

1 **Original Article**

2 **Cancer causes & control**

3 **Spatial clustering of childhood cancers in Switzerland: A nationwide study.**

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1 **Conflict of interest**

2 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

3 **Ethical standard**

4 Ethics approval was granted through the Ethics Committee of the Canton of Bern to the SCCR on the

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6

1 **Abstract**

2 **Purpose:** Childhood cancers are rare and little is known about their aetiology. Potential risk factors
3 include environmental exposures that might implicate spatial variation of cancer risk. Previous studies
4 of spatial clustering have mainly focused on childhood leukaemia. We investigated spatial clustering
5 of different childhood cancers in Switzerland using exact geocodes of place of residence.

6 **Methods:** We included 6,034 cancer cases diagnosed at age 0-15 years during 1985-2015 from the
7 Swiss Childhood Cancer Registry. Age and sex matched controls (10 per case) were randomly
8 sampled from the national censuses (1990, 2000, 2010). Geocodes of place of residence were available
9 at birth and diagnosis for both cases and controls. We used the difference in k-functions and Cuzick-
10 Edwards' test to assess global clustering and Kulldorff's circular scan to detect individual clusters. We
11 also carefully adjusted for multiple testing.

12 **Results:** After adjusting for multiple testing, we found no evidence of spatial clustering of childhood
13 cancers neither at birth ($p = 0.43$) nor diagnosis ($p = 0.13$). Disregarding multiple testing, results of
14 individual tests indicated spatial clustering of all childhood cancers combined ($p < 0.01$), childhood
15 lymphoma ($p = 0.01$), due to Hodgkin lymphoma ($p = 0.02$) at diagnosis, and embryonal tumours of
16 the central nervous system (CNS) at birth and diagnosis, respectively ($p = 0.05$ and $p = 0.02$).

17 **Conclusions:** This study provides weak evidence of spatial clustering of childhood cancers. Evidence
18 was strongest for Hodgkin lymphoma and embryonal CNS tumours, adding to the current literature
19 that these cancers cluster in space.

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25 **Keywords:** cancer registry; cancer clusters; Hodgkin lymphoma; primitive neuroectodermal tumours;
26 medulloblastoma

1 **Introduction**

2 Childhood cancers are rare and little is known about possible environmental risk factors. For
3 leukaemia and central nervous system (CNS) tumours, the two most common cancer types in
4 childhood, ionising radiation in high doses is the only established environmental risk factor [1-3].
5 Infection with Epstein-Barr is thought to play a role in the aetiology of Burkitt's lymphoma (BL) and
6 Hodgkin lymphoma (HL) [4]. A number of other environmental exposures are suspected of causing
7 cancer in children including low-dose ionising radiation (e.g. natural background radiation or
8 diagnostic radiology) [3], benzene [5,6], traffic-related air pollution [7] and pesticides [8,9]. However,
9 despite numerous epidemiological studies no firm conclusions regarding a causative role of these
10 factors can yet be drawn.

11 Spatial variation of exposure to environmental factors may result in local aggregations of cancer cases.
12 Such spatial aggregation might appear as distinct local clusters or as a general tendency of cases to
13 occur closer to each other than would be expected if cases were homogeneously distributed across the
14 population (global clustering). Detecting spatial clustering or individual clusters could thus provide
15 hints about underlying risk factors. Furthermore, the timing of spatial clustering might provide clues
16 about age windows of susceptibility and latent periods. If the causative exposure occurs in utero or in
17 early life, clustering would more likely be detected around time of birth (using address at birth). If on
18 the other hand, the relevant exposure is closer to the time of diagnosis and latent periods are short,
19 clustering would more likely be detected around the time of diagnosis (using address at diagnosis).
20 Moreover, while aetiologies, and thus clustering patterns, are likely to differ between diagnostic
21 groups, some carcinogens such as ionising radiation may increase the risk of multiple cancer types. It
22 is thus also of interest to investigate spatial clustering of the combined group of all childhood cancers
23 in addition to individual diagnostic groups.

24 More than 50 studies have investigated spatial clustering of childhood cancers, the majority of which
25 focused on childhood leukaemia [10,11], including a previous study by the authors [12]. Fewer studies
26 have investigated spatial clustering of other childhood cancers and these have focused on place of
27 diagnosis, except for two studies that investigated residential locations at birth [13,14]. A study from

1 the UK reported evidence of spatial clustering of all cancers combined [15]. Based on cluster detection
2 methods, childhood cancer clusters (all diagnostic groups combined) have been reported in Florida,
3 Palestine and Canada [16-18]. Studies from San Francisco and the UK have reported evidence of
4 spatial clustering of HL, both supporting an association with Epstein-Barr virus (EBV) through
5 correlation with deprivation [19,20], whereas a study in Spain reported clustering of HL and non-
6 Hodgkin lymphoma (NHL) in certain regions [21]. A study in Kenya reported spatial clustering of BL
7 [22], further supporting the already established infectious aetiology [23]. The aforementioned study
8 from Palestine reported a cluster of childhood lymphoma [17]. The majority of studies investigating
9 CNS tumours have not found evidence of spatial clustering [24,25,15,26,21], however, only few
10 studies have investigated specific subtypes of CNS tumours. Evidence of spatial clustering was
11 previously reported for medulloblastoma [24,26].

