Check for updates

DOI: 10.1002/1348-9585.12056

REVIEW ARTICLE

Accepted: 29 March 2019



Occupational exposure to inhaled nanoparticles: Are young workers being left in the dust?

Halshka Graczyk^{1,2} | Michael Riediker^{1,3}

¹Institute for Work and Health, University of Lausanne, Epalinges-Lausanne, Switzerland

²Public Health Service, Cantonal Medical Office, Lausanne, Switzerland

³Swiss Centre for Occupational and Environmental Health (SCOEH), Winterthur, Switzerland

Correspondence

Michael Riediker, Swiss Centre for Occupational and Environmental Health (SCOEH), Binzhofstrasse 87, 8404 Winterthur, Switzerland. Email: michael.riediker@alumni.ethz.ch

Funding information

Swiss National Science Foundation, Grant/ Award Number: 406440_131282

Abstract

Objectives: Occupational exposure to inhaled nanoparticles (NPs) represents a significant concern for worker health. Adolescent workers may face unique risks for exposure and resulting health effects when compared with adult workers.

Methods: This manuscript discusses key differences in risks for occupational exposures to inhaled NPs and resulting health effects between young workers and adult workers via an examination of both physiological and occupational setting factors.

Results: Previous studies document how adolescents often face distinct and unique exposure scenarios to occupational hazards when compared to adults. Moreover, they also face different and unpredictable health effects because biological functions such as detoxification pathways and neurological mechanisms are still developing well into late adolescence. Early exposure also increases the chances of developing long-latency disease earlier in life.

Taken together, adolescents' rapid growth and development encompasses highly dynamic and complex processes. An aggravating factor is that these processes do not necessarily fall in line with legal classifications of adulthood, nor with occupational exposure limits created for adult workers.

Conclusions: The differences in exposures and health consequences from NPs on young workers are insufficiently understood. Research is needed to better understand what adolescent-specific mitigation strategies may be most suitable to address these risk factors.

KEYWORDS

adolescent, airborne particles, inhaled exposure, vulnerable workers

1 | INTRODUCTION

Worldwide more than 37 million adolescents between 15 and 17 years of age are engaged in hazardous work—defined as work in an unhealthy environment which may result in exposures to hazardous substances, agents, or processes that are damaging to health. Adolescents exposed to hazards at the

workplace can become ill or can be injured—even fatally—if safety and health standards and working arrangements are not correctly defined and implemented. Furthermore, many of the health problems resulting from unhealthy working conditions during adolescence may not develop until adulthood.

For centuries, workers have been exposed to incidental ultra fine particles (UFPs; diameter <100 nm) in trades such

This is an open access article under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial License, which permits use, distribution and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited and is not used for commercial purposes.

© 2019 The Authors. Journal of Occupational Health published by John Wiley & Sons Australia, Ltd on behalf of The Japan Society for Occupational Health

J Occup Health. 2019;61:333–338. wileyonlinelibrary.com/journal/joh2

as welding, brazing, and mining among others. For more than a decade, epidemiological studies have demonstrated an association between exposure to increased concentrations of fine and UFPs and adverse health effects, namely pulmonary and cardiovascular morbidity.^{2,3} Particles in the nano-range are of particular concern as they may translocate and be transported by mechanisms such as macrophage-mediated clearance, 4,5 interstitial-lymphatic clearance⁶ and the blood circulation to distant sites and organs.⁷⁻⁹ Recently, the increase in the production and application of engineered nanomaterials (ENMs) has raised concern about occupational exposures and resulting health effects. Workers exposed repeatedly to high levels of either engineered or incidental nanoparticles (NPs) are at particular risk. 10 While research on occupational exposure to ENMs has gained increased attention, there has been a lack of focused research efforts on young workers specifically, who may be at particular risk for exposure to, and for health effects following exposures. This situation has left thousands of young workers unprotected and ill prepared for novel exposure scenarios, begging the question: are young workers being left in the dust?

2 | DISCUSSION

Workplace exposures to inhaled particles are of considerable concern due to their association with occupational lung diseases, as well as a wide range of non-respiratory illnesses. Young workers represent a vulnerable population due to their heightened potential for hazardous exposures or damage to physiological development. Occupational safety and health (OSH) for youth faces many challenges not found for adults. Among these challenges are the inadequacy of personal protective equipment, prolonged latency following exposure, ongoing organ development, and biological maturation.

