

1 Article

## 2 Diesel Emissions Increase Air Pollution during the 3 Carnival Festival in Salvador, Bahia-Brazil

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### 22 List of abbreviations

23 PM: Particulate matter

24 NO<sub>2</sub>: Nitrogen dioxide

25 B50: petroleum diesel with 50% of vegetable oil

26 CO<sub>2</sub>: Carbon dioxide

27

28 **Abstract:** Atmospheric pollution arising from diesel-powered engines can result in acute and  
29 chronic diseases of the respiratory and cardiovascular systems. The annual carnival festival that  
30 takes place in the city of Salvador, Bahia-Brazil, is a large-scale event that gathers approximately  
31 2m revelers and 170,000 workers who accompany dozens of sound-trucks, or *trios elétricos*, for a  
32 period of seven days. These slow-moving sound-trucks run on diesel fuel, constantly exposing  
33 those around them to exhaust fumes. The present study aimed to evaluate air quality along the  
34 approximately 10km-long carnival parade circuit and determine possible impacts on human  
35 health. We applied a three-phase risk analysis strategy from 2007–2009: 1) hazard identification, 2)  
36 risk characterization and 3) risk management. Our quantification of atmospheric particulate matter  
37 2.5 (PM<sub>2.5</sub>) and nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>) concentrations revealed variable levels of PM<sub>2.5</sub> ranging  
38 from 19 µg/m<sup>3</sup> to 580 µg/m<sup>3</sup>, with peaks of up to 800 µg/m<sup>3</sup> at sound-truck concentration areas. We  
39 then assessed the effects of air pollution on human health using ophthalmologic parameters  
40 obtained from 28 carnival volunteers, who often presented symptoms of eye irritation. Finally, we  
41 established strategies to communicate the study's objectives and obtained results to the population  
42 through media outlets and open discussions with government agencies. According to our risk  
43 analysis, carnival sound-trucks represent the main source of atmospheric PM<sub>2.5</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> pollution  
44 during the annual 7-day carnival festival. As a consequence of our research, the municipal  
45 government of Salvador issued an addendum to its carnival legislation mandating organizers to  
46 monitor atmospheric pollution, and, subsequently, all large-scale public events. Municipal  
47 government authorities have also promoted a shift from petroleum-based diesel fuel to biodiesel, a  
48 less-polluting fuel, for all adapted carnival sound-trucks. Our approach, which employed easily  
49 accessible and inexpensive methodology, provided substantial scientific evidence to support  
50 improvements in the regulation of air quality during large-scale public events held in the city of  
51 Salvador.

52 **Keywords:** environmental health; risk communication; risk management; particulate matter; risk  
53 analysis; mass event  
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## 55 1 Introduction

56 Air pollution emitted by vehicle exhausts has been directly associated with acute and chronic  
57 diseases, affecting mainly the respiratory and cardiovascular systems [1- 5]. Among all atmospheric  
58 pollutants, particulate matter (PM) with an aerodynamic size inferior to 2.5 µm (PM<sub>2.5</sub>) is  
59 considered the most toxic contaminant encountered in urban areas [6]. One of the main sources of  
60 PM<sub>2.5</sub> is diesel-powered vehicles, which emit 100 times more particles than gasoline engines [7]

61 The carnival festival in the city of Salvador (capital of the state of Bahia, Brazil) is the largest  
62 mass-scale event of its kind in the world, involving the participation of approximately 2 million  
63 people, including 170,000 workers [8] (Figure 2). Groups of thousands of people parade along  
64 extensive carnival circuits, following dozens of sound-trucks, or *trios elétricos*, featuring famous  
65 singers and bands performing on open-roof sound-trucks. Besides these sound-trucks, additional  
66 support-trucks provide additional infrastructure, including bathrooms, restrooms and mobile food  
67 and drink stands to serve revelers. Sound- and support-trucks, in addition to electricity generators,  
68 use petroleum-based diesel as a fuel source. During the annual 7-day festival, revelers and workers  
69 are exposed to PM and toxic exhaust pollutants for more than 12 h per day. In addition, many  
70 *camarotes*, or constructed VIP viewing areas, are set up along the parade circuits; these structures or  
71 buildings are adapted to receive thousands of paying spectators who watch festivities from  
72 balconies. According to EMTURSA (the official agency responsible for festival organization),  
73 *camarotes* can contain up to four people per square meter. In Brazil, carnival has historically been a  
74 very popular festival, with a high degree of public participation. In Salvador, over the years, an  
75 increasing number of revelers and the complexity of managing festivities along the parade circuits

76 has resulted in the imposition of rigorous regulation by the local municipal government. Studies  
77 investigating the relationship between carnival revelers and government authorities have found  
78 that, while usually respectful, some conflicts do exist, especially with respect to cultural and  
79 commercial issues [9].