12 Several methodological shortcomings limit the interpretability of these studies. Often only count data
13 aggregated to administrative areal units (e.g. census tracts) were available, reducing the statistical
14 power to detect clustering [27-29]. Results of spatial analyses using regional count data may vary
15 considerably depending on the areal unit selected (modifiable areal unit problem) [30]. To our
16 knowledge only one study has used precise geocodes [21]. Furthermore, most studies performed
17 different statistical tests for different diagnostic or age groups without adjusting for the multiple tests
18 performed [15,18].

19 Following our previous analysis of spatial clustering of childhood leukaemia [12], we aimed to
20 investigate the spatial distribution of other childhood cancers in Switzerland including lymphomas,
21 HL, NHL, CNS tumours, astrocytoma, intracranial and intraspinal embryonal tumours, other CNS
22 tumours, neuroblastoma, nephroblastoma, malignant bone tumours and soft tissue sarcomas. We also
23 examined the combined group of all childhood cancers. We investigated spatial clustering at birth and
24 diagnosis using geocoded places of residence, paying particular attention to appropriate correction for
25 multiple testing.

1 **Methods**

2 **Population**

3 We included childhood cancer cases diagnosed at age 0-15 years in Switzerland during 1985-2015
4 from the Swiss Childhood Cancer Registry (SCCR). The SCCR is a national population-based cancer
5 registry for children and adolescents in Switzerland with an estimated completeness of 91% since
6 1985 and 95% since 1995 [31]. The SCCR tracks residential address histories from diagnosis back to
7 birth by contacting municipal population registers. Geocodes were obtained using the geo-referenced
8 building addresses from the Swiss postal system (Geopost) or manually localising the buildings on the
9 geoportal of the Federal Office of Topography (swisstopo; <http://map.geo.admin.ch>). For
10 approximately 94% of the cases, we could geocode residential addresses with a margin of error <100
11 m. For the remaining 6% we used a midpoint of the street, when the street name was available or a
12 central residential location within the postal code area when only the postal code was known. Lastly,
13 in order to avoid any influence of familial aggregation due to genetic factors, we included only one
14 case from pairs of sibling cases.

15 Data for the population at risk were available from the Swiss National Cohort study [32] which
16 includes the Swiss resident population at time of previous decennial questionnaire-based national
17 censuses (1990, 2000) and the annual register-based censuses beginning in 2010. The data include
18 geocoded place of residence at the time of censuses. Using a two-step weighted sampling procedure
19 described in detail previously [33], we sampled 10 controls per case from this dataset matching on sex
20 and timing of clustering. Thus for analyses of clustering at birth, we selected children aged <1 year
21 from the censuses closest in time to a case's birth, and for clustering at diagnosis we selected children
22 matched for age at diagnosis from the censuses closest in time to a case's diagnosis. The sampling
23 procedure adjusts for regional population shifts between decennial censuses at the municipal level
24 [33].

25 **Outcomes**

26 The SCCR codes diagnoses according to the International Classification of Childhood Cancer, third
27 edition [34]. We investigated the following diagnostic groups: all cancers combined (groups I-XII),

1 childhood lymphoma (II), HL (IIa), NHL (IIb, IIc, IId, IIe), CNS tumours (III), astrocytoma (IIIb),
2 intracranial and intraspinal embryonal tumours (IIIc, here referred to as embryonal CNS tumours),
3 other CNS tumours (IIIa, IIId, IIIe, IIIf), neuroblastoma (IV), nephroblastoma (VIa), malignant bone
4 tumours (VIII) and soft tissues sarcomas (IX). These outcomes were chosen because the number of
5 cases available at diagnosis exceeded the arbitrary threshold of 250 cases.

6 **Statistical Analysis**

7 We used difference in k-functions [35] and Cuzick-Edwards' test [36] to assess global clustering and
8 Kulldorff's circular scan to detect local clusters [37]. Global clustering tests assess the preponderance
9 of other cases over controls in the proximity of cases using different distance metrics: Euclidean
10 distance (d) for difference in k-functions and the number of nearest neighbours (NN) for Cuzick-
11 Edwards' test. We selected a wide range of values for d (100, 250, 450, 600, 1000, 1500, 2000, 3000,
12 4000 and 5000 m) and corresponding values of NN based on the expected number of nearest
13 neighbours within these distances given the number of cases and controls of each diagnostic group
14 (see Supplementary Table S1). For Kulldorff's circular scan, the upper limit for the radii was set such
15 that the resulting circles included half of the total number of case and control locations. The tests and
16 their implementation are described in more detail elsewhere [12].