2.1 | Differences between adolescent and adult workers

Two main concepts must be distinguished: first, the time windows for exposure are longer for adolescents. By being exposed early in life, the total work time exposure will be longer and also the life expectancy will be longer, which increases the chance for the manifestation of delayed outcomes. Second, unique developmental differences may render adolescent workers more vulnerable to exposures, and may additionally increase their risk for adverse health effects. ^{12,13} Adolescents are not simply small workers: they often face distinct and unique exposure scenarios to occupational hazards when compared to adults and may also face different and unpredictable resulting health effects, as biological functions such as detoxification pathways and neurological mechanisms are still developing into late adolescence and beyond. ¹³

2.2 | Physiological factors

2.2.1 | Lung development

The post-natal period is one of rapid pulmonary development with the proliferation of more than 40 different cell types and the development of more than 80% of alveoli. ¹⁴ More than 25 000 terminal bronchi develop, giving rise to more than 300 million alveoli. This intense process of lung proliferation is not complete until late adolescence, ^{14,15} and most indices of pulmonary function reach their maximum levels in early adulthood. ¹⁶ The continuum of lung development results in discrete windows of vulnerability, during which hazardous exposures may have the potential to affect the growth and function of the respiratory system. ^{14,17} Respiratory vulnerability and adverse health effects resulting from inhaled exposures have been demonstrated in children exposed to second hand smoke ¹³ and ambient air pollution. ¹⁸⁻²⁰

2.2.2 | Inhaled dose

Even in similar workplace exposure scenarios, developmental differences of the pulmonary system between the adult and young worker may result in different inhalation patterns. The characteristics of the air drawn into the lungs is greatly influenced by the morphometry of the respiratory tract, which causes numerous changes in pressure, flow rate, and direction as air moves into and out of the system. Pulmonary morphometry, in particular differences in upper respiratory tract structure and branching patterns of the lower regions are highly age-related. Such differences may result in distinct patterns of gas transport due to the effect of geometric variations on airflow patterns.

On average, adolescents breathe more air per kilogram of body weight than adults, ²² leading to an elevated whole-body dose of inhaled particles. Ginsberg et al²³ demonstrated that in the deep (alveolar air exchange) region of the lung, particle dose could be two to four-fold higher among children than adults, due to differences in ventilation rate per unit surface area (V/SA) in the deep lung region. Thus, similar exposure levels to particles may result in higher deposited dose per lung surface area in adolescent workers compared to adult workers. It should also be considered that adolescents may have narrower airways than those of adults, indicating the potential for increased airway obstruction in situations of inflammation.²⁴ Furthermore, the breathing zone of an adolescent may vary, but is likely to be lower and potentially closer to working surfaces and sources of contaminants than for an adult worker. Adolescents may therefore be more likely to be exposed to freshly released particles during work tasks.

As the nose is effective at filtering nano-sized particles by diffusive deposition,²⁵ oral versus nasal breathing represents another determinant of NP dose to the lungs. Children are

more likely to breathe through their mouths than adults²⁶ increasing their risk of pulmonary exposure to NP that would otherwise be filtered out in the nose. The size of nasal passageways also increases with age,²⁶ indicating a larger particle filter in adults when compared with adolescents. A study that compared nasal filter efficiency of particles for children and adults found the average nasal deposition percentages were lower in children than in adults, both at rest and during exercise.²⁵ Another study²⁷ determined nasal deposition efficiency (NDE) and found children to have significantly decreased NDE of particles compared to adults.

2.2.3 | Deposition and absorption

The mechanisms, the pattern and the efficiency of particle deposition in the lungs largely depend on the aerodynamic and thermodynamic diameters of the respiratory tract. Deposition occurs when particles carried to the alveoli come into proximity with the epithelial surface. Research has shown that acinar flow and mixing may be highly complex due to the intricacy of the acinar geometry, which changes during the course of lung development.²⁸ Notably, because the depth and size of alveoli increases with age, there is a difference in acinar airflow patterns between saccular airways (smooth flow with no rotational components) and airways with fully formed alveoli (largely rotational and potentially irreversible). During critical stages of lung development, it therefore can be hypothesized that a shift in acinar flow patterns may result in differences in particle deposition on the alveolar walls between young workers and their adult counterparts.

The Human Respiratory Tract Model of the International Commission of Radiological Protection (ICRP) provides particle deposition data for adults at different breathing patterns and activities. Data are given for the extrathoracic, the bronchiolar and the alveolar regions for adolescents (15 years old) and adults. However, the deposition data given for adolescents is derived solely by applying numerical scaling factors from adult data.²⁹ Taken together, it becomes clear there is a considerable lack of knowledge on the deposition rate of inhaled particles for adolescents, making it difficult to adequately predict how the deposition may differ from adult workers.