80 Developing countries, such as Brazil, may accumulate different types of risk, from those  
81 inherent in the technological and industrial expansion occurring in major centers, as well as those  
82 associated with basic conditions of social, cultural and environmental vulnerability. The lack of  
83 continuous monitoring of air pollutants in Brazilian metropolises remains a public health problem.  
84 In this context, the World Health Organization [10] has recommended the use of any comparable  
85 methodology, even those considered rudimentary, for the detection and quantification of  
86 atmospheric pollutants, principally in regions lacking data. The relevance of providing information  
87 regarding any indicators of pollution levels has elevated the debate among the population and  
88 government officials with regard to the risks presented to human health by air pollution [11].  
89 Consequently, public policies should include the mitigation of risks to which the population is  
90 exposed, as well as constant air-monitoring programs. Several authors have mentioned the need to  
91 apply different methods to provide scientific evidence pertaining to the actual risks presented by air  
92 pollutants with respect to human health, and then communicate this information to the public and  
93 government [11-15]. Methodological approaches that could be applied uniformly across the entire  
94 territory represent one of the greatest challenges for the Brazilian public sector [16,17].

95 The methodology of risk analysis employs different environmental health indicators to support  
96 public policy decision-making, thusly guiding risk management strategies [18]. The crucial steps for  
97 the development of risk analysis indicators are: hazard identification, the characterization of  
98 possible effects on human health and data communication. The overall risk analysis becomes more  
99 complex when environmental, climatic, social and economic conditions differ from one locality to  
100 another. Risk communication is not only a manner of communicating research findings to the  
101 community and stakeholders, but also a way to provide suitable recommendations to improve the  
102 current scenario [19]. The risk analysis approach involve scientific methods and decision-making,  
103 according to principles adopted by National Research Council [20] and Society of Risk Analysis.  
104 Risk analysis has many applications, including air pollution, climate change, traffic safety,  
105 criminality and terrorism, among others [21]. Aven and Zio [22] on the foundations of risk  
106 assessment and risk management, define risk analysis as knowledge about risk-related phenomena,  
107 processes, events, etc., as concepts, theories, frameworks, approaches, principles, methods, and  
108 models to understand, assess, characterize, communicate, and (in a wide sense) manage risk, in  
109 general and for specific applications.

110 To date, the possible health impacts of air pollution generated by diesel sound-trucks have  
111 never been evaluated in a local context. Accordingly, our study aimed to apply a 3-phase risk  
112 analysis approach in an attempt to quantify the effect of air pollution during this large-scale event as  
113 follows: 1) hazard identification, 2) risk characterization/risk assessment, and 3) risk management  
114 (including risk communication).

