

Effect of chemical contaminants on brain development and mental health of preschool and school-age children: a review

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Abstract: Chemical contamination refers to the presence of chemicals in places where they should not be found, including the workplace, home, food and environment. It can also refer to chemicals that are present at higher concentrations than usual or at concentrations that are considered to be hazardous to human health. The aim of the present study is to review recent research related to the effects of the main inorganic and organic chemical contaminants on brain development and mental health of preschool and school-age children. In addition, possible ways of preventing and reducing chemical contamination in schools are suggested. The results of recent findings showed that the exposure of children to chemical contaminants was associated with structural changes in the developing human brain in regions that affect working memory, attention and executive function. Intelligent quotient deficits, motor and learning problems, autism spectrum and attention deficit hyperactivity disorders were observed in children exposed to various chemical contaminants. Furthermore, other studies showed that toxic environmental exposure was related to the appearance of antisocial and violent behaviour as well as other psychological issues. Therefore, it can be concluded that chemical contaminants may affect the cognitive function and the mental health of preschool and school-age children.

Keywords: chemical contaminants; neurotoxic substances; brain development; mental health, cognitive development, preschool and school-age children

Introduction

Chemical contamination refers to the presence of chemicals in places where they should not be normally found, including the workplace, home, food and the environment. It may also refer to chemicals present at higher concentrations than usual or at concentrations that are considered to be hazardous to human health.

Chemical contamination is one of the most important problems in developed countries as well as in developing countries. Several chemical contaminants have been classified as known neurotoxic substances and it is estimated that there are thousands of potential neurotoxic substances that have not been yet studied. These substances are associated with mental health

and developmental disorders of the brain. As children are more vulnerable to chemical contamination, there is an increased risk of developing neuropsychological disorders.

Children have a higher degree of exposure to toxic chemicals compared to adults since they have a higher metabolic rate and consequently higher consumption of food, water and air per kilogram of body weight. Also, the metabolism of children is immature making them less capable of breaking down and eliminating toxic substances than adults (Rauh & Margolis, 2016). Not to mention that children have longer life spans to develop chronic diseases than adults. Additionally, the behavior of children is different from that of adults, which leads to different routes of exposure. For example, children play usually on the ground where they can be exposed to various chemicals that exist on the ground, on the floor and in the dust. Their tendency to place various objects or toys in their mouth and to touch dangerous chemicals increases their exposure and poses a direct threat to their health and safety. Moreover, children are often unable to read warning labels on products and as a result they are at higher risk than adults (European Commission, 2017).

The adverse effects of children's exposure to chemical contaminants are related to the entire neurodevelopmental spectrum including mental disorders, motor and learning disabilities, autism spectrum disorder (ASD), attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) as well as subtler disorders such as slightly reduced Intelligent Quotient (IQ) or attention problems. Furthermore, it has been found that the manifestation of antisocial and violent behavior in school-age children is often related to their exposure to certain neurotoxic chemicals in their early stages of development (Liu et al., 2014; Gump et al., 2017; Furlong et al., 2014).

1. Types of chemical contaminants

There are two types of chemical contaminants:

- Inorganic chemical contaminants, such as heavy metals (e.g. lead (Pb), mercury (Hg), manganese (Mn), arsenic (As), nickel (Ni), copper (Cu), thallium (Tl), cadmium (Cd)), nitrate and nitrite ions (NO_3^- and NO_2^- respectively), ozone (O_3), nitrogen oxides (NO_x), carbon monoxide (CO), carbon dioxide (CO_2), sulfur dioxide (SO_2) and others.
- Organic chemical contaminants, such as organic solvents, hydrocarbons, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), bisphenol A (BPA) and other phenols, pesticides, polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs), polychlorinated dibenzodioxins (PCDDs), polychlorinated dibenzofurans (PCDFs), polybrominated diphenyl ethers (PBDEs), perfluoroalkyl substances (PFASs) and phthalates.