2.2.4 | Metabolism and clearance

The predominant mechanism for particle clearance from the peripheral lungs is uptake by lung surface macrophages and transport to the larynx.³⁰ Inter-species differences have been observed for particle clearance and have been attributed to the number of generations of respiratory bronchioles.³⁰ However, whether this route of uptake and subsequent clearance differs in different phases of lung development is

unclear and should be further investigated to allow for improved risk assessments of particle translocation in developing adolescents.

Pharmacokinetic handling of xenobiotics is likely to differ in adolescents compared to adults with respect to metabolism, clearance, protein binding, and volume of distribution. 31-33 Adolescents exhibit maturing metabolic detoxification pathways, which may increase the duration of residence and amount of any given internal dose. Pharmaceutical drug metabolism research has provided a body of evidence on the developmental differences for metabolic pathways and subsequent elimination between adolescents and adults.³⁴ Important metabolic pathways, such as cytochrome P450 systems and glutathione conjugation are significantly less efficient than later in life. Furthermore, maturational changes accounting for differences in the glomerular filtration rate and tubular secretions may be present between adolescents and adults.³⁵ Thus, toxic substances taken up with the particles will have a longer residence time in the body and thereby have a longer window of opportunity to cause damage and to accumulate to higher internal levels if the exposure is sufficiently long or repetitive.

2.2.5 | Neuro-cognitive factors

In addition to physiologic vulnerability, adolescents may also face a higher risk due to neuro-cognitive factors. Adolescents seem to be more affected than adults by exciting or stressful situations when making decisions. ³⁶ Compared with adults who have reached full cognitive maturation, adolescents may be more likely to make unreasonable and potentially dangerous decisions due to these described "risk-taking" behaviors when faced with fast-paced, exciting or stressful situations in the workplace.

2.3 | Occupational settings factors

2.3.1 | Personal protective equipment

The special risks faced by young workers is not only limited to their developing physiologies, but also to external, occupationally relevant factors. Most important is the use and efficiency of personal protective equipment (PPE) at the workplace, notably respiratory protective devices (RPDs). PPE, including RPDs, are designed to meet the needs and physical specifications of adult workers' faces and respiration patterns, not those of adolescents. While filter respirators for smaller faces do exist, their existence is not widely known and many companies do not have them in stock. Regular sized RPDs may not fit properly and increase the chances for leaks due to improper face-to-face piece seal, this is the reason why authorities such as the US Food and Drug Administration warn the public that respirators are not effective to protect children against diseases transmitted by

aerosols.³⁷ RPDs that do not fit properly may increase the chance for leaks due to improper face-to-face piece seal.^{38,39}

2.3.2 | Lack of experience

Young workers often have little control over the pace of work and may be less informed about the occupational risks compared to their adult peers. As young workers often are employed on a limited, part-time basis, employers may be less willing to dedicate time and resources to comprehensive OSH training. Young workers employed on temporary contracts are less likely to participate in long-term competence development, have less control over the pace of work and may be less informed about the occupational risks present. Moreover, young workers will face limited bargaining power with employers when it comes to negotiating adverse workplace situations, and lack the mechanisms for widely voicing their concerns. These issues are not unique to young workers but are likely more pronounced due to elevated risk-taking behaviors.

3 | CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

While OSH research on adult workers has provided evidence toward the development of prevention strategies for many hazardous exposures, such research does not take into account the developmental differences of adolescents and their vulnerability during critical windows of growth and maturation. Existing OSH guidelines for adults fail to recognize that adolescents may face greater risk for acute and long-term harm from inhaled occupational exposures. As such, it is important that targeted OSH research is developed for this unique worker population.

Dose remains a critical concept in toxicology. In nanotoxicology, effective calculations of dosimetry and the biologically effective dose have proven elusive. Tissue burdens, including mass balance toxicokinetics, are necessary to properly characterize particles, especially the dose of translocated NPs that reach beyond the portal of entry and what mechanism and consequences result from this dose. However, the unique timing of exposure to inhaled NPs during adolescence remains a parameter that may be overlooked. This is especially important to consider given the limited knowledge on NP biokinetics within the developing lung in regard to maturation of the alveolar microvasculature and phases of late alveolarization. For young workers exposed to airborne NP, it may be the "dose and the timing" that effectively makes the poison. It is well known that children are susceptible to the adverse developmental effects of toxins. 40 It is equally clear that adolescents and young adults are susceptible to adverse effects of toxins, 41 as organ development continues in the lung⁴² and the brain.⁴³