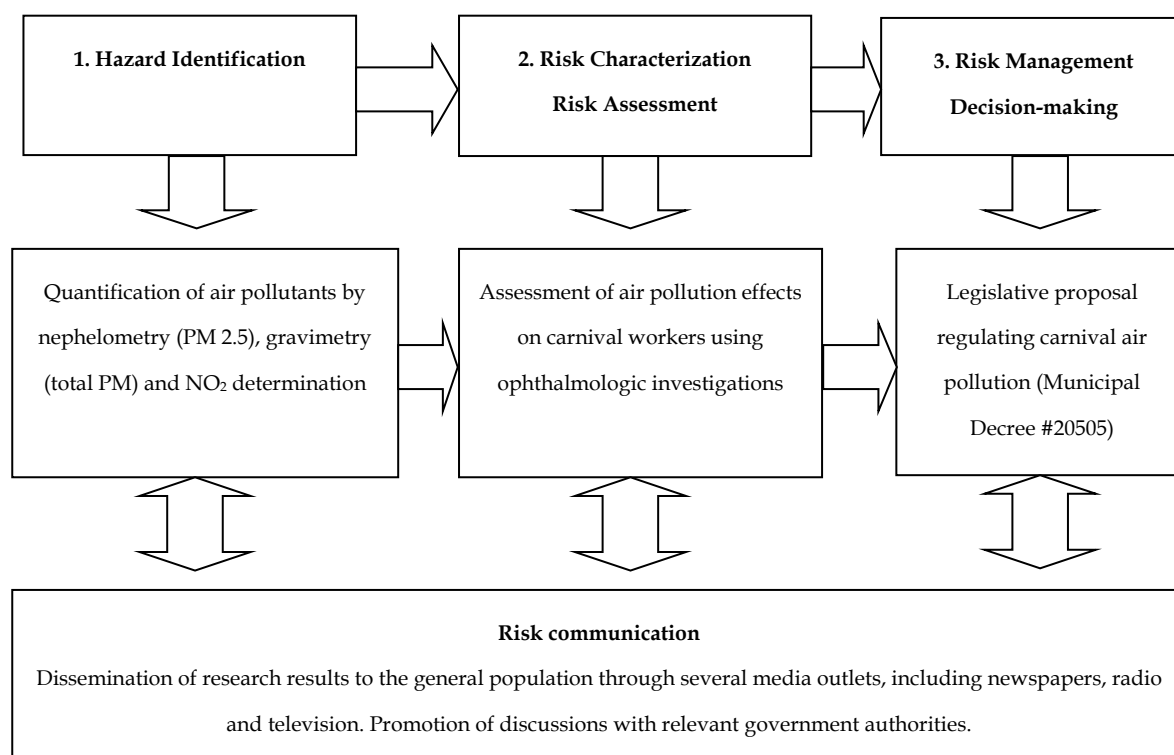


115  
116 Figure 2. Groups of thousands of people parade along extensive carnival circuits, following dozens  
117 of sound-trucks or *trios elétricos*, included vulnerable workers.  
118

## 119 2 Materials and methods

### 120 2.1 Study design

121 The present study employed a risk analysis approach separated in three phases, as illustrated  
122 below (Figure 1):



123  
124  
125 **Figure 1.** Risk analysis approach separated in three phases

### 126 2.2 Area of study

127 The city of Salvador (12°58'29"S 38°28'36"W), the capital of the state of Bahia, encompasses a  
128 metropolitan area of 693 km<sup>2</sup>, with approximately 2.9m inhabitants and a total car ownership of  
129 887,831 vehicles [24], Salvador has a tropical rainforest climate, receiving a constant breeze from the  
130 Atlantic Ocean, with average annual temperatures around 25.3°C, 80% humidity and 2,144 mm of

131 average annual rainfall. The annual carnival festival usually occurs in February, during the summer  
132 season, which has an average rainfall around 142 mm. Data collection took place from 2007-2009  
133 during the 7-day carnival periods along two parade circuits: *Dodo* (4 km-long) and *Osmar* and  
134 *Batatinha* circuit (7 km-long).  
135

### 136 2.3 Phase 1: Hazard identification

#### 137 2.3.1 Nephelometry

138 Regular vehicular traffic is blocked along the parade routes throughout the duration of the  
139 7-day carnival festival. Since vehicle exhausts are mostly responsible for generating PM<sub>2.5</sub>, carnival  
140 sound-trucks essentially represent the sole source of atmospheric PM<sub>2.5</sub> emissions. We quantified  
141 PM<sub>2.5</sub> along the carnival circuits and in *camarotes* using a DUSTTRAK 8250 portable aerosol monitor  
142 (TSI Inc, MN, USA). PM<sub>2.5</sub> atmospheric concentrations were analyzed in four situations: (1) At a  
143 control site, with no sound-trucks but surrounded by numerous revelers; (2) Alongside newer  
144 sound-trucks, with less than two years of use (N = 5); (3) Alongside older sound-trucks, 10 years or  
145 older (N = 5) and (4) At a carnival concentration area, in which dozens of sound-trucks sit idle while  
146 waiting their turn to commence. The number of revelers accompanying different musical groups  
147 that performed on the top of sound-trucks ranged from 1,000–4,000 thousand people each day.  
148 PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations were acquired for 4 h each day at similar time periods for seven consecutive  
149 days during the 2007-2009 Carnival festivals, with sampling intervals of 1 min, a flow rate of 1.7  
150 liters per minute (L/min) and a range detection of 0.001 - 100 mg/m<sup>3</sup>. The portable aerosol monitor  
151 quantified the air at various points around the sound-trucks, including next to the sound-truck itself  
152 and its site of generator exhaust, simulating the revelers' behavior during the parade.