17 As in our previous investigation of childhood leukaemia [12], we used Monte Carlo simulation to
18 calculate p-values for the tests (Supplementary Text S1) and to adjust for multiple testing at three
19 levels (Supplementary Text S2). At a first level of adjustment, we calculated test-statistics that
20 accounted for the multiple input values used in each test, namely, the standardised maximum
21 difference for k-functions [35], the minimum profile p-value in Cuzick-Edwards' test [36], and the
22 maximum likelihood ratio for Kulldorff's circular scan [37]. We then generated 999 Monte Carlo
23 samples by randomly permuting case and control labels given the locations, calculating the same
24 statistics for each sample. We then calculated p-values for the test-statistics by ranking the empirical
25 value of the test statistic among the corresponding values of the Monte Carlo samples and dividing the
26 obtained rank by 1000. Finally, we calculated the minimum of the p-values from the first level
27 adjustment over the three statistical tests performed for each diagnostic subgroup (second level

1 adjustment) and minimum over all statistical tests and diagnostic groups (third level adjustment) again
2 obtaining p-values by ranking these among corresponding values from the 999 Monte Carlo samples
3 (see Supplementary Text S2 for more details). This correction for multiple testing is less conservative
4 than a Bonferroni adjustment because it accounts for correlations between tests.

5 For residence at diagnosis, we ran a sensitivity analysis excluding the less precise geocodes (margin of
6 error > 100 m).

7 **Results**

8 **Study Population**

9 We identified 6,057 eligible cases of childhood cancer in the SCCR (Fig. 1). After excluding cases
10 with missing geocodes and one record of each sibling pair, we included 6,034 cases for the analysis of
11 spatial clustering at diagnosis. For the analysis at birth, we additionally excluded those born abroad or
12 with uncertain place of birth and those born before 1985, leaving 4,078 cases available for analysis
13 (Fig. 1). The age and sex distribution of included cancer cases follows the general pattern seen for
14 different diagnostic groups in the SCCR and registries of neighbouring countries (Table 1) [38,39].

15 **Clustering results**

16 After adjusting for all tests performed (third level adjustment), we found no evidence of global
17 clustering or local clusters neither at birth (overall $p = 0.43$) nor diagnosis (overall $p = 0.13$) (Table 2).
18 However, at the second level of adjustment, i.e. ignoring the fact that multiple diagnostic groups were
19 investigated, our results were indicative of global clustering or clusters for the group of all cancers
20 combined ($p = 0.01$) and childhood lymphoma ($p = 0.04$) at diagnosis and for embryonal CNS tumours
21 at birth ($p = 0.05$) and diagnosis ($p = 0.02$). The evidence for lymphoma was stronger for HL ($p =$
22 0.06) than for NHL ($p = 0.43$).

23 In the analysis of all childhood cancers at diagnosis, the strongest evidence was obtained from k-
24 functions at 4 km distances (adjusted $p < 0.01$, Table 2). Fig. 2 shows that the evidence of clustering
25 was strongest for distances larger than 500 m (top-left plot). The shaded area shows the typical range
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1 of values of the difference in k-functions in the absence of clustering (95% simulation envelopes under
2 Monte Carlo sampling).

3 In the analysis of childhood lymphoma, the strongest evidence for global clustering at diagnosis was
4 observed for difference in k-functions at 3,000 m (adjusted $p = 0.01$, Table 2). The top-right plot in
5 Fig. 2 indicates clustering for distances larger than 1,500 m. Strong evidence from the difference in k-
6 functions was also observed for HL at a similar spatial scale (adjusted $p = 0.02$ at 3,000 m) but not for
7 the NHL (adjusted $p = 0.28$ at 600 m) (Table 2; bottom plots in Fig. 2).

8 The strongest evidence for global clustering of embryonal CNS tumours was observed using Cuzick-
9 Edwards' test at diagnosis using 2 NN (adjusted $p = 0.01$) (Table 2), corresponding to distances of up
10 to 1,400 m on average (Supplementary Table S1). The expected number of other cases among the 2
11 NN of a case was 47.79, whereas we observed 73 cases (Supplementary Table S2). Kulldorff's
12 circular scan showed evidence of a cluster of embryonal CNS tumours at birth (adjusted $p = 0.02$,
13 radius = 66,400 m) (Fig. 3). The cluster consisted of 66 cases, while the number of cases expected
14 within this circle was 39.2, yielding a relative risk of 2.1. Weaker evidence was observed at diagnosis
15 (adjusted $p = 0.05$, radius = 17,400 m) indicating a smaller cluster, nested in the above cluster (Fig. 3).
16 The number of cases in this circle was 23 while 8.4 were expected, resulting a relative risk of 2.9.

17 When we considered only first level corrections for multiple testing (i.e. correcting only for the
18 different input values) our results were also indicative of global clustering of neuroblastoma (k-
19 functions adjusted $p = 0.08$, at 5,000 m, Supplementary Fig. S1), and a cluster of nephroblastoma at
20 diagnosis. This cluster consisted of 13 cases in a circle of almost 14 km. Based on Monte Carlo
21 samples the expected number of cases on that circle was 3.18.