To address this issue of windows of vulnerability, the first step is to develop more precise computational tools that allow the calculation of inhaled NP dose to advise risk assessment at all ages where exposure may occur. The ICRP's Human Respiratory Tract Model is limited in calculating inhaled particle dose as the deposition data given for adolescents is derived by applying numerical scaling factors from adult data. It is recommended that research be carried out to develop and validate more precise particle dosimetry models for adolescent exposure scenarios. Secondly, special consideration of adolescent physiology should be applied for the implementation of regulatory guidelines for occupational exposure limits.

To achieve this, targeted research studies must be designed that assess the interaction of developmental characteristics of adolescents to risks in the workplace. Specifically, the implementation of longitudinal studies is recommended to assess the potential chronic health effects related to occupational NP exposures in young workers. Tailored longitudinal studies would provide clarity of temporal sequences between exposure and adverse health effects, allow calculation of incidence of adverse health effects, and facilitate the study of specific occupational particle exposures, such as in welding or in mining.

Finally, OSH training needs to be adapted to the psychology and low-power position of adolescents in companies. 44,45 An apprenticeship-partnership model between companies, schools and governmental bodies that includes clear rules about safety and health as part of becoming a professional craftsperson may help counter many of the above-mentioned issues. In this concept, companies recognise young workers as future assets and thus are more likely to give them access to training and to include them in their long-term competence development programs.

More accurate dosimetry models that take adolescent respiratory parameters into consideration, matched with increased research into the fate and potential health effects of inhaled particles for developing youth are necessary toward the development of regulatory policies aimed at protecting the health of young workers worldwide. As young workers represent one fourth of the global working age population, ensuring adequate workplace protection measures through informed policy actions is critical for their long-term health, safety, and productivity. In turn, protecting the future productivity of adolescents directly impacts the economic well being of societies, enforcing the point that we simply cannot afford to leave young workers in the dust.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was in part supported by the Swiss National Science Foundation, NRP 64 Project, Grant No. 406440_131282 to M.R. for doctoral research funding of H.G.

DISCLOSURE

Approval of the research protocol: N/A. Informed consent: N/A. Registry and registration no. of the study/trial: N/A. Animal studies: N/A. Conflict of interest: The authors declare they have no actual or potential competing financial interests.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

The authors discussed the topic together and reviewed the literature. HG drafted the first manuscript, both refined the structure and contributed to the discussion.

ORCID

Halshka Graczyk https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4642-4784
Michael Riediker https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5268-864X

REFERENCES

- International Labour Office (ILO). Global Estimates of Child Labour: Results and Trends, 2012-2016. Geneva, Switzerland: ILO;2017.https://www.ilo.org/global/publications/books/WCMS_ 575499/lang--en/index.htm.
- Riediker M. Cardiovascular effects of fine particulate matter components in highway patrol officers. *Inhal Toxicol*. 2007;19(Suppl 1):99-105. https://doi.org/10.1080/08958370701495238.
- Brook RD, Rajagopalan S, Pope CA, et al. Particulate matter airpollution and cardiovascular disease: an update to the scientific statement from the American Heart Association. *Circulation*. 2010;121(21):2331-2378. https://doi.org/10.1161/CIR.0b013e3181dbece1.
- 4. Kreyling WG. Interspecies comparison of lung clearance of "Insoluble" particles. *J Aerosol Med.* 1990;3(s1):S-93-S-110. https://doi.org/10.1089/jam.1990.3.Suppl_1.S-93.
- Kreyling WG, Semmler-Behnke M, Takenaka S, Möller W. Differences in the biokinetics of inhaled nano-versus micrometer-sized particles. *Acc Chem Res*. 2013;46(3):714-722. https://doi.org/10.1021/ar300043r.
- Semmler-Behnke M, Lipka J, Wenk A, et al. Size dependent translocation and fetal accumulation of gold nanoparticles from maternal blood in the rat. *Part Fibre Toxicol*. 2014;11(1):33. https://doi. org/10.1186/s12989-014-0033-9.
- Kreyling WG, Holzwarth U, Haberl N, et al. Quantitative biokinetics of titanium dioxide nanoparticles after intratracheal instillation in rats: Part 3. *Nanotoxicology*. 2017;11(4):454-464. https://doi.org/10.1080/17435390.2017.1306894.
- Kreyling WG, Holzwarth U, Schleh C, et al. Quantitative biokinetics of titanium dioxide nanoparticles after oral application in rats: Part 2. *Nanotoxicology*. 2017;11(4):443-453. https://doi.org/10.10 80/17435390.2017.1306893.
- Kreyling WG, Holzwarth U, Haberl N, et al. Quantitative biokinetics of titanium dioxide nanoparticles after intravenous injection in rats: Part 1. *Nanotoxicology*. 2017;11(4):434-442. https://doi.org/10. 1080/17435390.2017.1306892.