153 The air quality of four *camarotes* (500 - 1,000 m<sup>2</sup>) with an attendance of 300 to 2,000 people per  
154 day, located along the two carnival parade circuits, was also analyzed for 4 h each day. These  
155 *camarotes* include ample balcony areas where paying spectators closely watch the parade below.  
156 PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentration was measured when sound-trucks were passing by and afterwards. In  
157 addition, we also analyzed air-conditioned indoor areas where people congregate to eat or see  
158 private shows during the festival at nighttime. Similar areas were analyzed in each of the four  
159 *camarotes*.

#### 160 2.3.2 Gravimetry

161 This simplistic technique determines the total amount of dust (or PM) deposited at a specific  
162 point during a window of time [25]. The day before the carnival festival began, ten locations  
163 distributed along the two parade circuits (five on each) were chosen for gravimetric analysis. This  
164 method consisted of fixing a clean cardboard paper with a 20 x 15 cm slot at a height of 3m on  
165 concrete utility poles. Prior to placement, each pole surface was brushed off and washed with  
166 distilled water. Following the 7-day Carnival period, the suspended dust that had accumulated on  
167 the concrete pole at each demarcated area was carefully collected using moistened clean cotton  
168 gauzes, previously weighed in the laboratory. Gauzes were dried at 60°C, weighed on an analytical  
169 scale, with results are expressed as weight differences before and after dust collection.

#### 170 2.3.3 NO<sub>2</sub> quantification

171 To measure the cumulative concentration of NO<sub>2</sub> exposure during the 7-day carnival festival,  
172 the passive method described by Novaes *et al.* [26] was used. Passive sampler devices were placed  
173 along nine sites along the parade circuits (Praça Municipal – control area, Casa de Itália, Vitória,  
174 Canela, Piedade, Farol da Barra, Praça Castro Alves, Ondina-Espanhol, Ondina-Apart) for seven  
175 days. These samplers contained a sterile cellulose filter soaked with 2% triethanolamine, 0.05%  
176 *o*-methoxyphenol and 0.025% sodium metabisulfite. The nitrite produced during sampling was

177 quantified colorimetrically, as previously described Novaes *et al.* Daily exposure levels were  
178 estimated by dividing the cumulative NO<sub>2</sub> measurement by the total number of days of exposure.

#### 179 **2.4 Phase 2: Risk characterization – exposure assessment**

180 The effects of air pollution on human health were evaluated using ophthalmologic parameters  
181 (eye symptoms and cytology of the conjunctiva), according to Novaes *et al.* [23]. As the ocular  
182 surface is directly exposed to environmental air, pollutant effects can be evaluated via clinical  
183 observations and minimally invasive laboratory techniques. Twenty-eight volunteers (sound-truck  
184 staff) were studied, all of whom were directly exposed to vehicle emissions throughout the 7-day  
185 carnival period. After signing a term of informed consent, volunteers were clinically observed and  
186 asked to report the frequency of the following eye symptoms: foreign body sensation, irritation, red  
187 eyes, dry eyes, eyestrain or tired eyes, burning sensation, photophobia, tearing, itchiness or mucus  
188 discharge.

189 Impression cytology was performed to analyze the integrity of the ocular surface epithelium  
190 and to detect the presence of goblet cells via the following procedure: a drop of topical anesthetic  
191 (tetracaine hydrochloride) was placed in each eye and left for 5 min; a sterile membrane filter  
192 measuring 15 mm in diameter (Millipore, cellulose ester, 22 µm pore) was gently pressed for 10 sec  
193 against the inferior tarsal conjunctiva; after instillation, this filter was peeled off and transferred to  
194 falcon tubes containing absolute ethanol. All tubes were then placed in Styrofoam boxes and  
195 transported to the Laboratory of Pathology of the University of São Paulo Medical School for  
196 processing and analysis. Membrane filters were rehydrated in 70% ethanol, sequentially immersed  
197 in Schiff's reagent after periodic acid, sodium metabisulfite, Gill's haematoxylin, Scott's tap water,  
198 95% ethanol and absolute ethanol. Next, xylene was applied to clarify the filters and slides were  
199 examined by light microscopy (Axioplan, Zeiss). Goblet cells were counted in 10 different fields  
200 using a 40x objective lens.