22 **Sensitivity analysis**

23 When we excluded 361 geocodes with a margin of error >100 m at diagnosis, p-values tended to be
24 lower. The overall evidence was strong (overall $p = 0.03$, Supplementary Table S3). In particular,
25 stronger evidence of spatial clustering was found for all cancers (2nd level adjusted $p < 0.01$), childhood
26 lymphoma (2nd level adjusted $p = 0.02$), HL (2nd level adjusted $p = 0.05$) and embryonal CNS tumours
27 (2nd level adjusted $p = 0.03$) (Supplementary Table S3). For the group of all cancers Kulldorff's scan

1 statistic identified a cluster in the north-east of Switzerland (adjusted $p = 0.01$, radius = 23,199 m,
2 Supplementary Table S3; Supplementary Fig. S4).

3 **Post hoc analyses**

4 In a post hoc analysis, we investigated the difference in k-functions for childhood lymphoma at
5 diagnosis for distances up to 30 km, rather than up to 5 km only as in the main analysis. We observed
6 evidence of clustering for distances up to 7 km (Supplementary Fig. S2).

7 We also investigated whether the clustering of lymphoma, embryonal CNS tumours and
8 neuroblastoma (based on the difference in k-functions results) accounted for the observed clustering of
9 all cancers at diagnosis. We thus performed the difference in k-functions for the all cancers group
10 excluding these diagnostic groups and observed no evidence of clustering (p k-functions = 0.16 at 5
11 km), (Supplementary Fig. S3).

12 **Discussion**

13 **Summary of the results**

14 This nationwide study investigated spatial clustering of childhood cancers in Switzerland during 1985-
15 2015 using precise locations of residence. After correcting for the multiple testing resulting from
16 investigating different diagnostic groups, we found no evidence of spatial clustering or of individual
17 clusters, neither at birth nor at diagnosis. However, when considering diagnostic groups separately, we
18 found evidence of clustering for the group of all cancers combined and for lymphoma at diagnosis,
19 and for embryonal CNS tumours at birth and diagnosis. The evidence was stronger for HL than for
20 NHL. The difference in k-functions suggested excesses of cases occurring near other cases for
21 distances of 2-5 km for HL and 500 m to 3 km for embryonal CNS tumours. Kulldorff's circular scan
22 identified a cluster of cases with embryonal CNS tumours in the north-west of Switzerland at birth
23 (radius 66 km) and at diagnosis (radius 17 km). The evidence of clustering for the group of all cancers
24 disappeared when lymphoma, embryonal CNS tumours and neuroblastoma were excluded.

1 **Discussion in the context of other studies**

2 To our knowledge, a recent analysis of five regions in Spain is the only other study of spatial
3 clustering of childhood cancers other than leukaemia using precise geocodes of residence [21]. That
4 study included 714 CNS tumours, 92 HL and 246 NHL cases and 6 matched controls per case. The
5 difference in k-function showed evidence of clustering for both HL and NHL in some regions, but not
6 for CNS tumours. Kulldorff's circular scan found little evidence of spatial clusters, with the lowest p-
7 value (0.074) observed for a small aggregation of NHL cases in Madrid.

8 Few studies have applied global clustering tests or cluster detection methods to the group of all
9 cancers combined. A large study from the UK including over 30,000 childhood cancer cases
10 aggregated to census wards found evidence of clustering at diagnosis, which remained significant after
11 excluding cases of lymphoma and leukaemia.[15,40] Evidence for local clusters of all cancers
12 combined has been reported in studies from Florida [16], Palestine [17] and Canada [18]. The only
13 other study that examined clustering of all cancers combined at birth was a study from the UK, which
14 also found no evidence of clustering in agreement with our study [13].

15 The majority of studies investigating lymphoma as a group reported weak evidence of spatial
16 clustering at diagnosis [16,15,21,25]. One study reported evidence of a cluster of childhood lymphoma
17 in Palestine [17], yet 53% of the included cases were Burkitt's lymphoma. This result is not surprising
18 since the geographical patterns of Burkitt's lymphoma and its infectious aetiology are known [41,22].
19 In agreement with our study, other studies have also reported spatial clustering of HL at diagnosis
20 [42,20,19,21] – whereas, evidence from the mentioned, large UK study was weak [15]. A study in
21 New Zealand found no evidence of global clustering of HL at birth [14]. Studies examining NHL have
22 consistently reported no evidence of clustering [19,15,14].

23 Previous studies of spatial clustering of CNS tumours in children have, at most, found only weak
24 evidence of global clustering or clusters [24,43,26,25,21]. In two studies that also examined major
25 histologic subgroups, evidence of clustering was found for medulloblastoma [24] and the combined
26 group of primitive neuroectodermal tumour (PNET) and medulloblastomas [26]. In our study PNET
27 and medulloblastomas are the main tumour types subsumed as embryonal CNS tumours, for which we

1 also found evidence of clustering. No evidence of spatial clustering has been reported for other CNS
2 tumour types [24,43,26].

3 Few studies have assessed spatial clustering of other cancer diagnostic groups. Evidence for clustering
4 was found in the UK for soft tissue sarcomas and Wilm's tumours [15]. Studies investigating bone
5 tumours separately or jointly with soft tissue sarcomas have reported weak evidence of clustering
6 [15,25].

7 **Strengths and Weaknesses**

8 The main strength of our study is the use of precise locations of residence for both cases and
9 representative controls. This avoids the modifiable areal unit problem and maximises statistical power
10 for detecting small scale clustering [28,30]. Cancer cases were obtained from a national registry with
11 high coverage, and we were able to examine residence both at birth and at diagnosis. The use of
12 different statistical tests made our analysis sensitive to different clustering patterns. Cuzick-Edwards'
13 test and the difference in k-functions are both sensitive to an overall tendency of cases to occur closer
14 to each other than expected but use different proximity metrics (NN and Euclidean distance
15 respectively). Kulldorff's circular scan on the other hand is more sensitive to the presence of distinct
16 clusters. We paid considerable attention to the multiple testing problem. In a previous analysis of
17 childhood leukaemia, we also included Tango's index as an additional test of global clustering but
18 found that it was highly correlated with the difference in k-functions (see the electronic supplementary
19 material of our previous analysis [12]). We therefore decided not to use Tango's index for this analysis
20 in order to mitigate the multiple testing problem. Lastly, we implemented a multiple testing approach
21 that accounts for the correlation between tests and is less conservative than a Bonferroni approach.

22 While full address histories were known for cases, location of residence of controls was only available
23 at census time points. We could thus not select control locations that were perfectly representative of
24 the population at risk at cases' exact date of birth or diagnosis. However, we used a control sampling
25 procedure that accounted for local population shifts in the years between the censuses. In order to
26 minimise the multiple testing issue, we only used one cluster detection test, namely Kulldorff's
27 circular scan, which is the most widely used scan statistic. A drawback of this scan statistic is that it

1 only considers circular shapes and may thus have been insensitive to possible clusters of irregular
2 shapes or clusters occurring at the country border and extending into the neighbouring country, for
3 which we had no data. Moreover, despite high completeness of the registry, our analyses missed a
4 small proportion of cases, which may have reduced the statistical power of clustering tests. Lastly,
5 geographical disparities in registration coverage may have affected our results. While the vast majority
6 of childhood cancer cases are registered through specialised paediatric oncology centres, a small
7 minority is identified through general cantonal cancer registries. However, not all cantons have a
8 general cancer registry possibly leading to underreporting in these cantons. Kulldorff's scan compares
9 the risk inside and outside defined circles. If there was systematic underreporting of cancer cases
10 outside of certain circles, this could have led to spurious clusters. This is unlikely to have been the
11 case for the clusters of embryonal CNS tumours identified in our analysis since the proportion of cases
12 identified through cantonal registries was lower inside the clusters than outside: 0.02 against 0.06 for
13 the cluster at birth and 0.05 against 0.07 for the cluster at diagnosis. In contrast this might be a
14 possible explanation for the cluster of all cancers reported in the sensitivity analysis (proportion of
15 cases from cantonal registry 0.14 inside the circle against 0.05 outside).

16 **Interpretation of findings**

17 The fact that no evidence of spatial clustering for the combined group of all cancers remained when
18 cases of lymphoma, embryonal CNS tumours and neuroblastoma were excluded suggests that any
19 spatial clustering of childhood cancers in Switzerland during the study period was mainly driven by
20 these subgroups.

21 The clustering observed for lymphoma appears to be driven by HL. Spatial clustering of HL at
22 diagnosis is consistent with the literature with 4 out of 6 studies reporting such evidence. The absence
23 of distinct clusters and of clustering at birth may imply a late aetiologic exposure to a ubiquitous agent
24 promoting carcinogenesis [20]. Animal and epidemiological studies suggest that exposure to EBV
25 could be such a promotor [4]. Possible socioeconomic factors associated with transmission of EBV or
26 prevalence of EBV infection such as overcrowding [4] might cause spatial heterogeneity in incidence

1 rates of HL. Other agents such as benzene might also play a role. However, there is little evidence of
2 an association between HL and occupational benzene exposure in adults [44].

3 Our finding of global clustering of embryonal CNS tumours but not for other CNS tumours is also in
4 agreement with the two other studies that have assessed medulloblastoma or PNET [24,26] and
5 suggests an aetiologic factor specific to this tumour group. Of the 264 embryonal CNS tumour cases
6 included in our study, 198 and 46 were medulloblastomas and PNET, respectively. The evidence of
7 clustering was stronger at diagnosis, again suggesting a late aetiologic exposure. Unfortunately,
8 aetiologic studies of childhood CNS tumours still rarely distinguish histologic subtypes. However,
9 based on this literature, possible aetiological agents include insecticide use [45], N-nitroso compounds
10 exposure [46] or traffic-related air pollution [47].

11 While adjustments for multiple testing indicate that our findings could be due to chance, the agreement
12 with previous studies regarding HL and embryonal CNS tumours rather suggests that the observed
13 clustering may have an environmental or infectious cause.

14 **Conclusion**

15 Our study adds further evidence that HL and embryonal CNS tumours in children tend to cluster in
16 space due to post-natal environmental influences, which remain to be determined. Future aetiological
17 studies of childhood lymphoma and CNS tumours should stratify analyses by tumour subtypes and
18 pool data to maximise power.

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1 **Tables**

2 **Table 1.** Characteristics of the cases included in the analysis of spatial clustering using residence at
 3 birth and at diagnosis.

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	Birth			Diagnosis		
	Number of cases		Age at	Number of cases		Age at
	Total	Female N (%)	diagnosis	Total	Female N (%)	diagnosis
			Median			Median
All cancers ^a	4,078	1,826 (44.8)	4.6	6,034	2,694 (44.6)	6.3
Lymphoma	419	144 (34.4)	10.1	760	275 (36.2)	11.5
HL	165	71 (43.0)	13.3	317	149 (47.0)	13.7
NHL	253	74 (29.2)	6.9	441	127 (28.8)	8.8
CNS tumours	840	390 (46.4)	5.8	1,240	575 (46.4)	7.0
Astrocytoma	340	169 (49.7)	6.0	493	252 (51.1)	7.0
Embryonal CNS	184	70 (38.0)	5.6	264	96 (36.4)	6.3
Other CNS tumours	316	151 (47.8)	5.8	483	227 (47.0)	7.5
Neuroblastoma	307	154 (50.2)	1.0	372	183 (49.2)	1.3
Nephroblastoma	226	121 (53.5)	3.0	292	158 (54.1)	3.3
Malignant bone tumours	153	80 (52.3)	11.0	283	141 (49.8)	12.3
Soft tissue sarcomas	272	114 (41.9)	5.6	401	176 (43.9)	7.8

Abbreviations: HL Hodgkin lymphoma, NHL non-Hodgkin lymphoma, CNS Central Nervous System

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7 ^a Includes childhood leukaemia cases (N= 1,297 and 1,865 for birth and diagnosis, respectively) which
 8 were the subject of a separate investigation [12].

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Table 2. Results of global clustering and cluster detection tests at birth or diagnosis

	k-functions adjusted p ^a (d in <i>m</i>)	Cuzick-Edwards' adjusted p ^a (k NN)	Kulldorff's scan adjusted p ^a (r in <i>m</i>)	2 nd level adjusted p ^b
Birth				
All cancers ^c	0.11 (100)	0.18 (3)	0.94 (137)	0.28
Lymphoma	0.51 (3,000)	0.65 (7)	0.30 (2,209)	0.62
HL	0.31 (4,000)	0.51 (15)	0.73 (2,850)	0.58
NHL	0.77 (1,000)	0.69 (2)	0.36 (2,556)	0.66
CNS tumours	0.44 (100)	0.81 (1)	0.45 (4,287)	0.76
Astrocytoma	0.58 (1,000)	0.49 (11)	0.08 (3,598)	0.20
Embryonal CNS	0.43 (3,000)	0.50 (15)	0.02 (66,350)	0.05
Other CNS tumours	0.81 (4,000)	0.73 (15)	0.24 (8,640)	0.47
Neuroblastoma	0.62 (250)	0.76 (15)	0.47 (51,491)	0.75
Nephroblastoma	0.11 (1,000)	0.21 (15)	0.38 (12,291)	0.23
Malignant bone tumours	0.27 (600)	0.24 (3)	0.69 (2,620)	0.48
Soft tissue sarcomas	0.94 (3,000)	0.46 (11)	0.54 (4,275)	0.77
Overall p ^d = 0.43				
Diagnosis				
All cancers ^c	<0.01 (4,000)	0.08 (1)	0.17 (8,550)	0.01
Lymphoma	0.01 (3,000)	0.56 (6)	0.44 (6,262)	0.04
HL	0.02 (3,000)	0.63 (2)	0.46 (4,582)	0.06
NHL	0.28 (600)	0.25 (4)	0.26 (577)	0.43
CNS tumours	0.20 (4,000)	0.05 (10)	0.24 (461)	0.13
Astrocytoma	0.21 (5,000)	0.16 (11)	0.30 (2,066)	0.37
Embryonal CNS	0.03 (450)	0.01 (2)	0.05 (17,400)	0.02

Other CNS tumours	0.63 (3,000)	0.12 (4)	0.10 (1,169)	0.24
Neuroblastoma	0.08 (5,000)	0.52 (1)	0.33 (61,818)	0.19
Nephroblastoma	0.89 (100)	0.61 (15)	0.05 (13,753)	0.13
Malignant bone tumours	0.39 (5,000)	0.59 (15)	0.89 (1,245)	0.68
Soft tissue sarcomas	0.82 (4,000)	0.33 (15)	0.10 (5,325)	0.24
				Overall p ^d = 0.13

1 Abbreviations: HL Hodgkin lymphoma, NHL non-Hodgkin lymphoma, CNS Central Nervous System, NN Nearest
2 Neighbours

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4 ^a Data are p-values adjusted for the different input values d, k and r of the test (First level adjustment,
5 see electronic supplementary material). The parameter for which the lowest p-value was found is
6 reported in parenthesis. For Kulldorff's circular scan, the latter represents the radius of the most likely
7 cluster.

8 ^b P-value additionally adjusted for the different statistical tests performed in each diagnostic group.

9 ^c Includes childhood leukaemia cases (N= 1,297 and 1,865 for birth and diagnosis, respectively) which
10 were the subject of a separate investigation [12].

11 ^d P-value additionally adjusted for the different diagnostic groups considered including the all cancers
12 combined group.

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1 **Figure legends**

2 **Fig. 1** Flow chart of the study population

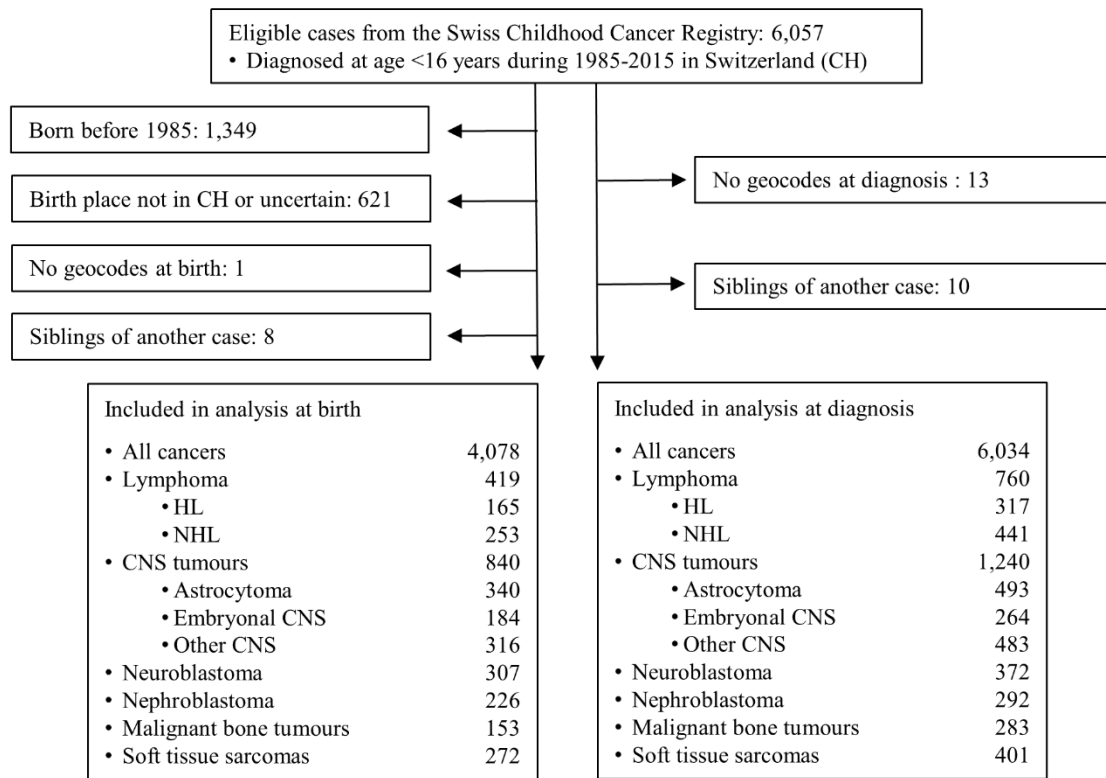
3 **Fig. 2** The difference in k-functions for residence at diagnosis for all cancers combined, lymphoma,
4 Hodgkin's lymphoma and non-Hodgkin's lymphoma. The solid line shows the observed difference of
5 the k-functions between cases and controls, whereas the dashed line indicates the mean difference
6 observed in Monte Carlo samples in which the cases were randomly redistributed over locations
7 (random labelling). The shaded area illustrates the 95% simulation envelopes (under random labelling)
8 and values within it indicate no evidence of clustering. The inset plot in the top-left plot shows the
9 difference in k-functions zoomed in on the smallest distances.

10 **Fig. 3** The most likely cluster identified by Kulldorff's circular scan for embryonal CNS tumours for
11 place of residence at birth (dashed circle) and at diagnosis (solid circle). The shading shows the
12 population density per municipality in quintiles (Q), with darker colours indicating higher population
13 density.

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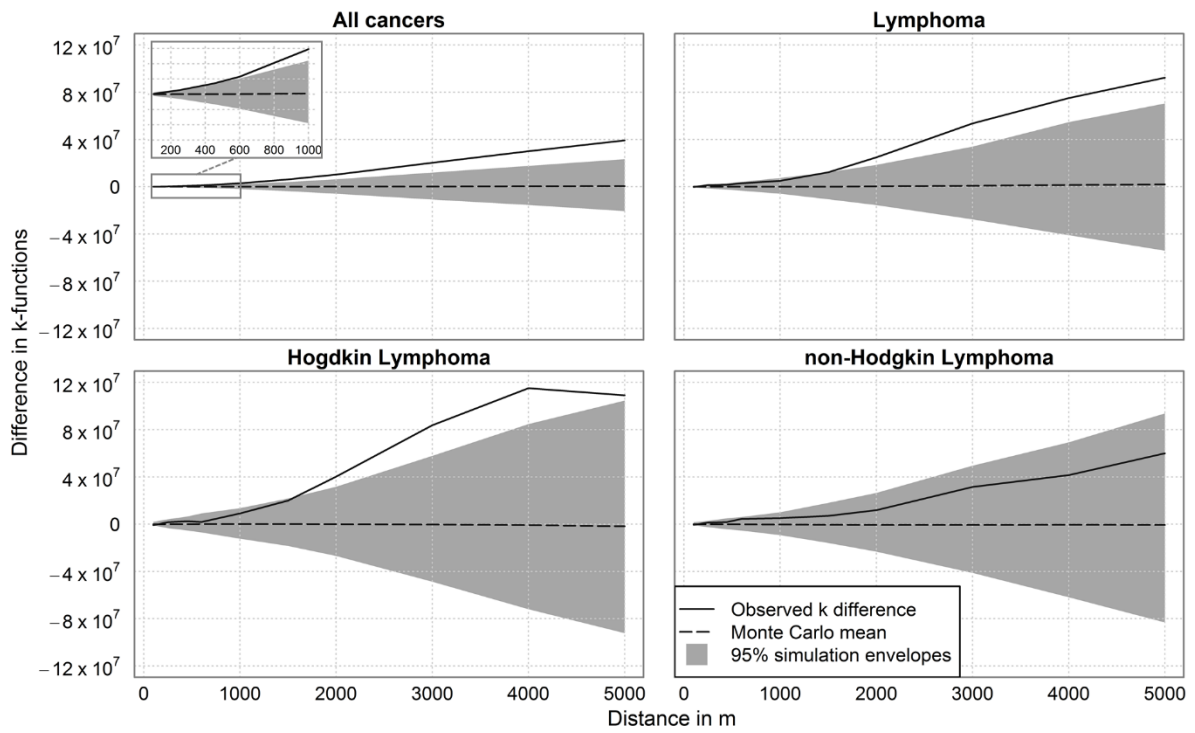
1 **Fig. 1**



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1 **Fig. 2**

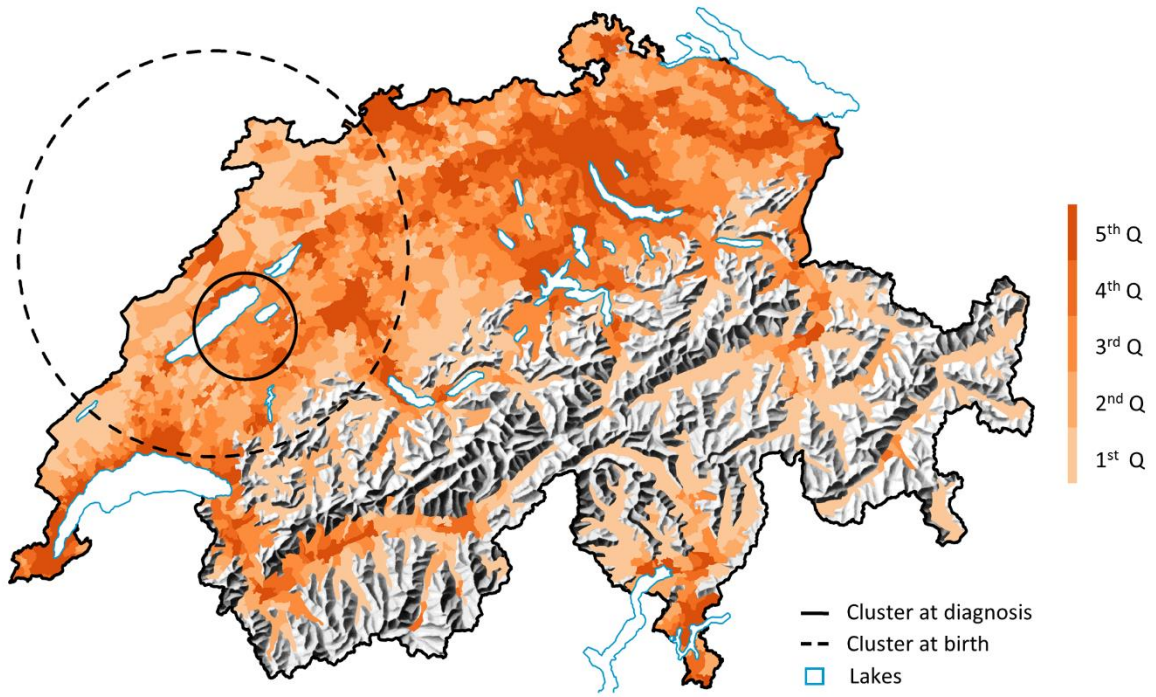


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1 Fig. 3

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