- Riediker M, Schubauer-Berigan MK, Brouwer DH, et al. A road map toward a globally harmonized approach for occupational health surveillance and epidemiology in nanomaterial workers. *J Occup Environ Med.* 2012;54(10):1214-1223. https://doi. org/10.1097/JOM.0b013e31826e27f1.
- WHO. Hazard Prevention and Control in the Work Environment: Airborne Dust. Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization (WHO): 1999. WHO/SDE/OEH/99.14.
- Moya J, Bearer CF, Etzel RA. Children's behavior and physiology and how it affects exposure to environmental contaminants. *Pediatrics*. 2004;113(4 Suppl):996-1006.
- Etzel RA. Developmental toxicity: special considerations based on age and developmental stage. In: Etzel RA, Balk SJ, eds. Pediatric Environmental Health. 2nd. Elk Grove Village, IL: American Academy of Pediatrics Committee on Environmental Health; 2004.
- Dietert RR, Etzel RA, Chen D, et al. Workshop to identify critical windows of exposure for children's health: immune and respiratory systems work group summary. *Environ Health Perspect*. 2000;108(Suppl 3):483-490. https://doi.org/10.1289/ehp.00108s3483.
- Levitzky MG. Effects of aging on the respiratory system. *Physiologist*. 1984;27(2):102-107.
- Masoro EJ. CRC Handbook of Physiology in Aging. Boca Raton, FL: CRC Press; 1981.
- 17. Selevan SG, Kimmel CA, Mendola P. Identifying critical windows of exposure for children's health. *Environ Health Perspect*. 2000;108(Suppl 3):451-455. https://doi.org/10.1289/ehp.00108s3451.
- 18. Gauderman WJ, Avol E, Gilliland F, et al. The effect of air pollution on lung development from 10 to 18 years of age. *N Engl J Med*. 2004;351(11):1057-1067. https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMoa 040610.
- Tecer LH, Alagha O, Karaca F,Tuncel G, Eldes N. Particulate matter (PM2.5, PM10-2.5, and PM10) and children's hospital admissions for asthma and respiratory diseases: a bidirectional case-crossover study. *J ToxicolEnvironHealth-PartA*.2008;71(8):512-520.https://doi.org/10. 1080/15287390801907459.
- Pieters N, Koppen G, Van Poppel M, et al. Blood pressure and same-day exposure to air pollution at school: associations with nano-sized to coarse PM in children. *Environ Health Perspect*. 2015;123(7):737-742. https://doi.org/10.1289/ehp.1408121.
- Oberdörster G, Oberdörster E, Oberdörster J. Nanotoxicology: an emerging discipline evolving from studies of ultrafine particles. *Environ Health Perspect*. 2005;113(7):823-839. https://doi.org/10.1289/ehp.7339.
- Miller MD, Marty MA, Arcus A, Brown J, Morry D, Sandy M. Differences between children and adults: implications for risk assessment at California EPA. *Int J Toxicol*. 2002;21(5):403-418. https://doi.org/10.1080/10915810290096630.
- Ginsberg G, Foos B, Dzubow RB, Firestone M. Options for incorporating children's inhaled dose into human health risk assessment. *Inhal Toxicol*. 2010;22(8):627-647. https://doi. org/10.3109/08958371003610958.
- Bar-on ME, Zanga JR. Bronchiolitis. Prim Care Clin Off Pract. 1996;23(4):805-819. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0095-4543(05) 70363-8.
- Becquemin MH, Swift DL, Bouchikhi A, Roy M, Teillac A. Particle deposition and resistance in the noses of adults and