#### 201 **2.5 Phase 3: Risk management**

202 Risk communication plays a central role in the process of risk analysis. The present project  
203 schedule was previously discussed with and approved by the relevant government sectors  
204 responsible for the organization and administration of the annual carnival festival. Quantification of  
205 PM<sub>2.5</sub> within *camarotes* was previously authorized by their respective owners and operators. All  
206 carnival workers, as well as the local population, were informed regarding this air quality study in  
207 advance via press conferences and newspaper articles. The obtained results were presented to and  
208 discussed with local health and environmental agencies, the academic community and media  
209 institutions in general.

#### 210 **2.6 Statistical analysis**

211 Statistical analysis was performed using R software, version 2.3.1, and SPSS statistical software,  
212 version 15 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). A multiple linear regression model was employed to  
213 analyze data from Phase 2, in which the dependent variable was tarsal cytology, while explanatory  
214 variables consisted of mean NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations, number of days of pollutant exposure, number of  
215 hours worked per day and dry eye symptoms. Correlations between goblet cell counts and  
216 corresponding NO<sub>2</sub> exposure levels were determined using Spearman's correlation. The effect of air  
217 pollutants on goblet cell counts was also correlated by analysis of variance (ANOVA) and  
218 Bonferroni's post hoc test. The level of statistical significance was set at 5%. PM data were tabulated  
219 based on descriptive statistics (mean, median, standard deviation, minimum, maximum and  
220 quartiles).

221

222

223 **3 Results**224 **3.1 Hazard identification**225 **3.1.1 Nephelometry**

226 PM2.5 concentrations in the four different conditions varied from 19  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  (control site - no  
 227 sound-trucks) to 580  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  (concentration area of the sound-trucks) (Table 1). As expected, older  
 228 sound-trucks discharged the highest amounts of PM2.5 (210  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ) in the atmosphere compared to  
 229 newer sound-trucks (52  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ). Peaks up to 800  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  were measured at the sound-truck  
 230 concentration area, in which more than 15 sound-trucks idle prior to making their way along the  
 231 parade route.

	Control site (no sound-trucks)	Newer sound-trucks	Older sound-trucks	Sound-truck concentration area
Mean ( $\text{mg}/\text{m}^3$ )	19.1	52.4*	210*	580*
SD	2.5	9.4	69.1	134

232 **Table 1.** PM2.5 concentrations (in  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ) acquired by nephelometry generated by newer and older  
 233 sound-trucks, as well as at the control site and the concentration area. Values are expressed as means and  
 234 standard deviations. \*significant difference in comparison to control ( $p < 0.05$ ).

235  
 236 The PM2.5 quantified at *camarote* balconies and indoor air-conditioned areas is shown in Table  
 237 2. The mean PM2.5 value quantified when the sound-trucks and revelers passed in front of the  
 238 *camarotes* raised from 53 to 390  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  in the balcony areas, suggesting that this increase may be  
 239 associated with dust suspension and sound-truck exhaust. We detected a mean of 1,265  $\text{mg}/\text{m}^3$  in  
 240 air-conditioned areas inside the *camarotes*, with peaks up to 1,600  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ . The high PM2.5  
 241 concentration measured in these areas was not related to truck exhaust, but rather to fog machines.  
 242

	Balconies with no sound-trucks nearby	Balconies with sound-trucks passing by	Indoor areas
Mean ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ )	53.7	390*	1,265*
SD	15.4	180	650

243 **Table 2.** Means and SD of PM2.5 concentrations measured by nephelometry in four *camarotes*. Measures  
 244 were acquired when sound-trucks were passing in front of the balconies or not, and in indoor areas. \*  
 245 significant difference compared to controls ( $p < 0.05$ ).

246 **3.1.2 Gravimetry**

247 No significant differences were observed between the total PM deposited on the poles along the  
 248 parade circuits and those located off the circuits. However, the amount of PM that adhered on poles  
 249 located at the carnival sound-truck concentration area was significantly higher than in the other two  
 250 areas along the circuits (Table 3). Even though gravimetry is much simpler in comparison to  
 251 mechanical monitoring, for instance, total PM results were comparable with nephelometry (PM2.5).  
 252 It became clear, as demonstrated by the two PM monitoring methods used herein, that the air in the  
 253 carnival sound-truck concentration area was highly polluted with respect to PM2.5. Around 5,000  
 254 people gather in this concentration area to watch the spectacle.  
 255  
 256  
 257  
 258  
 259

	Control site (no sound-trucks)	Parade circuit sites	Sound-truck concentration area
Mean (mg)	15.5	20.9	35.6*
SD	2.3	4.6	6.7

260 **Table 3.** Concentration of total PM measured by gravimetry (in mg). \* significant difference compared to  
261 controls ( $p < 0.05$ ).

