and blood pressure, stratified by demographic factors ( $n = 9354$ )<sup>a</sup>

Subgroup	<i>n</i>	$\beta$ (95% CI) for NDVI <sub>.500m</sub>				$\beta$ (95% CI) for SAVI <sub>.500m</sub>			
		SBP	<i>P</i> <sub>interaction</sub>	DBP	<i>P</i> <sub>interaction</sub>	SBP	<i>P</i> <sub>interaction</sub>	DBP	<i>P</i> <sub>interaction</sub>
Sex									
Boys	4771	-1.20 (-1.81, -0.59)	0.846	-0.04 (-0.59, 0.50)	<0.0001	-1.89 (-2.88, -0.90)	0.692	-0.10 (-0.98, 0.79)	<0.0001
Girls	4583	-1.52 (-2.01, -1.04)		-0.78 (-1.23, -0.34)		-2.31 (-3.12, -1.49)		-1.19 (-1.91, -0.46)	
Age									
≤ 11 years	4545	-1.25 (-2.08, -0.43)	0.060	-0.63 (-1.29, 0.03)	0.229	-1.92 (-3.18, -0.65)	0.104	-0.94 (-1.95, 0.07)	0.202
> 11 years	4809	-2.12 (-2.85, -1.38)		-0.73 (-1.17, -0.29)		-3.23 (-4.49, -1.97)		-1.23 (-1.96, -0.50)	
BMI									
Normal	6323	-1.18 (-1.65, -0.72)	<0.0001	-0.50 (-0.95, -0.05)	<0.0001	-1.83 (-2.60, -1.06)	<0.0001	-0.79 (-1.51, -0.06)	<0.0001
Overweight/obese	3031	-1.45 (-2.15, -0.75)		-0.16 (-0.78, 0.46)		-2.27 (-3.40, -1.14)		-0.28 (-1.27, 0.72)	
Family Income									
≤ 30000 yuan	5473	-1.38 (-1.95, -0.81)	0.850	-0.40 (-0.91, 0.12)	0.951	-2.14 (-3.08, -1.19)	0.995	-0.61 (-1.44, 0.22)	0.982
> 30000 yuan	3881	-1.34 (-1.94, -0.74)		-0.42 (-0.89, 0.06)		-2.00 (-2.97, -1.04)		-0.66 (-1.41, 0.09)	
Parental education									
≤ Primary school	3595	-1.66 (-2.31, -1.02)	0.285	-0.63 (-1.16, -0.09)	0.065	-2.57 (-3.65, -1.49)	0.326	-0.99 (-1.86, -0.12)	0.082
> Middle school	5759	-1.19 (-1.67, -0.70)		-0.32 (-0.78, 0.15)		-1.84 (-2.61, -1.07)		-0.52 (-1.26, 0.22)	

587 Abbreviations: BMI, body mass index. CI, confidence interval. DBP, diastolic blood pressure. NDVI, normalized difference vegetation index.

588 SAVI, soil adjusted vegetation index. SBP, systolic blood pressure.

589 <sup>a</sup> Adjusted for age, sex, parental education, income and season. (unless stratified by the respective factor).

590 Note: The P-values for interaction were calculated by adding a corresponding interaction item (greenness×modifier) in the model

591

592 **Table 4** Associations between greenness indices (per 0.1-unit increase) and hypertension,  
 593 stratified by demographic factors ( $n = 9354$ )<sup>a</sup>

Subgroup	<i>n</i>	OR (95% CI) for NDVI <sub>500m</sub>		OR (95% CI) for SAVI <sub>500m</sub>	
		Hypertension	<i>P</i> <sub>interaction</sub>	Hypertension	<i>P</i> <sub>interaction</sub>
Sex					
Boys	4771	0.81 (0.74, 0.89)	0.279	0.71 (0.61, 0.83)	0.259
Girls	4583	0.72 (0.65, 0.80)		0.59 (0.49, 0.70)	
Age					
≤ 11 years	4545	0.82 (0.72, 0.92)	0.200	0.73 (0.61, 0.87)	0.008
> 11 years	4809	0.73 (0.66, 0.80)		0.59 (0.49, 0.70)	
BMI					
Normal	6323	0.78 (0.69, 0.87)	< 0.0001	0.67 (0.55, 0.81)	< 0.0001
Overweight/obese	3031	0.74 (0.64, 0.85)		0.61 (0.48, 0.76)	
Family Income					
≤ 30000 yuan	5473	0.77 (0.70, 0.85)	0.912	0.65 (0.55, 0.77)	0.948
> 30000 yuan	3881	0.74 (0.67, 0.82)		0.62 (0.53, 0.73)	
Parental education					
≤ Primary school	3595	0.73 (0.64, 0.83)	0.197	0.59 (0.47, 0.74)	0.237
> Middle school	5759	0.78 (0.71, 0.86)		0.67 (0.57, 0.78)	

594 Abbreviations: BMI, body mass index. CI, confidence interval. DBP, diastolic blood pressure.  
 595 NDVI, normalized difference vegetation index. OR, odds ratio. SAVI, soil adjusted vegetation  
 596 index. SBP, systolic blood pressure.

597 <sup>a</sup> Adjusted for age, sex, parental education, income, exercise time and season. (unless  
 598 stratified by the respective factor).

