

Environmental Temperature Extremes: Feasibility Study of Effect on Pediatric Health

Marcelo Malakooti¹, Tricia R. Pendergast², Russ Horowitz², John Hummel³, Ryne Estabrook⁴, and Debra E Weese-Mayer²

¹Ann & Robert H. Lurie Children's Hospital of Chicago

²Northwestern University Feinberg School of Medicine

³Argonne National Laboratory

⁴University of Illinois at Chicago

November 22, 2022

Abstract

Despite consensus that projected climate changes may result in significant threats to human health, and considerable research on extreme temperature-health risks in adults, there is a paucity of information on pediatric health impacts from extreme temperature conditions. Weather data from Chicago's O'Hare Airport measured at multiple times/hour were collected for January 1, 2009 to August 1, 2018. Generalized Additive Models (GAMs) were used to investigate the relationships between air temperature and electronic health record data for emergency department (ED) and pediatric intensive care unit (PICU) admissions at a quaternary-pediatric medical center, for the same period. Daily environmental temperatures increased over time as expected, while unexpectedly ED and PICU admissions decreased. Even when temporal trends in each admission-high risk condition variable were accounted for, a consistent negative relationship was found with 0.406 fewer total (0.038 fewer high risk) ED encounters and 0.012 fewer total (0.010 fewer high risk) PICU admissions per 1°F increase in daily environmental temperature using both regression and GAMs. Our results for the ED and PICU admissions are not consistent with previously reported studies. Many of the previous studies were from under-resourced countries in which factors not considered in this study (e.g., food insecurity, other diseases, air quality, natural disasters) existed. These differences point to the need for further clarification of the relationship between environmental temperature and child health.

1 **Environmental Temperature Extremes: Feasibility Study of Effect on Pediatric Health**

2 Marcelo R Malakooti, MD^{1,2,3}, Tricia R Pendergrast, BA^{1,2}, Russ Horowitz, MD^{2,4},
3 John R Hummel, PhD⁵, Ryne Estabrook, PhD⁶, Debra E Weese-Mayer, MD^{2,3,7}

4 ¹Division of Critical Care Medicine, Ann & Robert H. Lurie Children’s Hospital of Chicago

5 ²Department of Pediatrics, Northwestern University Feinberg School of Medicine

6 ³Stanley Manne Children’s Research Institute

7 ⁴Division of Emergency Medicine, Ann & Robert H. Lurie Children’s Hospital of Chicago

8 ⁵Decision & Infrastructure Sciences Division, Argonne National Laboratory and Northwestern
9 Argonne Institute of Science and Engineering

10 ⁶Department of Psychology, University of Illinois at Chicago

11 ⁷Division of Autonomic Medicine, Ann & Robert H. Lurie Children’s Hospital of Chicago

12 **Corresponding author:** Marcelo Malakooti, MD, m-malakooti@northwestern.edu

13 **Key Points:**

- 14 • Infants and children are minimally represented in climate change literature.
15 • Daily environmental temperatures increased over time while Emergency Department
16 and Pediatric Intensive Care Unit admissions decreased.
17 • Partnerships with research and healthcare organizations can provide synergies for
18 studies of climate change impacts on human health.
19

20 **Abstract**

21 Despite consensus that projected climate changes may result in significant threats to human
22 health, and considerable research on extreme temperature-health risks in adults, there is a paucity
23 of information on pediatric health impacts from extreme temperature conditions. Weather data
24 from Chicago’s O’Hare Airport measured at multiple times/hour were collected for January 1,
25 2009 to August 1, 2018. Generalized Additive Models (GAMs) were used to investigate the
26 relationships between air temperature and electronic health record data for emergency
27 department (ED) and pediatric intensive care unit (PICU) admissions at a quaternary-pediatric
28 medical center, for the same period. Daily environmental temperatures increased over time as
29 expected, while unexpectedly ED and PICU admissions decreased. Even when temporal trends
30 in each admission-high risk condition variable were accounted for, a consistent negative
31 relationship was found with 0.406 fewer total (0.038 fewer high risk) ED encounters and 0.012
32 fewer total (0.010 fewer high risk) PICU admissions per 1°F increase in daily environmental
33 temperature using both regression and GAMs. Our results for the ED and PICU admissions are
34 not consistent with previously reported studies. Many of the previous studies were from under-
35 resourced countries in which factors not considered in this study (e.g., food insecurity, other
36 diseases, air quality, natural disasters) existed. These differences point to the need for further
37 clarification of the relationship between environmental temperature and child health.

38 **Plain Language Summary**

39 This manuscript explores the relationship between climate change and pediatric health,
40 specifically via temperature patterns and emergency department/pediatric intensive care unit
41 admissions to our academic children’s hospital in Chicago, over the past decade. This was made
42 possible via a partnership between our institution and Argonne National Laboratory, delivering
43 the first ever study to describe a multi-industry method elucidating the impact of climate change
44 on pediatric hospitalizations, while exploring particularly vulnerable patient groups. The results
45 for this study are not consistent with previously reported studies. Many of the previous studies
46 were from under-resourced countries in which factors not considered in this study (e.g., food
47 insecurity, other diseases, air quality, natural disasters) existed. These differences point to the
48 need for further clarification of the relationship between environmental temperature and child
49 health.

50 **1 Introduction**

51 There is consensus among scientific organizations and climatologists that the recent
52 physical, chemical, biogeochemical, and ecological changes to planet Earth, collectively known
53 as “climate change”, present a catastrophic threat to human health, safety, and security
54 (Anderegg et al., 2010; Doran & Zimmerman, 2009; Oreskes, 2004; and Vitousek et al., 1997).
55 In 2000, over 150,000 deaths worldwide were attributed to climate change, and 88% were child
56 deaths (Sheffield and Landrigan 2010). Tens of thousands of additional deaths are predicted by
57 the World Health Organization (WHO) as early as 2030, compared to a future with no climate
58 change (Hales et al., 2014), and the expectation is that infants and children will be over-
59 represented due to their immature physiology and metabolism, increased oxygen, caloric, and
60 water needs relative to unit body weight, unique behavior patterns, and dependence on caregivers
61 for sustenance and protection (Sheffield et al., 2011). Collectively, these factors render them at
62 higher risk of climate-related health burdens (compared to adults). The projected clinical
63 sequelae of climate change in children are varied and numerous, including expanded ranges of
64 vector-borne diseases such as malaria and dengue fever, increased severity of diarrheal and

65 respiratory disease, increased morbidity and mortality from extreme weather, worsened poverty,
66 food and physical insecurity, and threats to habitation (Akachi et al., 2009; Bunyavanich, 2003;
67 Ebi & Paulson, 2007; and Shea, 2007). These clinical effects are associated with elevated
68 environmental temperatures, ecosystem disruption, extreme weather events including flooding
69 and drought, and increased humidity and rainfall (Ahdoot & Pacheco, 2015).

70 The impact of longitudinal climate changes evolving over thousands of years is difficult
71 to gauge over smaller units of more contemporary time (Fouillet et al., 2008; Golden et al., 2008;
72 and Semenza et al., 1999). Thus, climate change presents a unique challenge to researchers.
73 Instead of relying on a lack of longitudinal prospective or retrospective data, researchers often
74 must theorize, model, or estimate the potentially catastrophic effects of climate change (Honda et
75 al, 2014; Smith & Myers, 2018; Springmann et al., 2017). Our study diverges from this paradigm
76 by 1) evaluating the feasibility of a partnership between Argonne National Laboratory and a
77 quaternary-level pediatric hospital-academic medical center, and 2) utilizing contemporary
78 analysis of historical temperature extremes in the geographic vicinity of the hospital as a proxy
79 for global warming and retrospective electronic health records (EHR) of emergency department
80 (ED) encounters and pediatric intensive care unit (PICU) admissions as a measure of overall
81 pediatric health and specific health conditions expected to have a heightened risk of illness and
82 hospitalization among infants and children, over nearly a decade (Boonstra et al., 2014).

83

84 **2 Materials and Methods**

85 2.1 Climate Data

86 Argonne National Laboratory provided access to the National Centers for Environmental
87 Information (NCEI) archives (<https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/>) of data from weather stations and
88 assessment of the state of the Earth's climate in near real-time. The NCEI open-access datasets
89 include temperature, dew point, relative humidity, precipitation, wind speed and direction, and
90 other variables, and are accessible from the NCEI website. NCEI data were obtained from
91 January 1, 2009 to August 1, 2018. The download portal allows researchers to specify the
92 increments and time frame of interest, as well as choose the closest land-based measurement
93 station. Chicago, located in the mid-latitude temperate regime where *normal* temperatures can
94 range from a low of 15°F in winter to a high of 85°F in summer, experiences *extreme*
95 temperatures as low as -25°F and as high as 105°F. The weather station at the Chicago O'Hare
96 International Airport, fewer than fifteen miles away from Ann & Robert H. Lurie Children's
97 Hospital of Chicago (Lurie Children's Hospital; LCH), was selected as the source of the weather
98 data for this study. This weather station is part of the international reporting network that
99 provides weather data for aviation operations and is the site for official Chicago-area weather
100 data. The complete record of weather data recorded at O'Hare includes multiple measurements
101 per hour and hourly, daily, and monthly averages and the deviations of these averages from the
102 historical climate record.

103 2.2 Lurie Children's Hospital

104 LCH is a 364 bed, free-standing children's hospital that serves racially and ethnically
105 diverse pediatric patients, located within Cook County, the second largest county in the United
106 States and home to 40% of the population of Illinois based on census data (U. S. Department of
107 Commerce, 2019). LCH electronic health records (EHR) for all patients evaluated in the ED or

108 admitted to the PICU between January 1, 2009 and August 1, 2018 in total and secondarily those
109 with the most pertinent and frequent pediatric health conditions identified in the Cook County
110 Department of Public Health annual reports of the top causes of death by age group and race
111 were targeted for data extraction (Cook County Department of Public Health, 2013). These ‘high
112 risk’ conditions include acute respiratory distress, chronic persistent respiratory distress,
113 circulatory system disease, influenza, meningococcal infection, pneumonia, and sepsis.
114 Preliminary analyses of frequency for health conditions of interest were conducted to ensure
115 sufficient year-to-year variability in ED encounters and PICU admission numbers for planned
116 analyses. Among the aforementioned conditions, the following had sufficient prevalence and
117 variability for inclusion in analysis: acute respiratory distress, chronic persistent respiratory
118 distress (tracheostomy status upon admission and/or ICD code corresponding to chronic
119 respiratory distress), circulatory system disease (hypertension, heart disease, valve diseases,
120 chronic kidney disease), pneumonia, and sepsis. The starting date for this study was selected
121 because it corresponded with the introduction of EHR at LCH.

122 2.3 Statistical Analysis

123 A daily temperature measure was created as the mean of daily maximum and mean of
124 daily minimum temperatures and used in all presented analyses. Analyses are provided in two
125 parts. First, descriptive analyses show the general relationships between environmental
126 temperature data with ED encounters and PICU admissions, featuring graphical displays and
127 simple regressions to show trends over time. These models include several regression analyses to
128 separate time trends into seasonal effects and year-over-year change. Second, we employed
129 Generalized Additive Models (GAMs) (Wood, 2017 and Hastie, 2017) in keeping with existing
130 literature on global warming (Hastie, 2017; Panagiotakos et al., 2004; and Schwartz, 1996), with
131 aim to investigate the relationships between daily temperature and ED encounters and PICU
132 admissions. All GAMs were fit using the mgcv library in R (Wood, 2011). These analyses were
133 completed for the total ED encounters and PICU admissions, as well as for the subset with the
134 above-described high-risk conditions.

135 This study received approval from the Institutional Review Board at LCH (IRB 2018-
136 2183) as exempt from requirement of informed consent. Members of Lurie Children’s Data
137 Analytics and Reporting (DAR) group, analysts who specialize in the extraction of data from
138 EHR, were consulted in the design of the project.
139

140 3 Results

141 3.1 Fluctuations in temperature, ED encounters and PICU admissions

142 Analyses of temperature patterns over the study interval show a strong and expected
143 seasonal effect of temperature (Figure 1). Both daily maximum and daily minimum temperatures
144 are very highly correlated ($r=0.949$, $CI=[0.945, 0.952]$, $p<0.001$). Results of ED encounter- and
145 PICU admission-temperature relationships do not vary as a function of which measure is used,
146 due to the very high correlation between these maximum/minimum temperature variables. For
147 subsequent analyses, we used the midpoint of these two temperatures as a predictor. A simple
148 regression analysis with year as the only predictor shows an annual increase in midpoint
149 temperature of $0.298^{\circ}F$ per year ($R^2=0.002$, $p=0.015$).

150 During the analyzed study period, there were overall a total of 546,627 ED encounters
151 and 17,067 PICU admissions. ED encounters (Figure 2) and PICU admissions (Figure 3) show a
152 similar oscillatory pattern. Regression models predicted 173.99 ED encounters per day in 2009
153 and a decrease of 3.720 admissions per year (partial $R^2=0.115$, $p<0.001$). Of those, 6.03
154 admissions per day were deemed 'high risk' in 2009, dropping by -0.13 per year ($R^2=0.018$,
155 $p<0.001$). PICU admissions began at 5.09 per day in 2009 and decreased by 0.044 admissions
156 per year (partial $R^2=0.003$, $p=0.002$). Of those, 1.05 per day were 'high risk', dropping by 0.08
157 per year (partial $R^2=0.023$, $p<0.001$). Daily ED encounters were highly variable. Three dates
158 showed more than 300 ED encounters, including two on consecutive days (373 on 4/29/09, 343
159 on 4/30/09, and 302 on 11/8/09): these dates are excluded from regression analyses due to their
160 extreme influence and lack of impact on results. The seven dates with the most admissions all
161 occurred in 2009. Excepting 2/2/11 ($n=63$) and 2/1/15 ($n=78$), all dates had more than 80 ED
162 encounters. The relatively small number of PICU admissions make it more difficult to test for
163 outliers in this manner.

164 3.2 Regression analyses

165 We tested the impact of temperature on total ED encounters and PICU admissions via
166 multiple regression as well as a simple correlation. The regression allows us to control for other
167 factors, while the correlation provides a simple-to-understand check on our results. Results for
168 these models are shown in Table 1. Midpoint daily temperature was negatively correlated with
169 both the total number of ED encounters ($r=-0.282$, $p<0.001$) and the number of 'high risk'
170 encounters ($r=-0.197$, $p<0.001$), meaning that ED encounters increased as temperature declined.
171 Multiple regression estimates a decrease of 0.406 total ED encounters and 0.025 'high risk'
172 encounters per day for every degree Fahrenheit increase in temperature. Adding an interaction
173 term showed that the weather-admission relationship grew stronger in recent years ($B_{int}=-0.038$,
174 $p<0.001$), but this did not replicate for 'high risk' admissions ($B_{int}=0.000$, $p=0.330$).
175 Temperature, time in years, and their interaction combine to explain 18.8% of the variance in ED
176 encounters, but only 5.4% of variance in 'high-risk' encounters. Comparable analyses for PICU
177 admission data showed a small but significant relationship between PICU admissions and
178 temperature, with -0.012 additional admissions per degree Fahrenheit increase in temperature
179 ($p<0.001$) and -0.010 additional 'high risk' admissions per degree increase. Despite the high
180 significance level, daily temperature and timing data explain approximately 1.3% of the variance
181 in PICU admissions and 4.2% of variance in 'high risk' PICU admissions.

182 3.3 Generalized additive models (GAMs)

183 Results for GAMs replicated the results of the simpler regression approaches. As
184 expected, there were strong significant associations between smoothed time and temperature
185 ($F(3.824, 3.981)=498.9$, $p<0.001$, $R^2_{adj}=0.845$). There was a weaker relationship between
186 smoothed time and both total ED encounters ($F(8.663, 8.967)=100.1$, $p<0.001$, $R^2_{adj}=0.204$) and
187 'high risk' ED encounters ($F(6.924, 8.010)=12.080$, $p<0.001$, $R^2_{adj}=0.026$). Controlling for
188 smoothed time, there was a negative association between daily temperature and ED admissions
189 that closely mirrored the regression results for both total ($B=-0.419$, $t=-18.63$, $p<0.001$) and
190 'high-risk' encounters ($B=-0.012$, $t=-3.39$, $p<0.001$). Taken together smoothed time and
191 temperature explain 27.6% of variance in ED admissions (7.3% of 'high risk'), with the
192 improved fit relative to the regression approaches due to improved fit of smoothed time under
193 the GAM approach.

194 GAMs fit to PICU admissions showed similar trends. Smoothed time and PICU
195 admissions showed a weak but significant relationship between both total ($F(8.421,$
196 $8.906)=9.990, p<0.001, R^2_{adj}=0.023$) and ‘high risk’ encounters ($F(18.750, 18.990)=10.51,$
197 $p<0.001, R^2_{adj}=0.050$). Controlling for the effect of time, PICU admissions decreased with
198 increasing temperature with -0.012 total admissions (-0.010 ‘high risk’) per additional degree
199 Fahrenheit ($p<0.001$), closely mirroring the regression results.

200 Clinical condition occurrences were relative to temperature extremes. Among the
201 pediatric health conditions with higher risk of death based on inclusion criteria, only chronic
202 respiratory distress had consistently increased representation for ED encounters and PICU
203 admissions during the January to March window and for the July to September window over the
204 nearly decade of evaluation.

205

206 **4 Discussion**

207 In this study, we examined the relationship between temperature extremes (as a proxy for
208 global warming) and electronic health records for ED and PICU patients overall and for those
209 with the highest risk diagnoses for death, using nearly a decade of daily data. Overall, we found
210 that daily environmental temperatures increased over time as expected, while unexpectedly ED
211 encounters and PICU admissions decreased over this time period. Considered overall, we found
212 a consistent negative relationship with approximately 0.4 fewer ED admissions (0.038 of which
213 are ‘high risk’) and 0.012 fewer PICU admissions (0.010 ‘high risk’) per 1°F increase in daily
214 environmental temperature using both regression and GAMs. Both regression and GAM
215 approaches identified the same negative relationship between temperature and admissions, with
216 GAMs fitting slightly better due to their more flexible approach to modeling time.

217 Despite notable temperature change over the nearly decade of study, our analysis did not
218 demonstrate the expected surge in ED evaluations and PICU admissions. These results are in
219 keeping with the work of O’Lenick et al. (2017) who similarly did not identify a significant
220 effect of high ambient temperature on pediatric respiratory disease ED encounters. However, a
221 relationship between high ambient temperatures and asthma has been consistently documented
222 (O’Lenick et al., 2017; Anderson et al., 2013; Li et al., 2014; and Winquist et al., 2016). Because
223 in our study respiratory diseases, aside from pneumonia, were studied grouped as acute or
224 chronic, we are unable to compare asthma results specifically to the published literature. Xu et al.
225 (2014) identified an increase in pneumonia in both low and high temperatures, in contrast to our
226 results wherein pneumonia as a solitary condition did not have a consistent relationship to
227 environmental temperature. Mixed results have been found when investigating change in
228 hospital visits and mortality with higher ambient temperatures (Basu & Ostro, 2008; Kysely &
229 Kim, 2009; Huang et al, 2010; Nitschke et al, 2011; Basagaña et al., 2011; Ye et al., 2007; and
230 Nastos et al., 2008), and in some reports a significant effect was only identified for young
231 children or certain medical conditions (Knowlton et al., 2009; Lam, 2007; Checkley et al., 2000;
232 and Hashizume et al., 2007). Because we did not focus on mortality we are unable to make
233 comparison between our cohort and this literature. Another key comparison is recognition that
234 most studies, including our research, have gathered ambient temperature and other
235 meteorological information using ground monitors, rather than satellite sensing technology that
236 is proposed to be more accurate for environmental variable measurements than ground monitors
237 (Xu et al., 2014).

238 While the results of our study are compelling and unexpected, they must be interpreted in
239 the context of several important identified limitations. The clinical information was derived
240 from a single-center retrospective EHR review that did not begin until EHR introduction to our
241 medical center, limiting the number of years of study and the volume of the patients in each
242 diagnostic group for the ‘high risk’ patient condition analysis. Second, ED encounter and PICU
243 admission diagnosis data were extracted from the EHR record on a large scale, which prevented
244 review of each patient’s chart. This may have allowed for risk of an erroneous diagnosis, or
245 omission of multiple significant diagnoses, when the primary admission diagnosis that auto-
246 populated in the EHR might not encapsulate all conditions potentially impacted by temperature
247 extremes. As such, the true impact of temperature change in ‘high risk’ pediatric populations
248 may have been underestimated in this study population. Third, variance in admission trends may
249 be confounded by non-environmental causes unaccounted for in our analysis, such as
250 demographic changes, market/consumer behavior influences, changes in population-specific
251 service delivery at our institution over time, and seasonal variation of common infectious
252 diseases contributory to cyclical admissions. Fourth, though we were strategic in looking at total
253 ED encounters/PICU admissions and secondarily selecting ‘high risk’ health conditions that
254 were most often associated with death, we may have inadvertently selected diagnoses that were
255 not impacted by temperature extremes. Fifth, our study design used environmental air
256 temperature as the assumed driver for the physiological conditions that would result in a need for
257 hospital care. Temperature can be a contributing factor but there are other environmental
258 conditions, such air quality, that were not considered in this initial study. Inclusion of composite
259 measures as a proxy for climate change and inclusion of several geographically diverse
260 quaternary medical centers might allow for a more definitively determined relationship between
261 such measures and ED encounters/PICU admissions than we studied in our pilot analysis.
262 Finally, the observation of an increase in chronic respiratory failure for ED encounters/PICU
263 admissions over time may be indicative of evolution in caring for more medically
264 complex/technologically-dependent children in the outpatient setting; with advances in modern
265 medicine, they are being increasingly successfully supported beyond the hospital walls with
266 mechanical ventilation, yet contributing to relatively increased frequency of admissions due to
267 their heightened vulnerability to critical illness. This trend is likely unrelated to the consequences
268 of extreme temperature, but to the ability to manage patients in an outpatient setting for longer
269 durations without needing hospitalization. Despite these limitations, the success of the
270 partnership between Argonne National Laboratory and a large academic and clinical pediatric
271 medical center lays the foundation for expanded study of the impact of global warming on the
272 health of infants and children, and similar multi-industry research partnerships.

273 The impact of rising temperature and other sequelae of climate change hold a critical
274 influence on human health, with unknowns that necessitate further exploration by the medical
275 and science communities. Pediatric health is unique in its sensitive response to changes in our
276 planet’s environment, especially that of the medically complex and critically ill infants and
277 children. Partnerships among multi-industry agencies and healthcare delivery organizations have
278 the potential to build synergies for system readiness to protect this vulnerable population as the
279 effects of climate change continue to manifest over time. Future analyses will broaden
280 temperature data evaluation to focus on patients with the most common causes of acute and
281 chronic respiratory distress in children, such as asthma and bronchiolitis, examine trends in
282 exacerbating factors such as hazardous air particulate matter, and have the potential to alert at-
283 risk populations on health precautions in anticipation of projected extreme temperature events.

284

285 **Acknowledgements**

286 The authors express their gratitude to Lauren C. Balmert, PhD for her statistical expertise in
287 guiding development of this project and to Z. Leah Harris, MD for her overriding vision to marry
288 Argonne National Laboratory with Lurie Children’s Hospital/Northwestern University Critical
289 Care, Emergency, and Autonomic Medicine. Data supporting this research are available in a
290 password-protected, HIPAA compliant database secured by the authors per the study center's
291 IRB approval process; the citation reference is this study's title as listed. These data are not
292 accessible to the public or research community, unless as granted by the authors. John Hummel
293 was supported through the U.S. Department of Energy contract DE-AC02-06CH11357.

294
295

- 296 • None of the authors have a conflict of interest to report.
- 297 • None of the authors have other affiliations that can result in a conflict of interest.
- 298 • Upon acceptance of the paper, the data will be assembled in an accessible archive.
- 299

300 **References**

- 301 Ahdoot, S., & Pacheco, S. E. (2015), Global climate change and children's health. *Pediatrics*,
302 *136*(5), e1468-e1484. doi: 10.1542/peds.2015-3233.
- 303 Akachi, Y., Goodman, D. L., & Parker, D. (2009), Global climate change and child health: a
304 review of pathways, impacts and measures to improve the evidence base. UNICEF Innocenti
305 Research Centre. IDP No. 2009-03, [https://www.unicef-irc.org/publications/560-global-climate-](https://www.unicef-irc.org/publications/560-global-climate-change-and-child-health-a-review-of-pathways-impacts-and-measures.html)
306 [change-and-child-health-a-review-of-pathways-impacts-and-measures.html](https://www.unicef-irc.org/publications/560-global-climate-change-and-child-health-a-review-of-pathways-impacts-and-measures.html)
- 307 Anderegg, W. R., Prall, J. W., Harold, J., & Schneider, S. H. (2010), Expert credibility in climate
308 change. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, *107*(27), 12107-12109.
309 doi:10.1073/pnas.1003187107.
- 310 Anderson, G.B., Dominici, F., Wang, Y., McCormack, M.C., Bell, M. L. and Peng, R. D. (2013),
311 Heat-related emergency hospitalizations for respiratory diseases in the medicare population.
312 *American Journal Respiratory Critical Care Medicine*, *187*, 1098–1103.
313 Doi:10.1164/rccm.201211-1969OC.
- 314 Basagaña, X., Sartini, C., Barrera-Gómez, J., Dadvand, P., Cunillera, J., Ostro, B. Sunyer, J. &
315 Medina-Ramón, M. (2011), Heat waves and cause-specific mortality at all ages. *Epidemiology*,
316 *765-772*. doi:10.1097/EDE.0b013e3182031c5.
- 317 Basu R. & Ostro B. D. (2008), A multicountry analysis identifying the populations vulnerable to
318 mortality associated with high ambient temperature in California. *American Journal of*
319 *Epidemiolog*, *168*, 632-637. doi: 10.1093/aje/kwn170.
- 320 Boonstra, A., Versluis, A., & Vos, J. F. (2014), Implementing electronic health records in
321 hospitals: a systematic literature review. *BMC Health Services Research*, *14*, 370. doi:
322 10.1186/1472-6963-14-370.
- 323 Bunyavanich, S., Landrigan, C. P., McMichael, A. J., & Epstein, P. R. (2003), The impact of
324 climate change on child health. *Ambulatory Pediatrics*, *3*(1), 44-52. Doi: 10.1367/1539-
325 4409(203)003<0044.
- 326 Checkley, W., Epstein, L. D., Gilman, R. H., Figueroa, D., Cama, R. I., Patz, J. A., & Black, R.
327 E. (2000), Effects of El Niño and ambient temperature on hospital admissions for diarrhoeal
328 diseases in Peruvian children. *The Lancet*, *355*(9202), 442-450. doi: 10.1016/S0140-
329 6736(00)82010-3.
- 330 Cook County Department of Public Health. (2013). Ten Leading Causes of Death Tables 2008.
331 Oak Forest, IL: Community Epidemiology and Health Planning Unit.
- 332 Doran, P. T., & Zimmerman, M. K. (2009), Examining the scientific consensus on climate
333 change. *Eos, Transactions American Geophysical Union*, *90*(3), 22-23. doi:
334 10.1029/2009EO030002.
- 335 Ebi, K. L., & Paulson, J. A. (2007). Climate change and children. *Pediatric Clinics of North*
336 *America*, *54*(2), 213-226.
- 337 Fouillet, A., Rey, G., Wagner, V., Laaidi, K., Empereur-Bissonnet, P., Le Tertre, A., Frayssinet,
338 P., Laurent, F., De Crouy-Chanel, P., Jouglu, E. And Hémon, D. (2008), Has the impact of heat
339 waves on mortality changed in France since the European heat wave of summer 2003? A study

340 of the 2006 heat wave. *International Journal of Epidemiology*, 37(2), 309-317.
341 doi:10.1093/ije/dym253.

342 Golden, J. S., Hartz, D., Brazel, A., Lubert, G., & Phelan, P. (2008), A biometeorology study of
343 climate and heat-related morbidity in Phoenix from 2001 to 2006. *International Journal of*
344 *Biometeorology*, 52(6), 471-480. doi: 10.1007/s00484-007-0142-3.

345 Hales S., Kovats S., Lloyd S., Campbell-Lendru D. Eds. (2014), Quantitative Risk Assessment
346 of the Effects of Climate Change on Selected Causes of Death, 2030s and 2050s. (2014).
347 Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization; 2014:1–128.
348 <https://www.who.int/globalchange/publications/quantitative-risk-assessment/en/>.

349 Hashizume, M., Armstrong, B., Hajat, S., Wagatsuma, Y., Faruque, A. S., Hayashi, T., & Sack,
350 D. A. (2007), Association between climate variability and hospital visits for non-cholera
351 diarrhoea in Bangladesh: effects and vulnerable groups. *International Journal of Epidemiology*,
352 36(5), 1030-1037. doi: 10.1093/ije/dym148.

353 Hastie, T. J. (2017), Generalized additive models. In *Statistical models in S* (pp. 249-307).
354 Routledge.

355 Honda, Y., Kondo, M., McGregor, G., Kim, H., Guo, Y. L., Hijioka, Y., Yoshikawa, M., Oka,
356 K., Takano, S. Hales, S. & Kovats, R. S. (2014), Heat-related mortality risk model for climate
357 change impact projection. *Environmental Health and Preventive Medicine*, 19(1), 56-63.
358 doi:10.1007/s12199-013-0354-6.

359 Huang W., Kan, H., and Kovats, S. (2010), The impact of the 2003 heat wave on mortality in
360 Shanghai, China. *Science of Total Environment*. 408, 2418—2420. doi:
361 10.1016/j.scitotenv.2010.02.009.

362 Knowlton, K., Rotkin-Ellman, M., King, G., Margolis, H. G., Smith, D., Solomon, G., Trent, R.
363 & English, P. (2009), The 2006 California heat wave: impacts on hospitalizations and emergency
364 department visits. *Environmental Health Perspectives*, 117(1), 61-67. doi: 10.1289/ehp.11594.

365 Kysely J. & Kim J., (2009), Mortality during heat waves in South Korea, 1991-2005: how
366 exceptional was the 1994 heat wave? *Climate Research*, 38, 105-116. doi.org/10.3354/cr00775.

367 Lam, L. T. (2007), The association between climatic factors and childhood illnesses presented to
368 hospital emergency among young children. *International Journal of Environmental Health*
369 *Research*, 17(1), 1-8. doi: 10.1080/0960312060112426.

370 Li S., Baker P. J., Jalaludin B. B., Guo Y., Marks, G. B. Denison, L. S., and Williams, G. M.
371 (2014), Are children's asthmatic symptoms related to ambient temperature? A panel study in
372 Australia. *Environmental Research*, 133; 239-245. doi:10.1016/j.envres.2014.05.032.

373 Nastos, P. T., Paliatatos, A. G., Papadopoulos, M., Bakoula, C., & Priftis, K. N. (2008), The
374 effect of weather variability on pediatric asthma admissions in Athens, Greece. *Journal of*
375 *Asthma*, 45(1), 59-65. doi: 10.1080/02770900701815818.

376 Nitschke M., Tucker, G. R. Hansen, A. L., Williams, S., Zhang, Y. and Bi. P., (2011), Impact of
377 two recent extreme heat episodes on morbidity and mortality in Adelaide, South Australia: a case
378 series analysis. *Environmental Health*, 10, 42. doi:10.1186/1476-069X-10-42.

379 O'Lenick C. R., Winkvist A., Chang H. H., Kramer M. R., Mulholland J.A., Grundstein A., &
380 Sarnat S. E. (2017), Evaluation of individual and area-level factors as modifiers of the

381 association between warm-season temperature and pediatric asthma morbidity in Atlanta, GA.
382 *Environmental Research*, 156, 132-144. doi.org/10.1016/j.envres.2017.03.021.

383 Oreskes, N. (2004). The scientific consensus on climate change. *Science*, 306(5702), 1686-1686.
384 doi: 10.1125/science.1103618.

385 Panagiotakos, D. B., Chrysohoou, C., Pitsavos, C., Nastos, P., Anadiotis, A., Tentolouris, C., &
386 Paliatsos, A. (2004), Climatological variations in daily hospital admissions for acute coronary
387 syndromes. *International Journal of Cardiology*, 94(2-3), 229-233. doi:
388 10.1016/j.ijcard.2003.04.050.

389 Schwartz, J. (1996), Air pollution and hospital admissions for respiratory disease. *Epidemiology*,
390 20-28. doi: 10.1097/00001648-199601000-00005.

391 Semenza, J. C., McCullough, J. E., Flanders, W. D., McGeehin, M. A., & Lumpkin, J. R. (1999),
392 Excess hospital admissions during the July 1995 heat wave in Chicago. *American Journal of*
393 *Preventive Medicine*, 16(4), 269-277. doi: 10.1016/s0749-3797(99)00025-2.

394 Shea, K. M. (2007), Global climate change and children's health. *Pediatrics*, 120(5), e1359-
395 e1367.

396 Sheffield, P. E., & Landrigan, P. J. (2010), Global climate change and children's health: threats
397 and strategies for prevention. *Environmental Health Perspectives*, 119(3), 291-298. doi:
398 10.1289/ehp.1002233.

399 Sheffield, P. E., Knowlton, K., Carr, J. L., & Kinney, P. L. (2011). Modeling of regional climate
400 change effects on ground-level ozone and childhood asthma. *American Journal of Preventive*
401 *Medicine*, 41(3), 251-257. Doi: 10.1016/j.amepre.2011.04.017.

402 Smith, M. R., & Myers, S. S. (2018), Impact of anthropogenic CO2 emissions on global human
403 nutrition. *Nature Climate Change*, 8(9), 834. doi: 10.1038/s41558-018-0253-3.

404 Springmann, M., Mason-D'Croz, D., Robinson, S., Wiebe, K., Godfray, H. C. J., Rayner, M., &
405 Scarborough, P. (2017), Mitigation potential and global health impacts from emissions pricing of
406 food commodities. *Nature Climate Change*, 7(1), 69. doi: 10.1038/nclimate3155.

407 United States Department of Commerce (2019). *US Census Bureau*. Accessed from:
408 <https://www.census.gov/quickfacts/fact/table/cookcountyillinois/PST120218>

409 Vitousek, P. M., Mooney, H. A., Lubchenco, J., & Melillo, J. M. (1997), Human domination of
410 Earth's ecosystems. *Science*, 277(5325), 494-499. doi: 10.1126/science.277.5325.494.

411 Winqvist, A., Grundstein, A., Chang, H. H., Hess, J., and Sarnat, S. E. (2016), Warm season
412 temperatures and emergency department visits in Atlanta, Georgia. *Environmental Research*,
413 147, 314-323. doi:10.1016/j.envres.2016.02.022.

414 Wood, S. N. (2011), Fast stable restricted maximum likelihood and marginal likelihood
415 estimation of semiparametric generalized linear models. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society*
416 *(B)*, 73(1), 3-36. ISBN 1369-7412/11/73003.

417 Wood, S. (2017). *Generalized Additive Models: An Introduction with R*, 2nd edition. Chapman
418 and Hall/CRC. doi: 10.18637/jss.v086.b01.

419 Xu, Z., Sheffield, P. E., Su, H., Wang, X., Bi, Y., & Tong, S. (2014), The impact of heat waves
420 on children's health: a systematic review. *International Journal of Biometeorology*, 58(2), 239-
421 247. doi: 10.1007/s00484-013-0655-x.

422 Yé Y., Louis, V. R., Simboro, S., & Sauerborn, R. (2007), Effect of Meteorological factors on
423 clinical malaria risk among children: An assessment using village-based meteorological stations
424 and community based parasitological survey. *BMC Public Health*, 7-101. doi: 10.1186/1471-
425 2458-7-101.

426

427

428

429 **Table 1. Predicting Total and High-Risk Emergency Department (ED) Encounters and**
 430 **Pediatric Intensive Care Unit (PICU) Admissions from Time and Temperature**

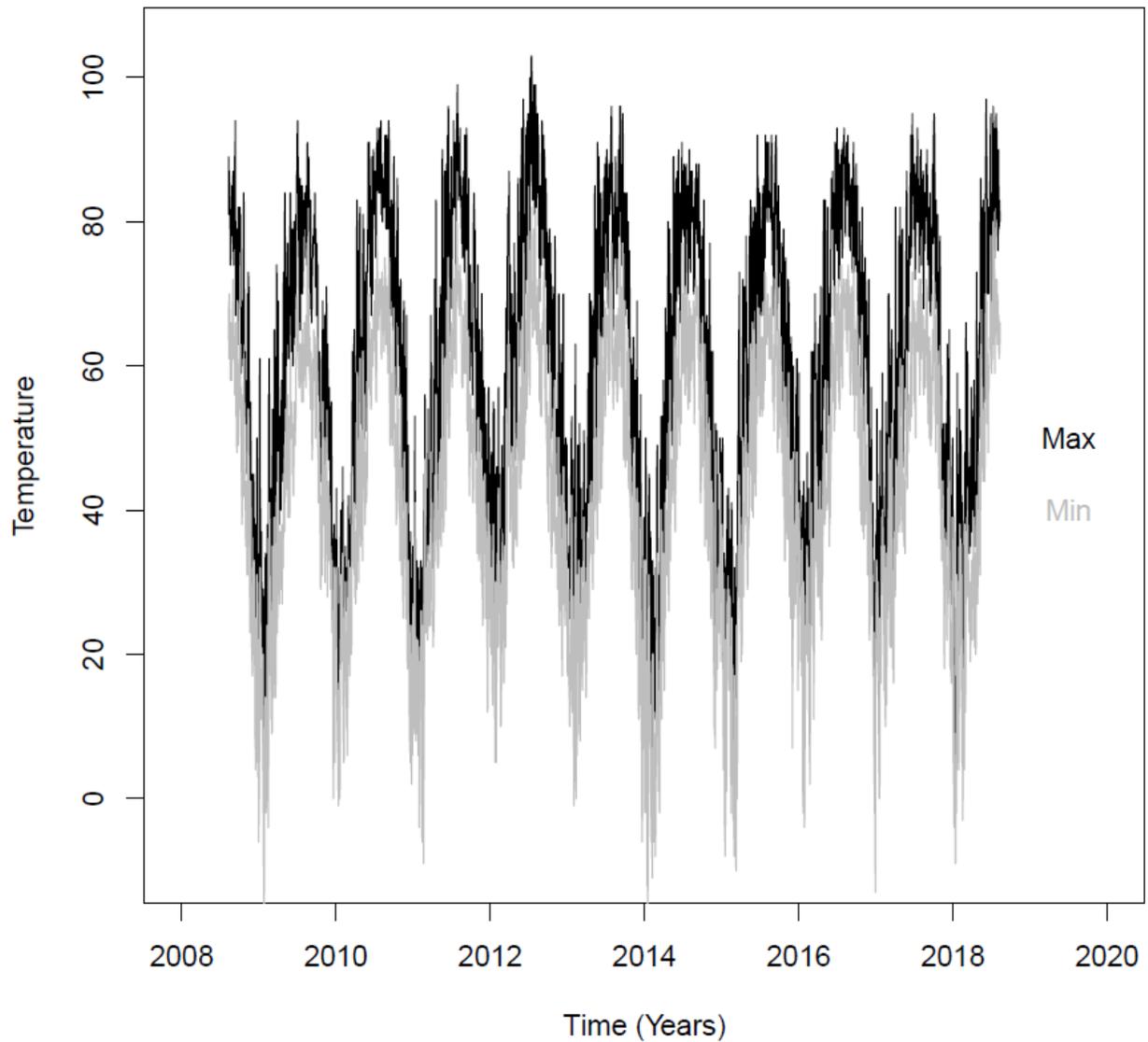
431

Outcome	Predictor	Estimate	S.E.	<i>p</i>	<i>pR</i> ²
Total ED	Intercept	174.268	0.955	<0.001	
	Temperature	-0.406	0.024	<0.001	0.069
	Time	-3.684	0.172	<0.001	0.107
High-Risk ED	Intercept	6.016	0.089	<0.001	
	Temperature	-0.026	0.002	<0.001	0.036
	Time	-0.122	0.016	<0.001	0.016
Total PICU	Intercept	5.08	0.080	<0.001	
	Temperature	-0.012	0.002	<0.001	0.019
	Time	-0.040	0.014	0.005	0.025
High-Risk PICU	Intercept	1.047	0.048	<0.001	
	Temperature	-0.010	0.001	<0.001	0.010
	Time	0.083	0.009	<0.001	0.002

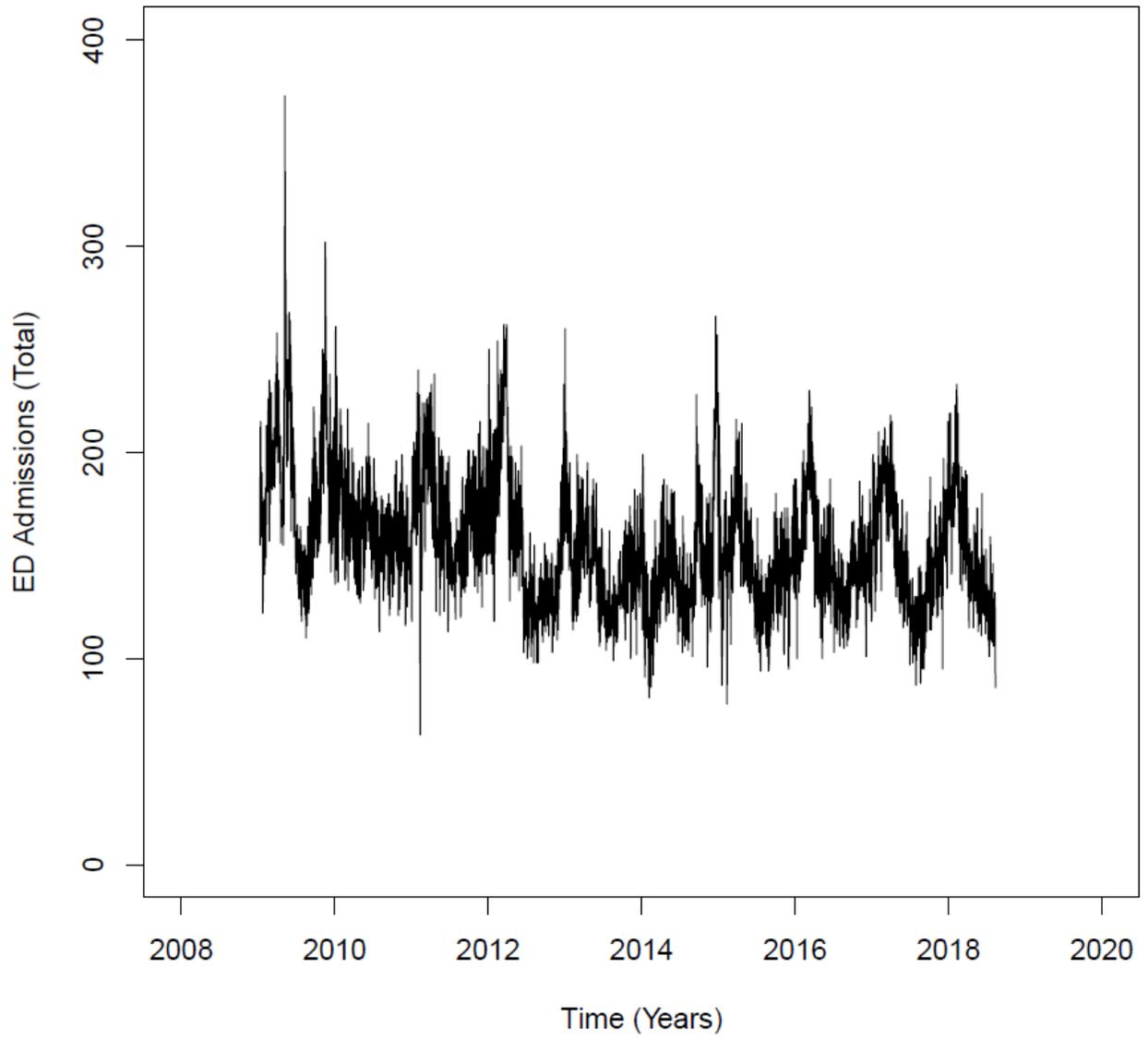
432

433 *Note.* Regression results for four models where time and temperature predict ED encounters and
 434 PICU admissions. Time is calculated as years since January 1, 2008, while temperature is in
 435 degrees Fahrenheit (centered at 50). Partial R² values indicate the proportion of variance in the
 436 admission type explained by each predictor.

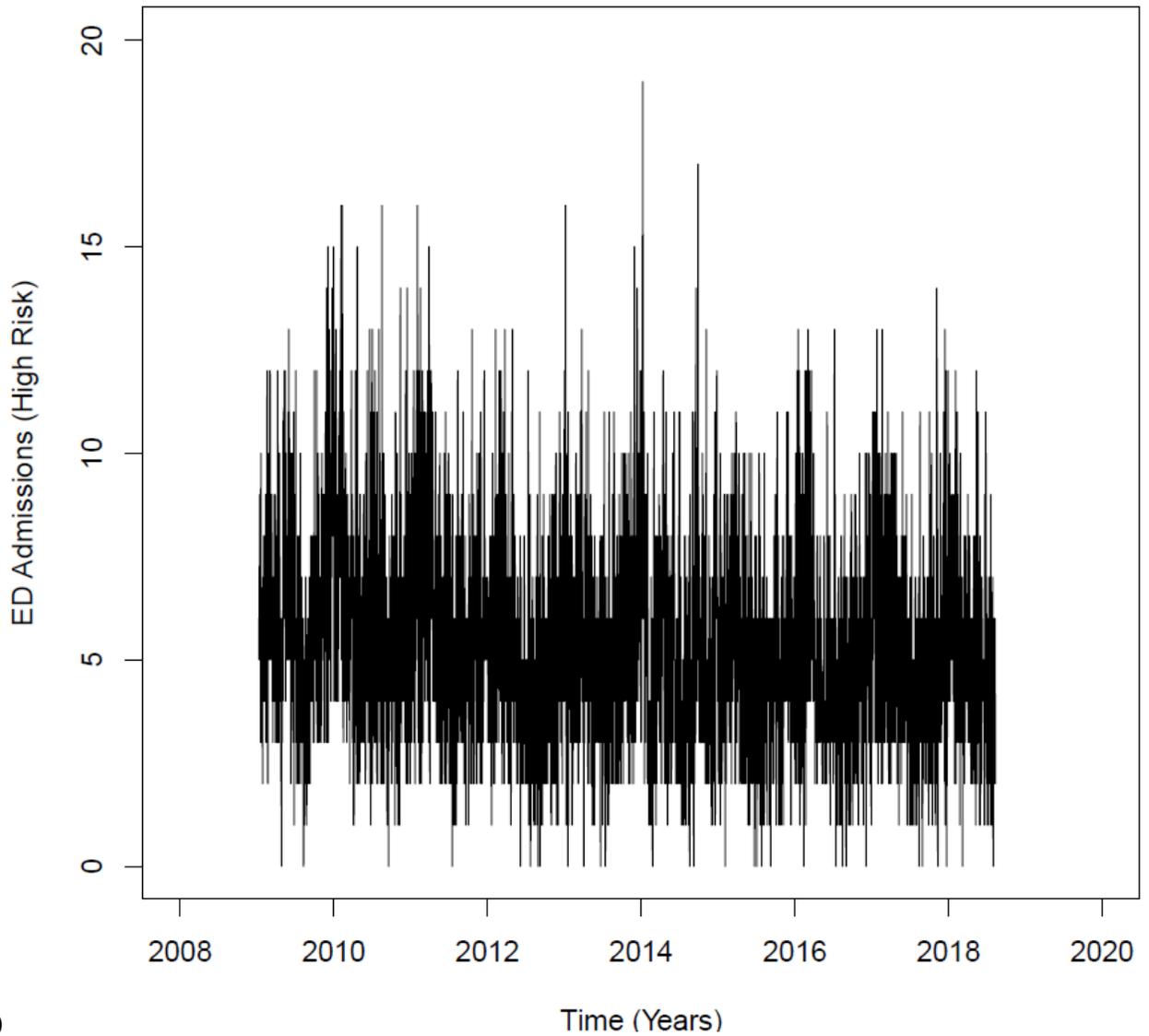
437 **Figure Legends**



438
439 **Figure 1.** Change in daily environmental temperature over time. Vertical axis shows the
440 maximum (black) and minimum (grey) temperature for each day in degrees Fahrenheit.
441 Horizontal axis shows time in days from January 1, 2009 to August 1, 2018.

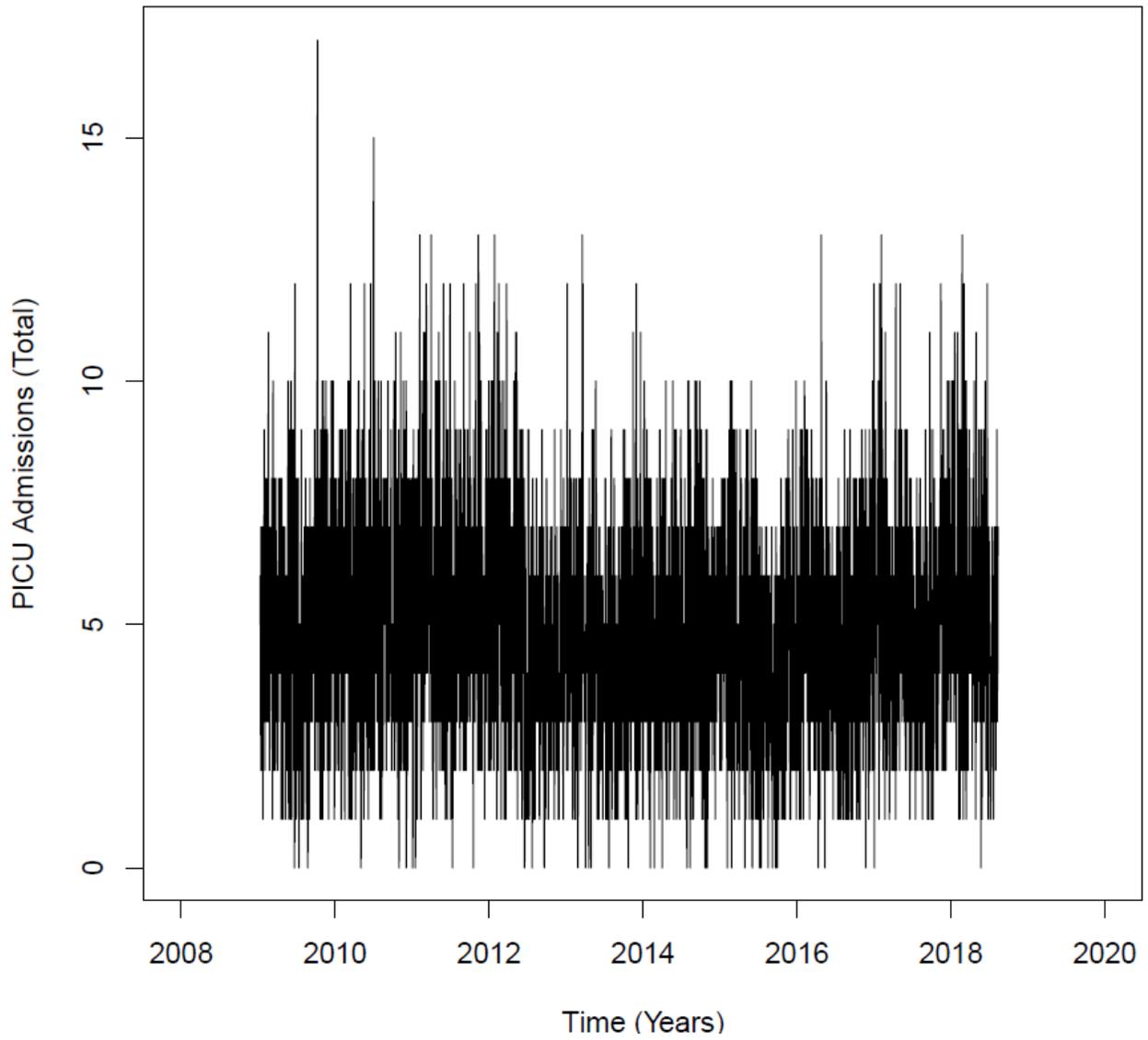


442 (a.)



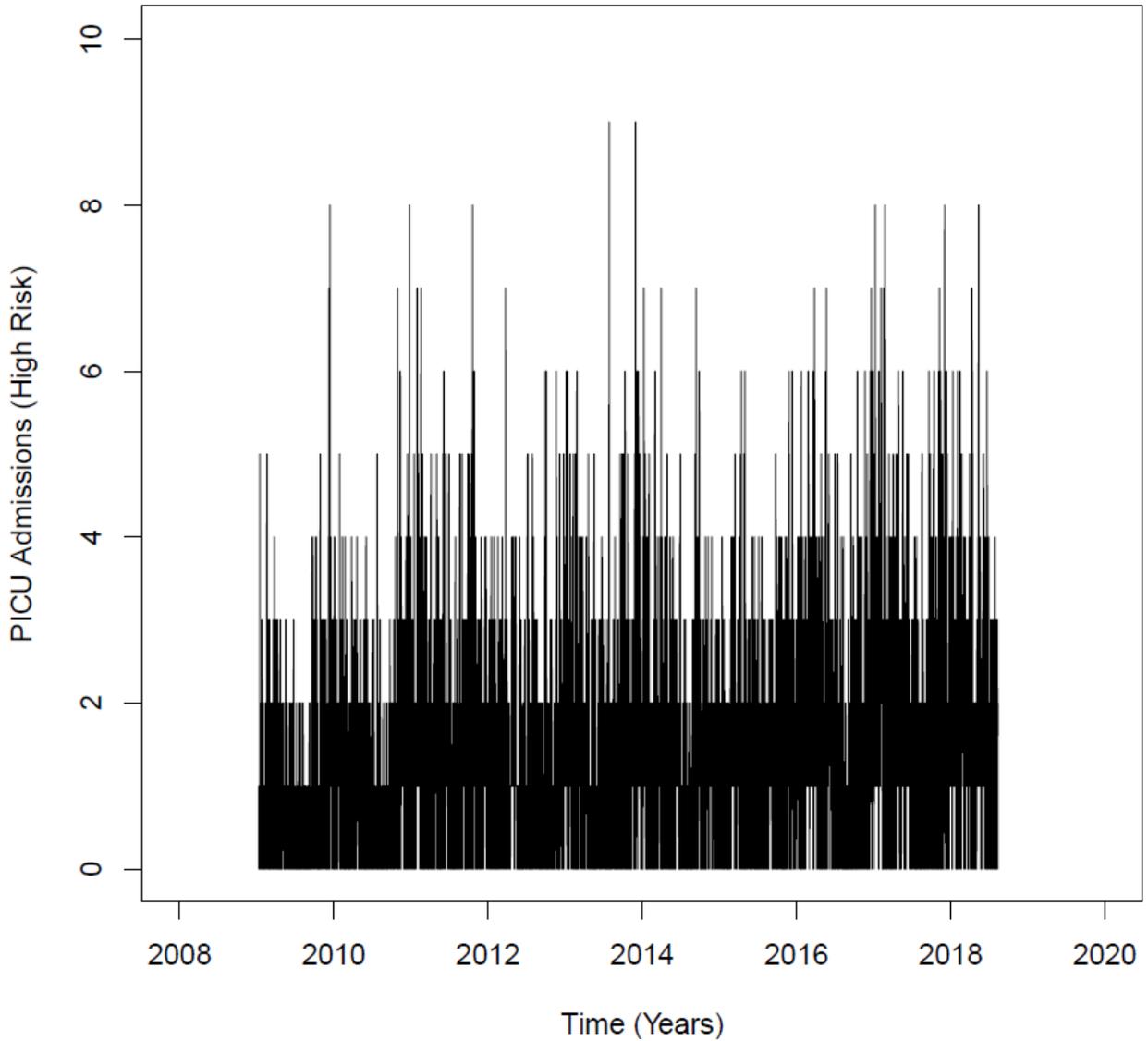
443 (b.)
 444 **Figure 2.** Changes in total (Figure 2a) and high risk (Figure 2b) emergency department (ED)
 445 encounters over time. Vertical axis shows the number of ED encounters for each day. Horizontal
 446 axis shows time in days from January 1, 2009 to August 1, 2018.

447 (a.)



448

449 (b.)



450
451 **Figure 3.** Change in total (Figure 3a) and high risk (Figure 3b) pediatric intensive care unit
452 (PICU) admissions over time. Vertical axis shows the number of PICU admissions for each day.
453 Horizontal axis shows time in days from January 1, 2009 to August 1, 2018.
454