### 262 3.1.3 $\text{NO}_2$ determination

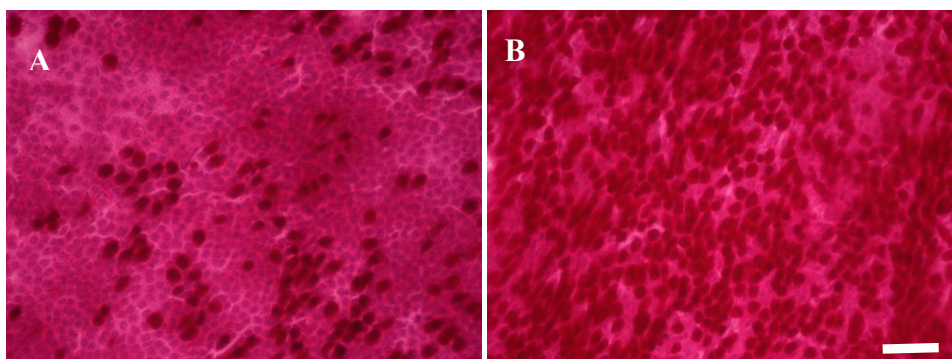
263 The cumulative concentration of  $\text{NO}_2$  varied from  $30 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  (control area with no sound-trucks)  
264 to  $79 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  (sound-truck concentration area) among the nine areas analyzed, as shown in Table 4.  
265 As expected, the control site presented the lowest  $\text{NO}_2$  concentration, while the Vitória and Casa de  
266 Itália sites had the highest concentrations, and presented the only significant differences to the  
267 control site.

Sites	Praça Municipal (control) **	Vitória	Canela	Piedade	Casa de Itália	Farol da Barra	Castro Alves	Ondina Espanhol	Ondina Apart
Day 1	30	74*	65	47	70	43	40	57	36
Day 7	31	79*	70	49	76*	45	42	61	38

268 **Table 4.** Concentration of  $\text{NO}_2$  obtained by the passive sampler method ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ) analyzed on Day 1  
269 and Day 7. \*indicates significant differences at Vitória, the carnival sound-truck concentration area  
270 site, compared to controls ( $p < 0.05$ ); \*\* Praça Municipal site is the carnival no sound truck area.

### 271 3.2 Risk characterization - Exposure assessment

272 The most frequent eye symptoms observed in carnival volunteers were: stinging sensation  
273 (64%), ocular irritation (54%) and redness (46%). Some volunteers complained about more than one  
274 eye symptom. Under linear regression analysis, a significant correlation was seen between the  
275 number of goblet cells (or PAS positive areas) and  $\text{NO}_2$  concentrations ( $p < 0.05$ ,  $R^2 = 0.33$ ), indicating  
276 that volunteer eyes were more affected in areas with higher  $\text{NO}_2$  concentrations. This was confirmed  
277 by impression cytology, with four times the number of goblet cells found in volunteers working in  
278 Vitória than those working around Praça Municipal (control site) (Fig. 1).



279

280 **Fig. 1.** Representative images of impression cytology collected from two volunteers. 1A: Cytology of  
281 a volunteer who worked in the lowest  $\text{NO}_2$  concentration area, showing  $85 \pm 12$  PAS-positive  
282 (darker) cells per field. 1B: Cytology of a volunteer who worked in the highest  $\text{NO}_2$  concentration  
283 area, presenting numerous goblets cells ( $350 \pm 58$  PAS-positive cells per field), 4x higher than the  
284 other volunteer. Scale: bar = 50 mm



285 **3.3 Risk management**

286 An important element of this study entailed risk communication. Our group held discussions  
 287 with the Salvador Environment Agency (SEMA) regarding planned actions during carnival,  
 288 including air monitoring, the clinical approach employed regarding volunteers and risk  
 289 communication to the general public. Table 5 delineates 11 reports published in different Brazilian  
 290 newspapers (mostly in the state of Bahia) regarding this project to monitor air pollution during the  
 291 7-day carnival festival. These reports, published in 2007, informed the public about possible risks  
 292 related to the PM generated by the sound-trucks with respect to the health of carnival workers and  
 293 revelers. Since our initial hypothesis was that diesel-fueled sound-trucks would increase the PM on  
 294 the parade circuit was confirmed, the following reports published in 2008 discussed the possible  
 295 influences of air pollution on human health.