- children. Eur Respir J. 1991;4(6):694-702. http://erj.ersjournals.com/content/4/6/694.abstract.
- Warren DW, Hairfield WM, Dalston ET. Effect of age on nasal cross-sectional area and respiratory mode in children. *Laryngoscope*. 1990;100(1):89-93. https://doi. org/10.1288/00005537-199001000-00018.
- Bennett WD, Zeman KL, Jarabek AM. Nasal contribution to breathing and fine particle deposition in children versus adults. *J Toxicol Environ Health - Part A*. 2007;71(3):227-237. https://doi. org/10.1080/15287390701598200.
- Tsuda A, Laine-Pearson FE, Hydon PE. Why chaotic mixing of particles is inevitable in the deep lung. *J Theor Biol.* 2011;286(6):57-66. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jtbi.2011.06.038.
- IRCP. Human respiratory tract model for radiological protection.
 A report of a Task Group of the International Commission on Radiological Protection. Ann ICRP. 1994;24(1-3):1-482.
- Geiser M, Kreyling WG. Deposition and biokinetics of inhaled nanoparticles. *Part Fibre Toxicol*. 2010;7(1):1-17. https://doi. org/10.1186/1743-8977-7-2.
- 31. Besunder JB, Reed MD, Blumer JL. Principles of drug biodisposition in the neonate. *Clin Pharmacokinet*. 1988;14(4):189-216. https://doi.org/10.2165/00003088-198814040-00001.
- Morselli PL. Clinical pharmacology of the perinatal period and early infancy. Clin Pharmacokinet. 1989;17(1):13-28. https://doi. org/10.2165/00003088-198900171-00004.
- Kearns GL, Reed MD. Clinical pharmacokinetics in infants and children. *Clin Pharmacokinet*. 1989;17(1):29-67. https://doi. org/10.2165/00003088-198900171-00005.
- Ginsberg G, Hattis D, Sonawane B, et al. Evaluation of child/adult pharmacokinetic differences from a database derived from the therapeutic drug literature. *Toxicol Sci.* 2002;66(2):185-200. https:// doi.org/10.1093/toxsci/66.2.185.
- 35. World Health Organization. Children Are Not Little Adults. Children's Health and the Environment: WHO Training Package for the Health Sector. Geneva, Switzerland: WHO; 2008. http://www.who.int/ceh/capacity/Children_are_not_little_adults.pdf?ua=1. Accessed November 20, 2018.
- Steinberg L. Risk taking in adolescence. Curr Dir Psychol Sci. 2007;16(2):55-59. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8721.2007. 00475.x.
- United States Food and Drug Administration. Masks and N95 Respirators. 2018. http://www.fda.gov/MedicalDevices/ ProductsandMedicalProcedures/GeneralHospitalDevicesandSupplies/

- PersonalProtectiveEquipment/ucm055977.htm. Accessed November 20, 2018.
- 38. Reponen T, Lee SA, Grinshpun SA, Johnson E, Mckay R. Effect of fit testing on the protection offered by N95 filtering facepiece respirators against fine particles in a laboratory setting. *Ann Occup Hyg.* 2011;55(3):264-271. https://doi.org/10.1093/annhyg/meq085.
- Rengasamy S, Eimer BC. Total inward leakage of nanoparticles through filtering facepiece respirators. *Ann Occup Hyg.* 2011;55(3):253-263. https://doi.org/10.1093/annhyg/meq096.
- 40. Landrigan PJ, Goldman LR. Children's vulnerability to toxic chemicals: a challenge and opportunity to strengthen health and environmental policy. *Health Aff*. 2011;30(5):842-850. https://doi.org/10.1377/hlthaff.2011.0151.
- Heyer DB, Meredith RM. Environmental toxicology: sensitive periods of development and neurodevelopmental disorders. *Neurotoxicology*. 2016;58:23-41. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuro.2016.10.017.
- 42. Grad R, Morgan WJ. Long-term outcomes of early-onset wheeze and asthma. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2012;130(2):299-307. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaci.2012.05.022.
- Marco EM, Macri S, Laviola G. Critical age windows for neurodevelopmental psychiatric disorders: evidence from animal models. *Neurotox Res.* 2011;19(2):286-307. https://doi.org/10.1007/ s12640-010-9205-z.
- Laberge M, MacEachen E, Calvet B. Why are occupational health and safety training approaches not effective? Understanding young worker learning processes using an ergonomic lens. *Saf Sci*. 2014;68:250-257. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssci.2014.04.012.
- ILO. Improving the Safety and Health of Young Workers. Geneva, Switzerland: International Labour Organization; 2018. https:// www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_protect/---protrav/--safework/documents/publication/wcms_625223.pdf.

How to cite this article: Graczyk H, Riediker M. Occupational exposure to inhaled nanoparticles: Are young workers being left in the dust? *J Occup Health*. 2019;61:333–338. https://doi.org/10.1002/1348-9585.12056