Many of the above organic contaminants are characterized as persistent organic pollutants (POPs). These compounds were banned decades ago, but they can still be detected in the environment at relatively high concentrations due to their previous high production volume and long half-time. Half-time is defined as the time required for the reduction of the chemical contaminant concentration to the half.

Some of the above inorganic contaminants (e.g. various oxides) and organic (e.g. organic solvents and hydrocarbons) constitute the atmospheric contaminants. Particulate matter (PM) is a general term used to classify atmospheric contaminants and refers to the sum of solid and liquid particles suspended in the air. These particles result from anthropogenic activities as well as natural sources. Industrial facilities, power stations, vehicles, incinerators, dust and fires are the main sources of PM (Morabet,2018).

2. Inorganic chemical contaminants (Heavy metals)

The potential damage of children's exposure to heavy metals has been the focus of research for many years. The adverse effects of increased lead (Pb) concentration have been extensively studied in the area of cognitive function. Although there is no known level of lead exposure that is considered to be safe for children, the US Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) has set a reference value of 5 µg/dL for blood Pb level.

Cognitive deficits associated with lead exposure are considered to be irreversible (Mazumdar et al., 2011). The effects of various metals such as Pb, arsenic (As), chromium (Cr), manganese (Mn) and iron (Fe) on the cognitive function of children aged 6-12 years were studied in Brazil (Nascimento et al., 2015). The Raven's Colored Progressive Matrices (RCPM) test was used for the assessment of the cognitive ability. A decreased IQ was observed for children of rural areas compared to urban areas, whereas cognitive deficits were mainly related to children's exposure to Mn and Fe. These results indicate the importance of monitoring the concentration of metals that are considered to be essential, especially iron, as they can cause adverse effects in children when they exceed normal levels.

Cadmium (Cd) is also considered to be a toxic metal. One study investigated the relationship between the exposure to Cd and the neuropsychological development in 6-9-year-old children (Rodríguez-Barranco et al., 2014). The neuropsychological development was assessed with the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children-Fourth Edition (WISC-IV) and with three automated tests from the Behavioral Assessment and Research System (BARS): Reaction Time Test (RTT), Continuous Performance Test (CPT) and Selective Attention Test (SAT). It was observed that doubling the urinary cadmium levels was associated with a two-point decrease in IQ in boys. The results of this study indicate the neurotoxic effect of postnatal exposure to low Cd levels in children. Concurrently, these results advocate the assumption that there are differences between sexes regarding the neurotoxic effects in children.

Methylmercury (CH₃Hg or MeHg) is one of the most toxic forms of mercury and is found in certain seafood, which is also a major source of nutrition for certain populations such as the Inuit. Initially, a study of the behavioral function of 110 Canadian Inuit children aged 5 years was conducted (Plusquellec et al., 2010). A modified version of the Bayley Scales for Infant Development II was used to assess children's behavior. The findings of the study showed that childhood exposure to Pb was associated with increased impulsivity, irritability and inattention. Subsequently, during monitoring of the same population, high levels of MeHg and

Pb were measured in children aged 11 years in average that presented a decreased IQ (Jacobsonetal., 2015). Furthermore, a correlation between high levels of Hg and Pb with a higher incidence of behavior that is consistent with ADHD was reported (Boucheretal., 2012). ADHD is a brain disorder and is characterized by a variety of impairments including difficulty of the child to maintain attention or to focus on a particular task as well as impulsivity, hyperactivity, lethargic behavior or a combination. Furthermore, it was observed that postnatal exposure of the same population of Canadian Inuit children to chemical contaminants mainly affected their fine motor skills indicating that children remain vulnerable to toxic contaminants for years after birth (Boucheretal., 2016).

Postnatal exposure of children aged 5-12 years to Pb may be associated with a higher risk of clinically diagnosed ADHD even at low levels (Kim et al., 2013). Another ADHD-related study was carried out on 240 children aged 3-7 years living in Guiyu, an internationally known e-waste recycling town in China (Liu et al., 2014). The main finding of the study was that the exposure to heavy metals was related to behavioral problems, including ADHD as well as antisocial behavior.

ASD is a neurodevelopmental disorder that is constantly increasing nowadays. Environmental factors associated with ASD usually appear as combinations of multiple chemical contaminants making it difficult to discern the effect of a particular contaminant (Rauh & Margolis, 2016). In a study of children with ASD the autism group showed higher levels of several toxic metals including Pb in red blood cells (41%) and urine (74%) compared to the control group (Adams et al., 2013).

The association between exposure to Pb and Hg and behavioral and psychological problems such as hostility, destructive behavior, emotion regulation and autistic behavior has recently been studied (Gump et al., 2017). Children exhibited higher levels of hostility as well as anti-inflammatory and provocative behavior with increasing levels of Pb. In addition, children appeared more unhappy and uncertain about their emotions and they displayed communication problems. These significant correlations were found in blood Pb levels ranging from 0.19 to 3.25 $\mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$, i.e. lower than the reference value of 5 $\mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$. This was the first study to show a correlation between very low levels of Pb exposure and psychological mechanisms of fundamental importance that could elucidate more convoluted issues such as delinquency.

The majority of the studies concerning the adverse effects of As have been conducted in the developing countries where water is pumped from wells. In Bangladesh, a linear decrease of 1-3 points in verbal IQ test as well as in full scale IQ test score was reported for every 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{L}$ increase in urine As in girls, but not boys, aged 5 years (Hamadanietal., 2011). Additional evidence comes from another study in the same area in children aged 8-11 years (Wassermanetal., 2011). The results of this study showed that an increase of one unit (1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{L}$) in the level of blood As was associated with a statistically significant decrease of 1.49 points in verbal IQ test and decreases in full scale IQ test score, in working memory, perceptual reasoning and processing speed. Furthermore, blood As levels in 304 children aged 8-11 years

were negatively associated with motor function, body coordination and fine motor control (Parvezetal., 2011). A lower performance of children in cognitive tests was also observed. Conversely, a reduction in As concentration was associated with an improvement of working memory in 10-year-old children (Wasserman et al., 2016).

3. Organic chemical contaminants

3.1. Pesticides

Organophosphates are organic synthetic phosphorus compounds which are widely used in agriculture. Organophosphate pesticides are considered to be neurotoxic at high doses. The primary role of organophosphates at these doses is the inhibition of acetylcholinesterase, which leads to the accumulation of acetylcholine between nerves and muscles (neuromuscular synapses). The exposure to these pesticides is measured by the presence of dialkyl phosphate (DAP) metabolites (Eskenazi et al., 2014). The chemical structure of DAP is illustrated in Fig. 1. The two main factors that are likely to influence the sensitivity to the adverse effects of these pesticides are genes and age at the time of exposure. The enzyme paraoxonase 1 (PON1) plays a significant role in the detoxification and removal of several oxon derivatives of these pesticides, preventing thus the inhibition of acetylcholinesterase (Eskenazi et al., 2014). Specifically, individuals with a particular PON1 genotype appear to be less susceptible to the effects of organophosphate pesticides (Huen et al., 2010).

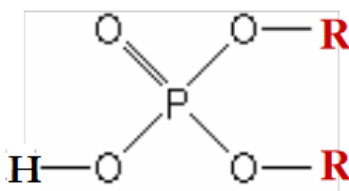


Figure 1. Chemical structure of dialkyl phosphate (R=alkyl group)

Exposure to organophosphate pesticides has adverse effects on children's cognitive function and behavior (Furlong et al., 2014). It was found that exposure of 7-year-old children to organophosphate pesticides, as measured by DAP metabolite levels, was negatively related to cognitive ability (IQ) and attention (Bouchard et al., 2011). In addition, children aged 6-11 years who had been postnatally exposed to organophosphate pesticides showed reduced IQ, verbal comprehension and processing speed scores (González-Alzaga et al., 2015). These effects were more noticeable in boys compared to girls. Another study examined the effect of PON1 modification on neurodevelopment upon exposure to organophosphate pesticides (Engelet al., 2011). According to the results of this study, increased levels of DAP metabolites in children aged 6-9 years were associated with decreased full-scale IQ test score and perceptual reasoning. However, this effect was observed only in children whose mothers had a specific genotype of the enzyme PON1. Additional evidence comes from a study of 5- and 7-year-old

children (Eskenazi et al., 2014). The above studies indicate that the PON1 genotype and levels may be directly related to the neurodevelopment and the academic performance of school-age children when exposed to organophosphate pesticides.

As mentioned above, exposure to organophosphate pesticides can adversely affect children's behavior. Prenatal exposure of 5-year-old Latino children was related to ADHD-like behavior (Marksetal., 2010). Another study investigated the relationship between prenatal exposure to organophosphate pesticides and antisocial behavior in childhood, as measured by the social responsiveness scale (SRS) (Furlong et al., 2014). The results demonstrated that prenatal exposure of 7-9-year-old children to organophosphate pesticides was associated with lower scores in SRS. These differences were most prominent in black boys, perhaps due to the different sources of exposures of the two races as well as the increased environmental sensitivity of the boys.

Chlorpyrifos (O,O-diethyl-O-(3,5,6-trichloro-2-pyridyl)phosphorothioate) is a widely used organophosphate insecticide (Fig. 2). The prenatal exposure of children aged 11 years in average to this specific insecticide caused hand tremor, indicating the effect of the insecticide on the central nervous system function (Rauhetal., 2015).

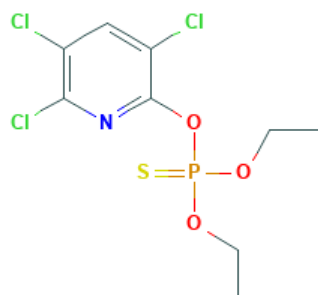


Figure 2. Chemical structure of chlorpyrifos

Chloropicrin, metam sodium, 1,3 dichloropropene (Fig. 3) and methyl bromide (CH₃Br) are common fungicides mainly used to reduce soil pathogens and pests before the planting of crops.

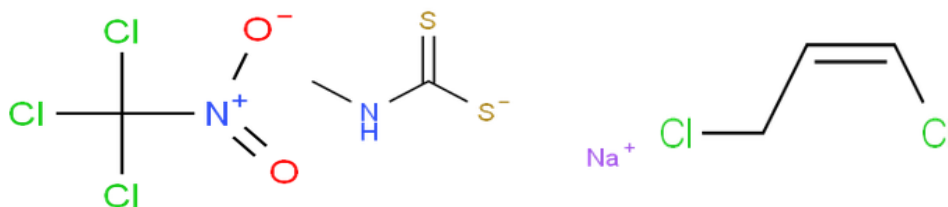


Figure 3. Chemical structures of chloropicrin, metam sodium and 1,3 dichloropropene respectively

The relationship between home proximity to the use of the above fungicides and the neurodevelopment of 7-year-old children was investigated (Gunier et al., 2017a). The use of fungicides was estimated within 3, 5 and 8 km from the families' homes during pregnancy and up to 7 years after birth. Reductions of 2.6 and 2.4 in the full-scale IQ test score were

recorded for each 10-fold increase in the use of methyl bromide and chloropicrin within 8 km from the children's homes respectively. A previous study of the same group indicated associations between children's IQ test scores and prenatal use of organophosphate insecticides within 1 km from the family's homes during pregnancy (Gunier et al., 2017b). Similar results were reported in the same study with other potentially neurotoxic pesticides such as carbamates, neonicotinoids, pyrethroids and maneb. Furthermore, children were at higher risk of developing ASD with use of organophosphate pesticides within 1.5 km from their home during the prenatal period (Shelton et al., 2014).

3.2. Polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) - polychlorinated dibenzodioxins (PCDDs) and polychlorinated dibenzofurans (PCDFs)

Polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) (Fig.4) are a group of aromatic chlorinated hydrocarbons comprising over 200 members. PCBs are stable compounds that are highly resistant to breakdown processes. Their industrial applications were several such as e.g. in hydraulic fluids, inks, lubricants and heat transfer fluids. The production and use of PCBs was banned in the early 1980s due to their toxicity. However, they can still be detected in the environment as they are considered to be POPs.

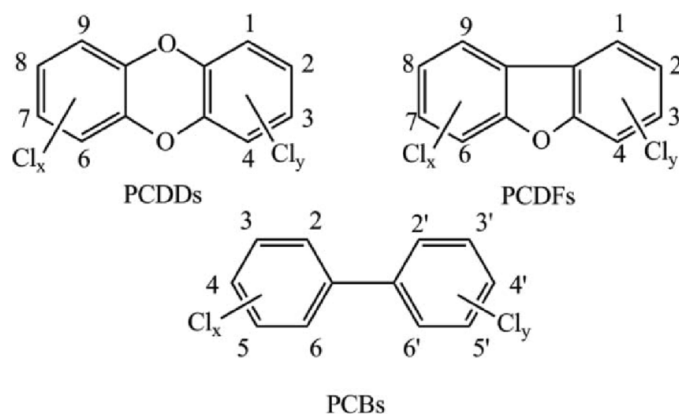


Figure 4. Chemical structures of PCDDs, PCDFs and PCBs (x,y=1-4)

The term "dioxins" covers a group of 75 chemically similar polychlorinated dibenzo-p-dioxins (PCDDs) and 135 polychlorinated dibenzofurans (PCDFs) (Fig. 4). Dioxins are formed during combustion processes and as by-products of industrial processes. They are highly resistant to biodegradation processes and are considered to be highly toxic to humans.

The reaction time of 8-9-year-old children from Slovakia after their exposure to PCBs was investigated (Šovčíková et al., 2015). The results showed that exposure of children to PCBs was associated with prolonged reaction time, suggesting impaired cognitive functions. Postnatal exposure of Canadian Inuit children aged 11 years in average to PCBs caused a fine motor delay (Boucher et al., 2016). This study reinforces the view that chronic exposure to seafood chemical contaminants affects fine motor skills (Boucher et al., 2016). Prenatal exposure of 7-11-year-old children to PCBs was also related to ADHD-like behavior (Sagiv et al., 2010). The

Conners' Rating Scale for teachers (CRS-T) was used for the evaluation. According to the results, a higher risk of ADHD-like behavior was observed in children with higher PCBs levels. The impact of exposure of children aged 8.5 and 9.5 in average to PCBs, PCDDs and PCDFs on attention-related performance and behavior was examined in Germany (Neugebauer et al., 2015). An increase in prenatal concentrations of the above chemicals was significantly associated with an increase of omission errors of 42% for PCBs and 47% for PCDDs and PCDFs. This was the first study to examine the impact of PCBs, PCDDs and PCDFs on the attention performance of school-age children and the results showed a possible link between prenatal exposure of children to the above chemical contaminants and ADHD.

One of the herbicides sprayed in Vietnam during US military operations between 1961 and 1971 was Agent Orange which contained 2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzo-p-dioxin (TCDD). This dioxin is considered to be the most toxic of the PCDDs group. The effect of postnatal dioxin exposure of 5 year-old children on the neurodevelopment including motor coordination and cognitive function was investigated in dioxin-contaminated areas of Vietnam (Tran et al., 2016). The results indicated a significant effect of dioxins on the neurodevelopment of children, especially in boys. In addition, it was found that high exposure to PCDDs and PCDFs in combination with high exposure to TCDD may increase autistic traits associated with developmental coordination disorder, especially in boys. The findings of this study suggest that boys are more vulnerable to dioxin toxicity than girls. It seems that maternal exposure to dioxins may affect the fetal testosterone levels which play a major role in autistic traits during childhood (Tran et al., 2016).

3.3. Polybrominated diphenylethers (PBDEs)

Polybrominated diphenyl ethers (PBDEs) (Fig. 5) are a group of organic compounds used as flame retardants with a wide range of applications. PBDEs are POPs with lipophilic properties that accumulate in adipose tissues and exhibit toxicity.

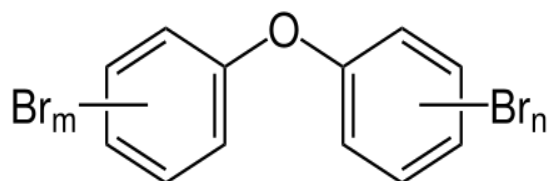


Figure 5. Chemical structure of PBDEs (m,n=1-5)

In a US study, exposure of 5- and 7-year-old children to PBDEs was associated with ADHD and reduced fine motor coordination (Eskenazi et al., 2013). Furthermore, in 7-year-olds attention problems and decreases in processing speed, perceptual reasoning, verbal and full-scale IQ were reported. Similarly, prenatal concentrations of PBDEs were found to be negatively correlated with reading ability and full-scale IQ and positively correlated to externalizing behavioral problems in 8-year-old children (Zhan et al., 2017). Prenatal exposure of 5-year-old children to PBDEs was also associated with lower IQ and a higher level of

hyperactivity (Chenet al., 2014). Similar results were observed in 8-year-old children (Vuonget al., 2017). Postnatal exposure of these children was found to be associated with lower full-scale IQ, increased hyperactivity and aggressive behavior. Prenatal exposure of children aged 3-7 years to PBDEs was related to attention problems as well (Cowellet al., 2015). This was the first study to address the impact of PBDEs involving preschool and school-age children.

Executive function plays a critical role in the child's behavior and is rarely studied in relation to potential neurotoxic substances. Recently, it was reported that prenatal exposure of children aged 5 and 8 years to PBDEs may be associated with reduced executive function (Vuonget al., 2016).

3.4. Bisphenol A (BPA)

Bisphenol A (BPA) (Fig. 6) is widely used in the manufacture of plastics and epoxy resins. BPA is a well-known component of durable polycarbonate plastics used in a variety of everyday objects such as CDs, DVDs, computers, etc. BPA is considered to have toxic impact on human health.

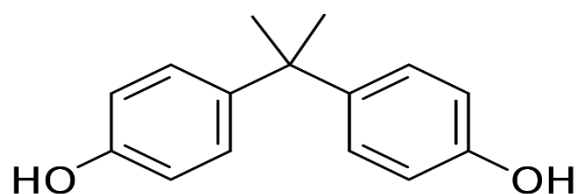


Figure 6. Chemical structure of BPA

The exposure of children aged 7 and 9 years to BPA was found to be related to behavioral problems including anxiety, depression and hyperactivity, mainly in boys (Harleyet al., 2013). Similar results were reported in another study of the effects of BPA exposure in children aged 7-9 years (Roenet al., 2015) as well as in children aged 10-12 years (Pereraet al., 2016). The prenatal exposure of children to BPA was associated with more anxiety and depression symptoms, mainly in boys. Furthermore, exposure of children aged 9-11 years to BPA influenced their behavior, as children with elevated BPA concentrations had more physical complaints, thinking problems and greater social problems (Perez-Lobatoet al., 2016). It was also reported that children's exposure to BPA was related to ADHD, with effects being more prominent in boys than girls (Tewaret al., 2016).

The results of the above studies indicate that exposure to BPA may affect children's behavior differently depending on gender and exposure time. The different effects observed in the behavior of boys and girls may be due to estrogenic effects or other sex hormone disruption mechanisms resulting from the exposure of the child's thyroid parameters to BPA (Ghassabian&Trasande, 2018).

3.5. Perfluoroalkyl substances (PFASs)

Perfluoroalkyl substances (PFASs) are a group of chemical compounds widely used as water and fat repellents, in clothing, in detergents, in materials that come in contact with foods, in cosmetics and in other consumer products (Lau 2012). PFASs are neurotoxic compounds. Perfluorooctane sulfonic acid (PFOS) (Fig. 7) is the most known compound of the group.

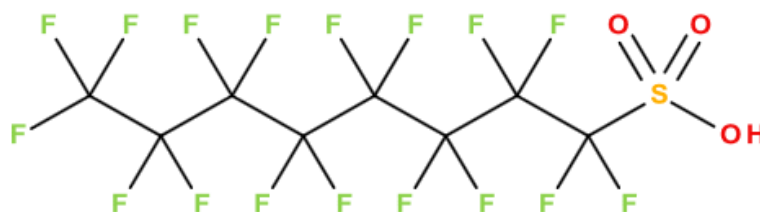


Figure 7. Chemical structure of PFOS

Prenatal exposure of children aged 5-9 years to PFASs had moderate effect on the neurodevelopment with regard to the manifestation of hyperactive behavior (Høyeretal., 2015). In another study in Asia, it was reported that prenatal exposure of 7-year-old children to PFASs was related to ADHD (Lien et al., 2016). High prenatal PFASs concentrations were associated with behavioral problems in Danish children aged 5 and 7 years (Oulhote et al., 2016). Furthermore, prenatal exposure of children 5 and 8 years to PFASs may be related to reduced executive function (Vuongetal., 2016).

3.6. Phthalates

Phthalates (Fig. 8) are a group of chemical compounds widely used as plasticizers. The latter ones are substances added to plastics to increase their flexibility. Phthalates are employed in a variety of commercial products such as children's toys, food packaging, medical equipment, furniture and cosmetics.

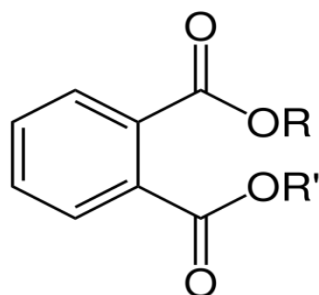


Figure 8. Chemical structure of phthalates (R and R' are general substituents)

A study in Taiwan showed that prenatal exposure of 8-year-old children to phthalates was associated to externalizing problems, such as delinquent and aggressive behaviours (Lienetal., 2015). Another study also conducted in Taiwan showed that higher postnatal levels of

phthalates were associated with lower IQ scores in children aged 2-12 years (Huangetal., 2015). These results indicate that continuous exposure to phthalates can adversely affect children's cognitive development.

3.7. Atmospheric contaminants

Air pollution is a major environmental problem worldwide and a suspected neurotoxicant. It has been proven that high exposure of school-age children to atmospheric contaminants is associated with slower brain maturation and it adversely affects brain function (Pujoletal., 2016).

In Spain, children aged 7-10 years attending schools built on highly contaminated areas exhibited lower cognitive development than the ones attending schools built on low contaminated areas (Sunyeretal., 2015). Atmospheric contamination at school was also associated with fluctuations in attention (Sunyeretal., 2017). In addition, exposure of school-age children to fine particulate matter (PM) with a diameter of 2.5 µm or less (PM_{2.5}) and elemental carbon (EC) during walking to school was negatively associated with working memory (Alvarez-Pedrerol et al., 2017). It was reported that exposure of school-age children to traffic-related air pollutants adversely affected children's cognitive development (Fornsetal., 2016). The children were monitored for one year and it appeared that working memory and attention in particular were adversely affected. Finally, the same team monitored the levels of traffic-related air pollutants in relation to children's academic performance over a period of 3.5 years (Fornsetal., 2017). The results showed a continuous negative correlation between the levels of traffic-related air pollutants and the children's cognitive development indicating how harmful atmospheric contamination in schools is.

4. Prevention and reduction of chemical contamination in schools

In general, the air quality in schools plays an important role in the development of the children's brains. Specific measures should be taken by governments, teachers and parents in order to prevent and reduce chemical contamination in schools. Initially, awareness should be raised within as well as outside the school community about the impact of chemical contamination on children's health and on public health overall. In the context of this awareness, workshops on chemical contamination could be organized by school principals, teachers and the Parents and Guardians Association. Various specialists (e.g. medical practitioners, chemists) should be involved in these workshops to inform teachers, parents and students about the perils associated with toxic contaminants. Furthermore, they should inform the school community about possible ways to prevent and reduce chemical contamination in schools and at home.

The state should take measures to reduce traffic on the roads surrounding the schools and promote the use of public transport to school. It should also create a greener environment

through plantation of trees and plants in the schoolyards. A regular replacement of the sand in school playgrounds is also crucial in order to reduce the accumulation of chemical contaminants and other pathogenic microorganisms (Rivas et al., 2018). In addition, another important measure would be to enhance students' environmental education and information on the recycling of materials and also on the management of chemicals in the school environment. For this reason, recycling bins should be placed in every schoolyard. In addition, many commercially available toys have been found to be toxic (Becker et al., 2010). It is the state's duty to remove any toxic toys from the school premises and to inform the parents. Another high priority of the local regulatory authorities is the surveillance of the drinking water quality and the maintenance of the pipes in schools as well as the monitoring of the quality of food and drinks served by the school canteens.

As already mentioned, exposure of school-age children to traffic-related air pollutants has been shown to depend on walking distance to school (Alvarez-Pedrerol et al., 2017). Therefore, future schools should preferably be built away from busy streets. Regular ventilation should take place to improve the air quality in the classrooms. In areas of high atmospheric contamination, a ventilation system with filtered air may be used in the classrooms, whereas in areas of high ozone concentrations, if mechanical ventilation is used, it is highly recommended that ozone traps are installed in the system (Rivas et al., 2018). Furthermore, the classrooms and the entire school area should be cleaned after school hours and the cleaning staff is advised to use environmentally friendly cleaning products. Finally, construction materials, paints and furniture used for the construction or for the renovation of school buildings should be carefully selected in order to avoid high exposure of children to volatile organic compounds (Rivas et al., 2018).

Perhaps, all of the above ways of preventing and reducing chemical contamination in schools may not be enough to solve such a serious problem. Nevertheless, they constitute a good starting point to ensure that the children's quality of life is improved.

5. Conclusions

Chemical contamination is considered to be one of the most important problems worldwide. At global level, children are exposed daily to numerous chemical contaminants, many of which are neurotoxic substances that adversely affect their brain development and mental health. The objective of this review was to identify and access recent scientific literature related to the effects of the main inorganic and organic chemical contaminants on brain development and mental health of preschool and school-age children. The results reported by the studies covered in this review showed that the exposure of preschool and school-age children to chemical contaminants was associated with structural changes in the developing human brain in regions that affect working memory, attention and executive function. IQ deficits, motor and learning problems, autism spectrum and attention deficit hyperactivity disorders were observed in children exposed to various chemical contaminants. Furthermore,

other studies indicated that toxic environmental exposure was associated with the manifestation of antisocial and violent behavior as well as other psychological issues. Consequently, it can be deduced that exposure of preschool and school-age children to various chemical contaminants may affect their cognitive function and mental health. However, further research is required to study the exposure of children to combinations of different chemical contaminants and to clarify the mechanisms related to other factors such as sex.

Finally, specific measures could be implemented by the state and the individuals in order to prevent and reduce chemical contamination in schools. However, most of all, it is imperative for us to realize that every child has an inalienable right to a healthy and safe living environment.

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