296 A significant consequence of our work was modifications in legislation concerning atmospheric  
 297 pollution pertaining not only to the Salvador carnival festival, but also to other large-scale open-air  
 298 festivals. A municipal decree (decree no. 20,505; Art.12; page 9).#20,505, published on December 28,  
 299 2009, (Prefeitura Municipal de Salvador, 2009), included a term of responsibility in which SEMA  
 300 became obligated to monitor emitted air pollution levels during any mass event occurring in  
 301 Salvador.

Report title	Publication name and date
Air monitoring in Carnival	Bahia Viva, Salvador, p. 22 - 23, Apr.5, 2008.
Air pollution limits exceeded in carnival	A Tarde, Salvador, Feb. 15, 2008.
Research monitors air pollution	Correio da Bahia, Salvador, p.3, Jan. 31, 2008.
Salvador is one of the champions in respiratory diseases	Correio da Bahia, Salvador, p.4, Sep. 15, 2007.
Air is more polluted in Salvador	A Tarde, Salvador, p. 7 - 7, May 11, 2007.
Decarbonizing the Bahian carnival	Folha de São Paulo, São Paulo, Feb. 18, 2007.
Municipal Secretary of Health monitors the emission of pollutants emitted by sound-trucks during Carnival	Diário Oficial do Município, Salvador, Feb. 17, 2007.
Bromeliads will indicate if Carnival causes pollution	A Tarde, Salvador, p. 5 - 5, Feb. 14, 2007.
Air quality will be monitored	Correio da Bahia, Salvador, Feb. 14, 2007.
Biochemistry will monitor air quality during Carnival in Salvador	Tribuna da Bahia, Salvador, p.9 - 9, Feb. 14, 2007.
Carnival revelers raise dust and call the attention of specialists	ASCOM/SEMA, Salvador, Feb. 06, 2007.

302 **Table 5.** List of reports published in periodicals from 2007 to 2008. Most of these appeared in local  
 303 newspapers.

304 **4 Discussion**

305 Our study sought to collect information on air quality during a specific event, the 7-day carnival  
 306 festival that takes place annually in Salvador-Bahia, Brazil, the biggest street festival in the world,  
 307 and subsequently produce risk analysis information to benefit the population and inform  
 308 government institutions. Each day, thousands of people gather around carnival sound-trucks,  
 309 powered by petroleum diesel, for extended periods. In accordance with risk analysis methodology  
 310 [18], three steps were essential to our approach: 1- risk characterization, 2- risk assessment and 3-  
 311 risk communication. The first stage determined air quality based on levels of total PM (gravimetry),  
 312 PM<sub>2.5</sub> (nephelometry) and NO<sub>2</sub> (passive method) along the parade circuits and in a control area. The  
 313 levels of PM<sub>2.5</sub> generated by the sound-trucks reached up to 23 times higher than the daily average  
 314 level recommended by the WHO: 25 µg/m<sup>3</sup>. The method applied to estimate total PM throughout the  
 315 carnival festival indicated that the area in which the carnival sound-trucks concentrate prior to

316 proceeding along the parade routes presented the highest concentrations of total PM. According to  
317 the WHO, the use of alternative methods for the detection of pollutants should be encouraged in  
318 locations where resources are scarce. Our results show that the use of a rudimentary technique  
319 (gravimetry) to monitor air quality was nonetheless validated by a more robust method  
320 (nephelometry). It is important to note that researchers must use caution with respect to data  
321 interpretation and conclusions reached using the gravimetry method.

322 Our risk assessment approach showed that minimally invasive techniques and a short  
323 questionnaire on eye symptoms were capable of demonstrating the significance of health impacts  
324 arising from air pollutants encountered along the parade circuits in Salvador. A potential  
325 consequence of these eye exam findings would be a more robust search to identify other adverse  
326 health effects, especially with respect to respiratory and cardiovascular systems [27]. A significant  
327 association between the numbers of goblet cells was observed in volunteers who worked at locations  
328 with higher NO<sub>2</sub> exposure levels. Ocular surface cells exhibit a response to acute short-term  
329 exposure to elevated levels of indoor and outdoor air pollution. An increase in goblet cells on the  
330 ocular surface and other mucosal surfaces has been previously documented when humans are  
331 chronically exposed to air pollution [28-36].

332 According to the WHO [10], risk communication (phase 3) is essential to the establishment of air  
333 quality programs, especially when supported by scientific data. Risk communication should extend  
334 to all potential stakeholders, including public and private sectors, researchers on an interdisciplinary  
335 context, the media and the general public [37]. Our study attempted to disseminate relevant  
336 scientific findings through the scholarly field and the media outlets to facilitate dialogue and raise  
337 awareness among the public. The present work contributed significantly to facilitate discussion  
338 among scholars and with government officials, and, as a consequence, actions have been taken by  
339 appropriate government authorities.

340 Within the limits of data analysis and its uncertainties [20], the risk analysis approach of the  
341 present investigation may be used as parameters for both quantitative and qualitative evaluations in  
342 multiple interdisciplinary scholarly fields.

343 We considered our interaction with government officials satisfactory with respect to the  
344 planning and execution of our work. The most relevant impact of our work resulted in the issuance  
345 of Decree #20.505/2009 by the municipality of Salvador [38], which delegated the responsibility of  
346 monitoring air quality during carnival and other large-scale public events to the appropriate  
347 environmental authorities. During our discussions, a consensus was reached regarding the need to  
348 control pollutant emissions during these types of mass-scale festivals.

349 Based on our results, in 2008 local government officials, in association with the private sector,  
350 launched a campaign entitled "Sustainable Carnival," which promoted the use of biodiesel, a fuel  
351 that emits far fewer particulate matter than conventional diesel [40]. In its first year, the campaign  
352 had little effect due to difficulties faced by supplying the quantity of biodiesel needed to meet the  
353 demands of carnival. In 2009, improvements were made and the campaign successfully supplied  
354 biodiesel to all adapted carnival sound-trucks. The number of sound-trucks running on clean energy  
355 has increased and the government issued a certificate of quality these "biodiesel trios." In 2013, B50  
356 biodiesel (petroleum diesel mixed with a 50% ratio of vegetable oil) was used in more than 120  
357 carnival sound-trucks, which translated into 73 tons less CO<sub>2</sub> released into the atmosphere [39].  
358 According to Cox, [40] a "good" decision procedure might be defined as one that, despite all  
359 uncertainties, performs almost as well as some ideal procedure. Though biodiesel has been cited as a  
360 source that emits less pollutants, Yang *et al.* [41] called attention to the fact that, in comparison to  
361 premium diesel fuels, diesel-waste-cooking oil-butanol blends could increase CO emissions, yet may  
362 significantly reduce the emissions of PM<sub>10</sub>, PM<sub>2.5</sub>, and NO<sub>x</sub>. Accordingly, policies that promote  
363 biodiesel as a "safe" alternative to conventional diesel fuels must be considered with caution. The  
364 comparative *in vivo* health effects of diesel and biodiesel emissions are not well characterized,  
365 however Li *et al.*, [42] revealed that diesel exhaust at a relatively high concentration (500 lg/m<sup>3</sup>) can  
366 induce inflammation acutely in healthy mice and exacerbate some components of allergic responses,

367 while comparable concentrations of B20 or B100 soy biodiesel fuels did not elicit responses different  
368 from those caused by air exposure alone.

369

## 370 5 Conclusions

371 The present study demonstrates that carnival sound-truck exhaust represents the main source  
372 of PM<sub>2.5</sub>, and possibly even total atmospheric PM, to which carnival revelers and workers are  
373 exposed. We further showed that the eye symptoms and conjunctival responses presented by the  
374 studied volunteers were likely associated with air pollution encountered along the carnival parade  
375 circuits. Further study is warranted to comprehensively evaluate the additional health impacts of air  
376 pollution in this context, especially on respiratory and cardiovascular systems. Our risk  
377 communication and risk management was shown to have a significant impact through the  
378 modification of public policy, as the monitoring of air quality has recently become mandatory at all  
379 large-scale public events held in the city of Salvador. Government actions have also stimulated the  
380 use of less-polluting fuels for the dozens of sound-trucks operating during the carnival festival.

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