599 Note: The P-values for interaction were calculated by adding a corresponding interaction item  
 600 (greenness×modifier) in the model.

601 **Table 5** Mediation of the association between greenness (NDVI<sub>500m</sub>) and SBP/hypertension  
 602 explained by air pollutants, BMI, and exercise time <sup>a</sup>

Outcome	Mediator	Proportion Mediated (95% CI) /%	P
SBP	PM <sub>1</sub>	33.0 (25.6, 44.0)	< 0.0001
	NO <sub>2</sub>	10.9 (5.4, 18.0)	< 0.0001
Hypertension	PM <sub>1</sub>	11.7 (8.0, 17.0)	< 0.0001
	NO <sub>2</sub>	12.2 (5.5, 23.0)	< 0.0001

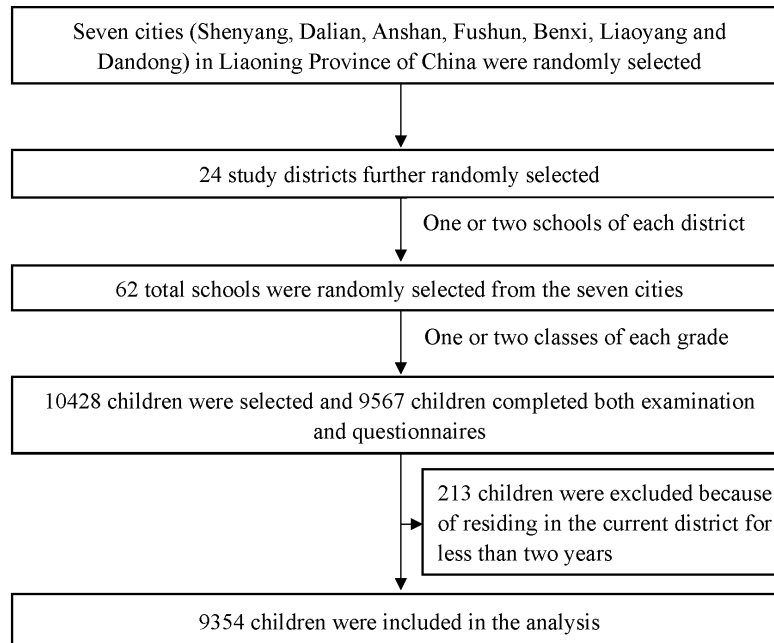
603 <sup>a</sup> Adjusted for age, sex, parental education, income, exercise time and season.

604 Abbreviations: BMI, body mass index. CI, confidence interval. NDVI, normalized difference  
 605 vegetation index. SBP, systolic blood pressure.

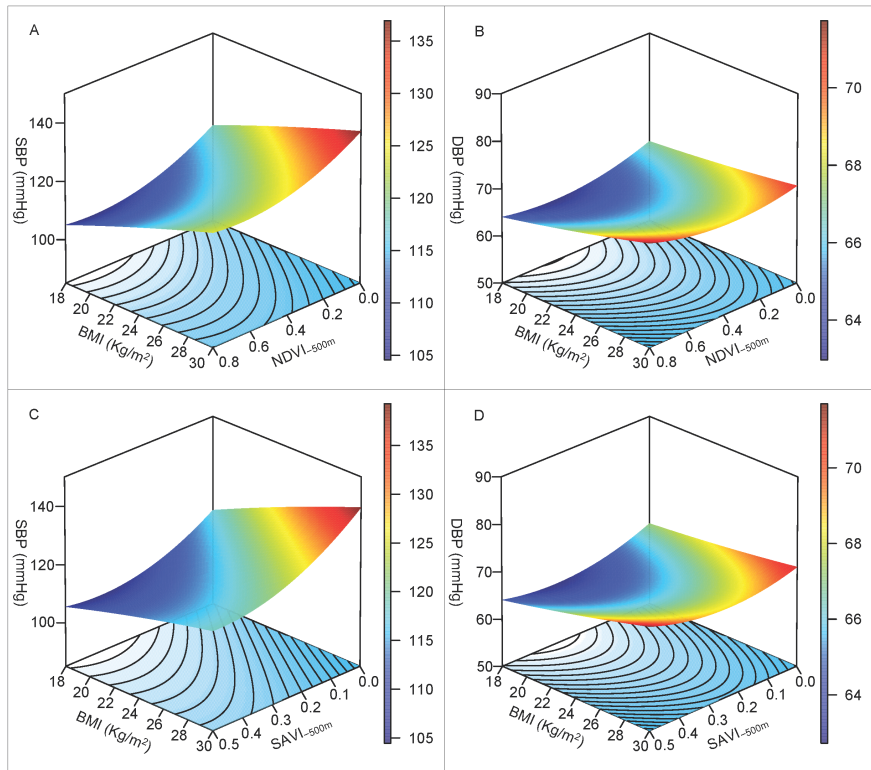
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## Highlights

- Evidence on the association between greenness and blood pressure among children is scarce.
- We are the first to explore this topic based on school surrounding greenness exposure.
- Attending schools with higher greenness showed beneficial effects on blood pressure.
- The beneficial effects were stronger in children with higher BMI levels.
- Air pollution might partially mediate the effects of greenness on blood pressure.

**Declaration of interests**

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

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests: