

Leveraging administrative health databases to address health challenges in farming populations: a scoping review and bibliometric analysis (1975-2024)

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- 1 Title: Leveraging administrative health databases to address health challenges in farming populations:
- 2 a scoping review and bibliometric analysis (1975-2024)
- 3
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17 Abstract

Background: Although agricultural health has gained importance, to date, much of the existing research 18 relies on traditional epidemiological approaches that often face limitations related to sample size, 19 20 geographic scope, temporal coverage, and the range of health events examined. To address these challenges, a complementary approach involves leveraging and reusing data beyond its original purpose. 21 Administrative health databases (AHDs) are increasingly reused in population-based research and 22 digital public health, especially for populations like farmers, who face distinct environmental risks. 23 Objective: We aimed to explore the reuse of AHDs in addressing health issues within farming 24 populations by summarizing the current landscape of AHD-based research and identifying key areas of 25 26 interest, research gaps, and unmet needs. *Methods*: We conducted a scoping review and bibliometric analysis using PubMed and Web of Science. 27 28 Building upon previous reviews of AHD-based public health research, we conducted a comprehensive literature search using 72 terms related to farming population and AHDs. To identify research hotspots, 29 trends, and gaps, we used keyword frequency, co-occurrence, and thematic mapping. We also explored 30

the bibliometric profile of the farming exposure by mapping keyword co-occurrences between
environmental factors and health outcomes.

Results: Between 1975 and April 2024, 296 publications across 118 journals from 34 countries were 33 identified, predominantly from high-income countries. Nearly one-third of these publications were 34 associated with well-established cohorts such as AGRICAN and AHS. The most frequently used AHDs 35 36 included disease registers (158/296, 53.4%), electronic health/medical records (124/296, 41.9%), insurance claims (106/296, 35.8%), population registers (95/296, 32.1%), and hospital discharge 37 (41/296, 13.9%). Most studies included only adult participants. Fifty studies involved over 1 million 38 39 participants. Although a broad range of exposure proxies were used, most studies relied on broad 40 proxies, which failed to capture the specifics of farming tasks. Research on the farming exposome 41 remains underexplored, with a predominant focus on the specific external exposome, in particular 42 pesticide exposure. Furthermore, a limited range of health events have been examined, primarily cancer, mortality, and injuries. 43

Conclusions: The increasing use of AHDs holds major potential to advance public health research within 44 farming populations. However, substantial research gaps persist, particularly in low-income regions and 45 46 among underrepresented farming subgroups, such as females, children, and contingent workers. Emerging issues, including exposure to PFAS, biological agents, microbiome, microplastics, and climate 47 change, warrant further research. Major gaps also persist in understanding various health conditions, 48 49 including cardiovascular, reproductive, ocular, sleep, age-related, and autoimmune diseases. Addressing these overlooked areas is essential for a more comprehensive understanding of the health risks faced by 50 farming communities and to guide public health policies. Within this context, promoting AHD-based 51 research, in conjunction with other digital data sources (e.g., mHealth, social health data, wearable 52 sensors) and artificial intelligence approaches, represents a promising avenue for future exploration. 53

54

Keywords: farming population; digital public health; digital epidemiology; administrative health
database; farming exposome; review; bibliometric analysis; digital data; data reuse; human health

Accepted

57 **Introduction**

58 **Background**

59 Public health research seeks to identify and understand the factors that influence population health to effectively prevent diseases and promote health and well-being for all [1,2]. A broad range of 60 61 environmental determinants can impact health across the lifespan. One of the core areas of public health 62 research, known as the exposome, investigates how cumulative environmental influences contribute to disease etiology and pathogenesis. [3-18]. The exposome, which complements genomic research, refers 63 to the comprehensive examination of all environmental exposures experienced throughout an 64 individual's lifetime, including physical, chemical, biological, psychosocial, and behavioral factors, 65 from conception to death [3-18]. The exposome classically includes three overlapping domains: the 66 general external exposome (e.g., climate, built environment), the specific external exposome (e.g., 67 chemical exposure, lifestyle, occupations), and the internal exposite (e.g., aging, oxidative stress, 68 metabolism, gut microbiome) [8,14,16,17,19,20]. Understanding the exposome is crucial for enabling 69 both population-wide and precision prevention [3,21-23]. However, fully describing the exposome is 70 71 challenging due to the vast diversity and the temporal and spatial variability of environmental factors [3]. Public health research in this area requires data on both risk factors and adverse health outcomes to 72 progress effectively [3,14,24,25]. 73

The volume of data collected has grown exponentially as the world becomes increasingly reliant on 74 75 technology and digitization [26,27]. Data is omnipresent in our everyday lives, leading science towards data-driven research [27,28], in particular in the health field. The digital transformation in healthcare 76 has enabled unprecedented data availability, collection, storage, and analysis capabilities, leading to a 77 paradigm shift in healthcare systems, with entire care pathways becoming digitized [29,30]. Health-78 related data now represent approximately 6% of all digital data globally, a figure that continues to rise 79 [31]. This explosion of data has transformed research, providing new opportunities, especially in public 80 health, to enhance disease understanding and evaluate intervention effectiveness [27,28,32-35]. The 81 82 integration of digital technologies and digital data in public health has led to the emergence of "digital 83 public health", an evolving field focused on using digital data to achieve public health goals [33,36-41]. Public health research is moving from isolated data systems to more integrated, accessible, and reusable
data resources [42]. Reusing data allows researchers to explore various health determinants—including
environmental, occupational, behavioral, and organizational factors, fostering a holistic approach to
disease prevention and health promotion strategies [14].

Within the digital public health framework, two main types of data are being used, namely primary and 88 89 secondary data. Primary data are tailor-made, designed for a specific purpose, and often used once or 90 repeatedly for the same goal [43-45]. Primary data are the cornerstone of traditional public health policy and decision-making. These data are derived from several types of studies [46-50], in particular 91 observational cohorts (e.g., the Framingham Cohort study [51,52]) [46-50,53,54], case-control studies 92 [46-50], cross-sectional surveys (e.g., the China Health and Retirement Longitudinal Study [55,56]) [46-93 50,53], and experimental studies [46-50]. Primary data have many advantages [46-50]. They are rich, of 94 high quality, and designed to answer specific research questions for public health and epidemiological 95 purposes. Primary data are usually available at the individual level and are derived from studies that 96 control for certain biases. By contrast, they are cumbersome, time-consuming, and costly to set up and 97 maintain [53,54,57]. The representativeness of primary data is also limited in size, geographical scope, 98 and temporal coverage and can erode over time [46-50,53]. Primary data are not free from bias, such as 99 selection/attrition, healthy worker, recall, or prevarication bias [53,58]. 100

Unlike traditional public health, digital public health does not rely solely on primary data but takes 101 advantage of the myriad of existing digital data that have not been generated originally for research 102 purposes (i.e., secondary data) to overcome some limitations intrinsic to primary data and complement 103 them [28,43,44,53,59-68]. Indeed, some data can have an additional impact when used beyond the 104 context for which they were originally created [68,69]. Secondary data are collected for purposes other 105 106 than public health or epidemiology and include contextual data (e.g., air quality, climate data) 107 [14,24,26,29,70-74], person-generated data (e.g., social media, crowdsourcing, mHealth) [2,24,26,31,43,61,62,73,75-86], synthetic data (e.g., digital twin) [87-91], and administrative health 108 databases (AHDs) [26,64,68,81,92-102]. 109

AHD is a broad term encompassing a wide range of routinely collected data on individuals' health andsociodemographic information collected for registration, billing, record-keeping, and other

administrative purposes [26,64,81,93,95,98,100-102]. For this review, based on previous works 112 [93,95,96,103-105], AHDs included population register, claims database, disease register, electronic 113 health/medical record, and hospital discharge database that were collected at a local, regional, national, 114 or international level (Table 1) [26,61,62,93,95,96,100,103-110]. AHDs offer many advantages for 115 research. Such data is collected as part of routine administrative processes, reducing additional costs for 116 researchers. AHDs therefore offer relatively inexpensive access to a large number of individuals that can 117 be tracked over time for several years, guaranteeing the representativeness of the populations studied 118 [26,54,78,93,95,104,105,111-114]. Data recorded within AHDs is structured, coded in a standardized 119 way, and less affected by participation and recall biases [54,58,95,106,113,115]. AHDs enable the study 120 of rare events and populations underrepresented in studies using only primary data [95,111-113]. AHDs 121 have limitations inherent to their nature, such as the absence of some confounding factors, the limited 122 granularity of certain information, the data complexity, as well as confidentiality issues 123 [73,78,93,95,115-125]. 124

125

	Population register	Claims database	Disease register	Electronic health/medical record	Hospital discharge database
Definition/ content	digital sociodemographic information on the residents of a country	routinely collected digital information on individual data regarding reimbursement, records of health services, medical procedures, prescriptions, and medical diagnoses	continuous and exhaustive digital collection of individual data regarding one or more health events in a geographically defined population	systematized digital record of a patient's medical information collected in real-time	digital records of service utilization with information about patients, their care, and their stay in the hospital
Source	local or national authorities	insurance programs or schemes, healthcare providers	healthcare institutions (e.g., hospitals)	hospitals, physicians, healthcare centers and institutions	hospitals
Population	all individuals residing in a country	all individuals covered by an insurance program or scheme	all individuals diagnosed with a specific health event in a population at a geographically defined scale	all patients using the healthcare system	all patients from a hospital
Purpose/ finality	for the administrative purposes of government: to provide reliable information	to store financial and administrative information for medical insurers' and providers' use	for clinical and research purposes: to collect information about people diagnosed with a specific health event	for clinical and billing purposes: to document patients' clinical condition	for billing or accounting purposes
Health event	none	health events covered by insurance or a healthcare provider	specific health events (e.g., cancer)	health events requiring care that are reported in medical records	health events from hospital admission

Table 1. Definition and characteristics of administrative health databases included in this review

127

128 **Rationale**

AHDs are increasingly employed in population-based health research due to their complementarity with
traditional sources of public health and epidemiological data (i.e., primary data)
[42,59,64,87,93,95,96,126-128]. The reuse of AHDs—referring to their application beyond their

original or intended purpose-holds major potential to advance public health and epidemiological 132 research, offering insights that can guide public health decision-making [42,59,64,87,93,95,96,105,126-133 134 131]. Although several reviews have previously explored the general use of AHDs in research 135 [42,95,107,129,132-135], others have focused on their application within specific countries [96,136], 136 examined individual AHDs [108,137], or investigated their role in studying specific diseases and adverse 137 health outcomes [44,93,104,138-142]. However, to our knowledge, no study has synthesized how AHDs 138 are reused for epidemiological and public health research within a specific population group 139 To address this gap, we conducted a comprehensive scoping review and bibliometric analysis aimed at identifying how AHDs are used to address health issues in a specific population. We selected farming 140 populations as an illustrative example because they present unique health and disease trends [143-147]. 141 Globally, approximately 27% of the workforce is engaged in occupational farming, and this group is 142 exposed to numerous risk factors (exposome), including pesticides, biological agents, and limited access 143 to healthcare [148]. These exposures put them at heightened risk for a wide range of adverse health 144 outcomes [143,145,147,149]. Although agricultural safety and health have become a major public health 145 146 issue in recent decades, most research on the health of farming populations has relied on traditional epidemiological and community-based studies, which often face limitations in terms of sample size, 147 geographic scope, temporal coverage, and the range of health events examined [145,150,151]. 148 149 In this context, AHDs offer valuable opportunities to enhance public health and epidemiological research in farming populations by providing broader insights, identifying at-risk subgroups, and informing 150 health services and policy development [152]. The primary objectives of this scoping review were 151

twofold: (1) to summarize the current state of AHD-based research in farming populations by examining which types of AHDs are utilized and why, whether AHDs are integrated with other data sources, which farming populations have been studied, and what exposures and health outcomes have been explored; and (2) to identify key areas of interest as well as potential research gaps and unmet needs in this field.

157 **Methods**

This scoping review was conducted and reported according to the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses extension for Scoping Reviews and evidence maps (PRISMA-ScR) guidelines (Multimedia appendix 1) [153], following a single screening approach. The protocol of this study was not registered. A seven-step procedure was used: research question formulation, identifying relevant publications, title review, abstract review, full text review, data extraction, and data analysis.

To formulate our research question, the Joanna Briggs Institute guidelines were followed, using the population, concept, and context criteria framework [154]. Our population included all individuals engaged in farming and all individuals exposed to farming-related exposures. The concepts included all possible public health and epidemiological research works that involved the study of a health outcome of interest. The context was the use, in any setting, of at least one of the AHDs as defined in Table 1.

169

170 Search strategy and selection criteria

171 To develop and validate the search strategy, previous reviews that examined the reuse of AHDs for population-based research were identified and refined [93,96,103,104]. Our initial search revealed that 172 electronic health records (EHRs) are often interchangeably referred to as electronic medical records 173 (EMRs). A distinction between EHR and EMR is sometimes made, with EMR describing patients' care 174 175 from only one practice (e.g., specific encounters in hospitals), contrary to EHR [105]. In that case, EMR serves as a data source for EHR. This distinction was not considered in this paper. In addition, to ensure 176 comprehensiveness, the search terms were broadened by searching for their synonyms. For example, 177 search terms such as "electronic health record", "digital health record", "electronic medical record", 178 "EHR", or "EMR" were used as synonyms for electronic health/medical records. A total of 72 terms 179 pertaining to two categories (farming and AHDs) were used (textbox 1). The search terms were reflective 180 of our research topic and question. 181

182

Textbox 1. Search terms.

185	Farming
186	husbandry* OR agriculture* OR farming OR farm* OR agricultural* OR farmworker*
187	Administrative health databases (combined using AND)
188	"health record" OR "health records" OR "digital record" OR "digital records" OR "health administrative register" OR "health
189	administrative registry" OR "health register" OR "health registry" OR "medical register" OR "medical registry" OR "electronic
190	health record" OR "electronic health records" OR "EHR" OR "EMR" OR "electronic medical record" OR "electronic medical
191	records" OR "digital medical record" OR "digital medical records" OR "digital health record" OR "digital health
192	"health administrative data" OR "health administrative database" OR " health administrative dataset" OR " health administrative
193	datasets" OR "health administrative databases" OR "administrative health data" OR "administrative health database" OR
194	"administrative health dataset" OR "administrative health datasets" OR "administrative health databases" OR "insurance data"
195	OR "insurance database" OR "insurance databases" OR "insurance dataset" OR "insurance claim" OR "insurance claims" OR
196	"cancer registry" OR "cancer register" OR "health insurance" OR "health surveillance program" OR "health surveillance
197	programs" OR "Mutualite Sociale Agricole" OR "MSA" OR "health insurance system" OR "record-linkage" OR "population
198	register" OR "population registry" OR "insurance scheme" OR "social security scheme" OR "hospital discharge" OR
199	"administrative claim" OR "administrative claims" OR "medical claims" OR "medical claim" OR "electronic claim" OR
200	"electronic claims" OR "mortality register" OR "mortality registry" OR "mortality record" OR "mortality records" OR "disease
201	register" OR "disease registry" OR "illness register" OR "illness registry" OR "disorder register" OR "disorder registry"
202	

To develop the eligibility criteria, an initial search of the literature was conducted on PubMed, with the review of the first 100 articles that used AHDs for public health and epidemiological research. In our pilot run, disease/morbidity registers were not considered as AHD because they were created for clinical and research purposes [47-50,53,76,155,156]. However, because disease registers contain some information derived from medical records, we decided to consider them as AHD for this review. The eligibility criteria are presented in Table 2. The search was restricted to original peer-reviewed records (all types were included) written in English or French but not constrained by the year of publication [93,106,157]. Publications that examined partly farming populations, with, for instance, studies reporting health risks for various sectors of activity, were included.

215	Table 2.	Eligibility	criteria	for sel	ection	of publications

Criteria type	Inclusion Criteria	Exclusion Criteria
Article type	 Data had to originate at least partly from AHD. Study had to pertain at least partly to the farming population. Study had to relate to public health or epidemiological research. Original peer-reviewed publications. 	 Publications not describing the use of AHD. Animal or in vitro studies.
Language	- Publications in English or French.	- Publications not in English or French.

216

The final literature search was conducted on both PubMed and Web of Science Core Collection 217 databases. Regarding Web of Science Core Collection, a topic search was performed. To reduce the bias 218 219 induced by daily database changes, all data collection (literature retrieval and data download) was conducted and completed on the same day, April 15, 2024. Titles, abstracts, and full-text publications 220 were screened on the basis of pre-established inclusion and exclusion criteria. The inclusion criteria for 221 each phase of the literature search are detailed in Multimedia appendix 2. When abstracts did not contain 222 enough information about correspondence to inclusion or exclusion criteria, the article was considered 223 for full-text review. Reference lists of included publications were not searched, although they might 224 have also yielded new relevant studies. 225

226

227 Data collection and processing

Twenty-nine metadata were extracted from each publication included in the scoping review (Table 3). 228 The data underwent rigorous manual validation, cleaning, and harmonization following a structured 229 five-step process. First, duplicate items (e.g., keywords, institutions) were removed. Second, leading 230 and trailing white spaces were eliminated. Third, items were standardized by converting text to 231 lowercase, with only the first letter capitalized. In the fourth step, items were harmonized to either 232 singular or plural forms consistently. Finally, synonyms or terms with similar meanings (e.g., "illness" 233 and "disease") were unified under a single term. For instance, "Pesticide", "Pesticide exposure", and 234 "Pesticide use" were standardized to "Pesticide", while "Pulmonary disease copd", "Copd", and 235 "Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease" were unified as "COPD". For cancer-related keywords, the 236 11th International Classification of Diseases was used to consolidate varied terms (e.g., "lung cancer", 237 238 "lung cancer risk", "lung and bronchus cancer", "lung tumor", "lung tumour", "lung neoplasm", "basal

- cell carcinoma of the lung"), into standard categories (e.g., lung cancer). Quality appraisals were not
- 240 performed because they were beyond the aim of this review [106,157].

241

Table 3. List of meta-data of interest to collect from the literature search

Meta-data	Fictional example
Publication year	2024
Publication type	article
Study name	project X
Goal of the study	to study the association between farming and health outcome
Study type	ecological study
Is the study nationwide?	yes
Digital data used	insurance claims
Goal of the digital data used	to identify farmers
Is active data used?	yes C
Active data used	clinical examination
Farming exposure considered	farming activity, pesticide compounds
Number of farming activities studied	10
Number of pesticide compounds studied	29
Population	adults
Sex	female
Number of participants included	[100-1000[
Country	France
Oldest data used	1991
Most recent data used	2020
Data follow-up period (in years)	4
Number of years between the most recent data used and publication year	7
Disease/Health events	Parkinson's disease
Authors' names	Gauthier J
Authors' keywords	pesticide
Authors' country	France
Authors' institution	Université Grenoble Alpes
Journal	Environmental Health Perspectives
Funding body	MIAI@Grenoble Alpes
Number of citations	14

243

244 Data analysis

To analyze the research trends (i.e., hotspots and gaps) on the use of AHDs for public health and 245 epidemiological research in farming populations, a bibliometric approach was conducted [158-160]. 246 This analysis examined the number of publications, countries of publications, most active journals, 247 institutions, authors, funding bodies, subject areas, citations of publications, and keywords of 248 publications (Figure 1). Seven bibliometric metrics were computed, including the h-, g-, m-, and Y-249 250 indices, dominance factor, annual growth rate (AGR), and fractionalized frequency (Multimedia appendix 3). The h index attempts to measure both the productivity and citation impact of the published 251 body of work of an entity (e.g., author, institution, journal) [161,162]. It refers to the total number of 252 253 publications by a particular entity with at least the same number of citations. The m index is calculated by dividing the h index by the number of years of an entity's productive life (e.g., researcher) [161]. The 254

g index of an entity corresponds to the largest number g such that the top g publications have at least g^2 255 or more citations together [162]. The Y index refers to the sum of both the total number of first-authored 256 257 publications and the total number of corresponding-author publications [163]. The dominance factor 258 (DF) refers, for a particular researcher, to the proportion of multi-authored publications as specific author's rank to the total number of multi-authored publications [164]. The fractional frequency (FF) 259 260 intends to reflect/measure an author's contribution. The AGR refers to the variable's change in 261 percentage as a year-over-year statistic [165]. The most up-to-date journals' impact factors and ranks 262 were retrieved manually using the Journal Citation Report in April 2024.

Spearman correlations were calculated to examine the association between the number of publications 263 and GDP (gross domestic product), population size [166], as well as the total labor force, number of 264 researchers in R&D (research and development) (per million people), fertilizer consumption (in both % 265 of fertilizer production and kilograms per hectare of arable land), agricultural land (km²), agricultural 266 land (% of land area), land under cereal production (hectares), permanent cropland (% of land area), 267 cereal production (metric tons), crop production index, food production index, livestock production 268 269 index, cereal yield (kg per hectare), female employment in agriculture (% of female employment), male employment in agriculture (% of male employment), employment in agriculture (% of total 270 employment), and agriculture, forestry, and fishing, value added (% of GDP). These country 271 272 characteristics were obtained from the World Bank. When available, the most recent country characteristic (e.g., GDP) was used. 273

Research trends, including hotspots and gaps, were investigated with keyword frequency, co-occurrence 274 (counting of paired keywords), and thematic mapping analyses. Thematic mapping and keyword co-275 276 occurrence network are two complementary but distinct approaches that serve different purposes and 277 offer different insights. In summary, thematic mapping is more focused on the strategic positioning of 278 research themes within a field, while keyword co-occurrence networks emphasize the relationships and 279 connections between specific keywords in the literature [158,167]. Both methods complement each other and are usually used to provide a more comprehensive understanding of research landscapes. The 280 281 co-occurrence of two keywords was defined by the frequency with which they appear together in 282 publications and was quantified using association strength (AS) or equivalent index, calculated as

 $AS_{ij} = \frac{c_{ij}^2}{c_i c_i}$, where c_{ij} is the number of publications in which keywords *i* and *j* co-occur, while c_i and 283 c_i are the number of publications in which each keyword appears, respectively [158,167]. AS measures 284 how close two keywords are to each other. An AS value of 1 indicates keywords always appear together, 285 286 while 0 indicates they never co-occur. These keyword co-occurrences can be visualized using a cooccurrence network graph, where a vertex/node represents a keyword, the size of the node represents 287 the keyword frequency, and the edge represents the association between two keywords [158,167]. Based 288 on the keyword co-occurrence network graph, a community detection procedure can be used to identify 289 groups of words highly associated with each other [158,167]. In other words, equivalent keywords, 290 based on AS, can be grouped together to identify research themes [158,167]. A strategic diagram or 291 thematic map is based on Callon's centrality (x-axis) and Callon's density (y-axis) [158,167]. Callon's 292 centrality measures the degree of interaction of a theme with other themes. It is defined as 293 Callon's centrality = $10 \times \sum AS_{kh}$, where k is a keyword belonging to a theme and h is a keyword 294 belonging to another theme [158,167]. Callon's centrality can be interpreted as an indicator of the 295 importance of a particular topic within the broader overall research landscape. Callon's density measures 296 the internal strength of a theme. It is defined as Callon's density = $100 \times \sum \frac{AS_{ij}}{w}$, where *i* and *j* are 297 keywords belonging to the same theme and w is the total number of keywords in a theme [158,167]. 298 Callon's density serves as a metric for assessing the progression and maturation of that topic [158,167]. 299 A strategic diagram is divided into four quadrants according to Callon's centrality and density values, 300 which correspond to four types of topics. Hotspots or hot topics are defined by both a high density and 301 centrality value (upper right quadrant), while basic topics are defined by a high centrality value but a 302 low density value (lower right quadrant). Peripheral topics are defined by both low centrality and density 303 values (lower left quadrant), while niche topics are defined by low centrality and high density values 304 305 (upper left quadrant) [158,167].

To focus on agricultural/farming exposome research, a bibliometric profile/picture of the "farming exposome" was constructed, which restricts the exposome concept to environmental exposures specific to farming populations [152,168]. This bibliometric farming exposome picture examined co309 occurrences between keywords related to potential risk factors and specific health events (e.g., cancers, reproductive disorders). 310

The bibliometric analysis was conducted and reported according to the preliminary guideline for 311 312 reporting bibliometric reviews of the biomedical literature (BIBLIO) (Multimedia appendix 4) [169]. All analyses were performed using R software 4.3.2® (R Core Team, Vienna, Austria) for Windows 313 10[©]. The bibliometric analysis was performed using the bibliometrix R package version 4.1.4 [170]. 314 fread

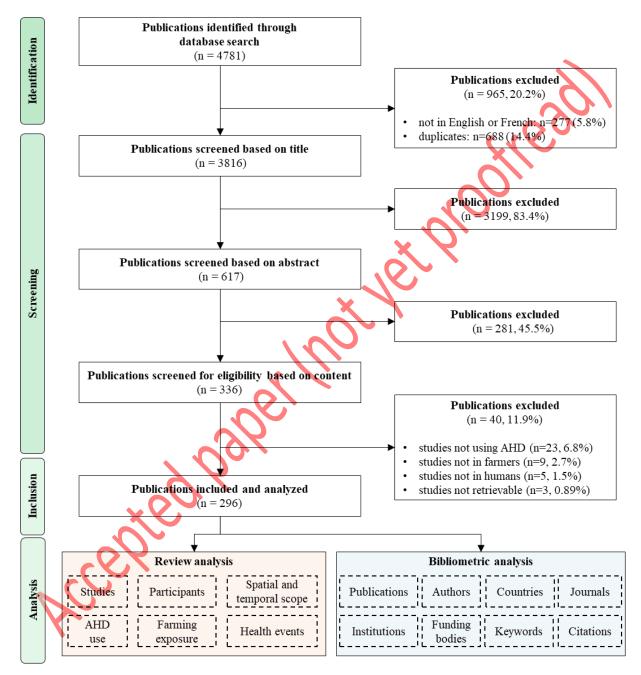
- 315
- 316 **Results**
- 317 **Overview**

318 After excluding 4485 irrelevant records, 296 publications were analyzed (Figure 1). The majority were articles (293/296), with a small number of reviews (2/296) and editorial materials (1/296) (Table 4). 319 Only one-third of the publications were open access (Table 4 and Multimedia appendix 5). The average 320 publication age was 14.2 years, ranging from the oldest in 1975 [171] to the most recent in April 2024 321 [152]. Since 1975, there has been a steady increase in publications utilizing AHDs to address health 322 issues in farming populations, with an AGR of 5.2%. Notably, almost one-third of these articles (91/296) 323 were published in the last five years, highlighting the rising interest in AHD-based public health research 324 in this population (Multimedia appendix 6). Collectively, the publications received 9379 citations, 325 326 averaging 31.7 citations per publication. Multimedia appendix 7 presents the historical direct citation 327 network. The body of work involved 1225 authors from 338 institutions, with 1882 author appearances and an average of six authors per paper (Table 4). There were four (4/296, 1.4%) single-author 328 publications. On average, each paper cited 30 references. 329

Studies were led by authors from 34 countries, predominantly high-income nations, with 24.3% of 330 studies (72/296) involving multi-country collaborations (Multimedia Appendix 8). US-based authors 331 contributed the most publications (91/296, 30.7%), followed by France (71/296, 24.0%) and Finland 332 (35/296, 11.8%). US authors also had the most citations (3495/9379, 37.2%), with France and Finland 333 ranking second and third, respectively. 334

- The 25 most-cited publications, appearing in 17 different journals, received between 83 (83/9379, 0.9%) and 485 (485/9379, 5.2%) citations (Multimedia appendix 9) [150,172-196]. Of these, ten were published before 2000, another ten between 2000 and 2010, and five after 2010. Most of these studies focused on cancer risk (16/25, 64%), while others investigated neurodegenerative disorders (5/25, 20%), respiratory conditions (2/25, 8%), and multiple health outcomes such as sleep disorders, mental health, and musculoskeletal disorders (2/25, 8%).
- es instructions 341 For details on the most productive countries, prolific authors, active journals, institutions, and funding 342

- 343 Figure 1. PRISMA-ScR flow chart depicting the literature search and the evaluation process for finding
- 344 relevant records.
- 345 AHD : administrative health database.
- 346 The search, conducted on April 15, 2024, in PubMed and Web of Science, had no date restrictions.



348 Table 4. Main characteristics of the included publications

349

350 Study characteristics

Table 5 provides an overview of the included publications. Longitudinal study designs were the most
common, including retrospective cohorts (129/296, 43.6%) and prospective cohorts (56/296, 18.9%).
Case-control studies (62/296, 20.9%), cross-sectional studies (39/296, 13.2%), and ecological studies
(17/296, 5.7%) were less common (Multimedia appendix 11). A few studies (10/296, 3.4%) utilized
multiple study designs [188,194,197-204].

The median follow-up period was 9.5 [IQR: 5-17 years]. On average, there was a 7-year gap [90% CI:

357 3-14] between the most recent data used and the year of publication, with considerable variation

depending on the publication year (Figure 2). The oldest data was from 1801 [205], and the most recent

data was from 2022 [206]. Notably, one-third of the data used were from before 2000, while nearly

three-quarters were from before 2015 (Multimedia appendix 6). Only ten studies used data from the last
five years (since 2020), while 80 used data from the last ten years (since 2015).

Studies were conducted on all continents, but most participants were from Europe (249/296, 84.1%), 362 followed by North America (85/296, 28.7%), Asia (24/296, 8.1%), Oceania (17/296, 5.7%), Africa 363 (4/296, 1.4%), and Central and South America (4/296, 1.4%). France (70/296, 23.6%) and the US 364 (67/296, 22.6%) were the most represented countries, followed by Finland (36/296, 12.2%). Sweden 365 366 (32/296, 10.8%), Denmark (28/296, 9.5%), and Norway (26/296, 8.8%) (Figure 3 and Multimedia 367 appendix 12). Most studies had a regional or local scope (177/296, 59.8%), in particular traditional epidemiological studies, such as AGRICAN (Agriculture and Cancer) [207] and AHS (Agricultural 368 Health Study) [172], which used AHDs to identify potential individuals for inclusion and/or enrich their 369 370 cohorts.

Most studies included 1000 to 10000 participants (67/296, 22.6%), followed by studies with 10000 to 100000 participants (65/296, 22.0%) and 100000 to 1 million participants (53/296, 17.9%) (Table 5). Larger studies (\geq 1 million participants) accounted for 16.9% (50/296). Smaller studies, with 100 to 1000 participants, were less common (47/296, 15.9%), and very few (8/296, 2.7%) had fewer than 100 participants. Most studies included adult participants (284/296, 95.9%). 169 studies examined males (169/296, 57.1%), 130 at females (130/296, 43.9%), and 188 at both sexes (188/296, 63.5%), but 108 studies (108/296, 36.5%) did not specify the participants' sex.

Over half of the studies (156/296, 52.7%) aimed to explore the relationship between farming activities 378 (e.g., dairy farming) and health events, while 131 studies (131/296, 44.3%) focused on individual 379 characteristics like occupation, age, sex, and socioeconomic status (Multimedia Appendix 13). Among 380 those examining individual characteristics, farming was often considered broadly and compared to other 381 382 occupations (95/131, 72.5%). Conversely, in studies investigating health outcomes specifically related 383 to farming activities, agriculture was treated as a broad category in only 27.6% (43/156) of the cases. Most studies used the general population or other non-farming groups as the reference category, without 384 differentiating farmers by job role (e.g., farm managers vs. farmworkers). Descriptive statistics and 385 386 multivariable regression were the most commonly employed methods. Notably, only two studies (2/296, 387 0.7%) incorporated artificial intelligence (AI) in their analysis [208,209].

There were few studies that investigated health outcomes in farmers' family members or non-farmers exposed to farming. Only three studies (3/296, 1.0%) focused on health events in farmers' partners [177,210,211], five (5/296, 1.7%) on farmers' children [179,212-215], and six (6/296, 2.0%) on nonfarmers exposed to farming-related risks [209,216-221]. There were eleven studies that explored health risk in migrant workers.

393 Some publications reported findings from the same cohorts (Multimedia appendix 14). The ten most prolific cohorts included France-based AGRICAN (18/296, 6.1%) [207], the US-based AHS (17/296, 394 5.7%) [172], NOCCA (Nordic Occupational Cancer Study) (12/296, 4.1%) from Nordic countries 395 (Finland, Denmark, Norway, Sweden and Iceland) [189], France-based TRACTOR (Tracking and 396 monitoring occupational risks in agriculture) (7/296, 2.4%) [222], and CNAP (Cancer in the Norwegian 397 Agricultural Population cohort) (7/296, 2.4%) [182]. Other notable cohorts included the US-based UFW 398 (United Farm Workers of America) (6/296, 2.0%) [223], France's BALISTIC (5/296, 1.7%) [224], the 399 international (29 countries) consortium AGRICOH (4/296, 14%) [150,225], AIRBAg (4/296, 1.4%) 400 from France [226], and the US-based NAWS (National Agricultural Workers Survey) (3/296, 1.0%) 401 [227]. Among these top ten cohorts, only NOCCA, UFW, and TRACTOR exclusively used AHDs. 402

Characteristic	n (%)
esearch goal	
Study the association between farming and health event	156 (52.7)
Study the association between individual characteristics and health event	131 (44.3)
Other research goal	9 (3.0)
itudy design	0 (0.0)
Retrospective cohort	129 (43.6)
Case-control study	62 (20.9)
Prospective cohort	56 (18.9)
Cross-sectional study	39 (13.2)
Ecological study	17 (5.7)
Multiple designs	10 (3.4)
Review	2 (0.7)
Perspective	1 (0.3)
Beographical scope	1 (0.0)
Nationwide	117 (39.5)
Regional/local	176 (59.5)
Temporal scope (years, mean [IQR])	110 (39.3)
Follow-up period	9.50 [IQR: 5.00-17.0]
Gap between latest data used and publication year	7.21 [IQR: 5.00-9.00]
Population	1.21 [IGIX: 0.00-0.00]
Adult	265 (89.5)
Adult and child	19 (6.4)
Child	8 (2.7)
Not reported	1 (0.3)
Sex	1 (0.3)
Female	130 (43.9)
Male	169 (57.1)
Female and male	188 (63.5)
Not specified	108 (36.5)
lumber of participants	100 (00.0)
> 1e6	50 (16.9)
[1e5-1e6]	53 (17.9)
[1e4-1e5]	65 (22.0)
[1000-1e4[67 (22.6)
[100-1000]	47 (15.9)
[10-100]	8 (2.7)
Not reported	3 (1.0)
AHD type	0 (1.0)
Disease register	158 (53.4)
Electronic health/medical record	124 (41.9)
Insurance claim	106 (35.8)
Population register	95 (32.1)
Hospital discharge	41 (13.9)
AHD use	
Obtain information on socio-demographics	272 (91.9)
Obtain information on health event	269 (90.9)
Identify farmer	147 (49.7)
Identify individual	140 (47.3)
Obtain information on occupations	140 (47.3)
Exposure assessment	57 //10 31
Exposure assessment Obtain information on farming activity	57 (19.3) 43 (14.5)

Table 5. Characteristics of the 296 included studies (1975-2024).

404

Note: AHD: administrative health database, IQR: interquartile range.

406 AHD use

407 There was a high heterogeneity in the coding systems used and the granularity of the information 408 available regarding health events (outcomes), population, and exposure determinants, depending on the 409 AHD and study considered. Regardless of the publication reviewed, AHDs and other datasets were never

⁴⁰⁵

reported as adhering to the FAIR principles (findable, accessible, interoperable, and reusable data) [228230]. In addition, none of them could be considered as FAIR because, with a few exceptions (e.g., [222]),
most AHDs were not precisely described and data availability statements were rare. Furthermore, mainly
due to privacy concerns, AHDs were not available in open and free access.

The most commonly used AHDs were disease registers, used in over half of the studies (158/296, 414 53.4%), followed by electronic health/medical records (124/296, 41.9%), insurance claims (106/296, 415 35.8%), population registers (95/296, 32.1%), and hospital discharge records (41/296, 13.9%) (Table 5). 416 Among disease registers, cancer (120/158, 75.9) and mortality registers (75/158, 47.5%) were the most 417 frequently used (Multimedia appendices 11 and 15). Nearly one-third of the studies (91/296, 30.7%) 418 relied on a single AHD, with disease registers being the most common (38/91, 42%), followed by 419 insurance claims (29/91, 32%), electronic health/medical records (18/91, 20%), population registers 420 (5/91, 5%), and hospital discharge records (1/91, 1%). Other types of digital data were used less 421 frequently, including pesticide registration records (13/296, 4.4%), job-exposure matrices (12/296, 422 4.1%), crop-exposure matrices (11/296, 3.7%), pesticide use records (8/296, 2.7%), climate data (7/296, 423 424 2.4%), and air quality data (2/296, 0.7%). While contextual data were sometimes used (9/296, 3.0%), person-generated data, smart agriculture data, and omics were never utilized. 425

The AHDs and other digital data were primarily used to obtain socio-demographic information (272/296, 91.9%) and health event data (269/296, 90.9%). They were also used to identify farmers (147/296, 49.7%) or individuals (140/296, 47.3%), gather occupational information (117/296, 39.5%), assess exposure (57/296, 19.3%), obtain data on farming activities (43/296, 14.5%), or track climate conditions (7/296, 2.4%).

Nearly two-thirds of the studies (181/296, 61.1%) relied exclusively on digital data (AHDs or other), while more than a third (112/296, 37.8%) incorporated self-reported information/active data (requiring active participant involvement) as part of epidemiological cohorts. A total of 111 studies (111/296, 37.5%) used participant-completed questionnaires (paper or electronic) to gather socio-demographic data and confounding factors (98/296, 33.1%), assess exposure (96/296, 32.4%), and/or collect health information (83/296, 28.0%). Some information was obtained through interviews (44/296, 14.9%) or clinical examinations (32/296, 10.8%). Biological monitoring (24/296, 8.1%) and airborne monitoring 438 (2/296, 0.7%) were sometimes employed, whereas no study reported dermal monitoring (Multimedia439 appendix 16).

440 Among all the AHDs used, the Mutualité Sociale Agricole (MSA) is a singularity. To the best of our 441 knowledge, it is the only AHD specifically dedicated to the entire farming population of a country. Indeed, MSA is the French national insurance scheme that covers the entire farming workforce (5% of 442 the overall French population) [115,128]. MSA was used in 60 studies (60/296, 20.3%). These studies 443 444 were often part of cohorts with multiple publications, such as AGRICAN (18/60, 30%), TRACTOR (7/60, 12%), BALISTIC (5/60, 8%), AIRBAg (4/60, 7%), AMI (Aging Multidisciplinary Investigation) 445 (2/60, 3%) [151], BM3R (2/60, 3%) [231], FERMA (risk factors of the rural environment and allergic 446 and respiratory disease) (1/60, 2%) [232], and Phytoner (1/60, 2%) [233]. Of these, TRACTOR was the 447

448 only cohort using exclusively MSA data [222].

449

450 Farming exposure

A variety of exposure proxies were used to assess farming-related exposure. The most common proxy 451 was job title, which generally referred to whether the individual was a farmer (184/296, 62.2%). Other 452 proxies included specific farming activities, such as dairy or crop farming (111/296, 37.5%), general 453 pesticide exposure (yes/no) (62/296, 20.9%), and exposure to specific pesticide compounds (e.g., 454 glyphosate or paraquat) or pesticide classes (e.g., insecticides) (51/296, 17.2%) (Multimedia appendices 455 11 and 17). The number of farming activities studied ranged from just one (e.g., [226]) to 78 [222], with 456 an average of 8 farming activities per study. Similarly, the number of pesticide compounds assessed 457 ranged from one (e.g., [234]) to 943 [235], with an average of 42 pesticides per study. Only one study 458 investigated the mixture effect of exposure to multiple pesticide combinations on human health [236]. 459 460 Investigations into other chemical exposures were also limited, with only two papers each addressing silica exposure [237,238] and air pollution [194,217] (2/296, 0.7%). Notably, no studies examined 461 462 exposure to per- and polyfluoroalkyl substances (PFAS) or micro- and nano-plastics. Research on the 463 broader farming exposome was rare (5/296, 1.7%) and typically used farming activities as proxies (e.g., [152]). 464

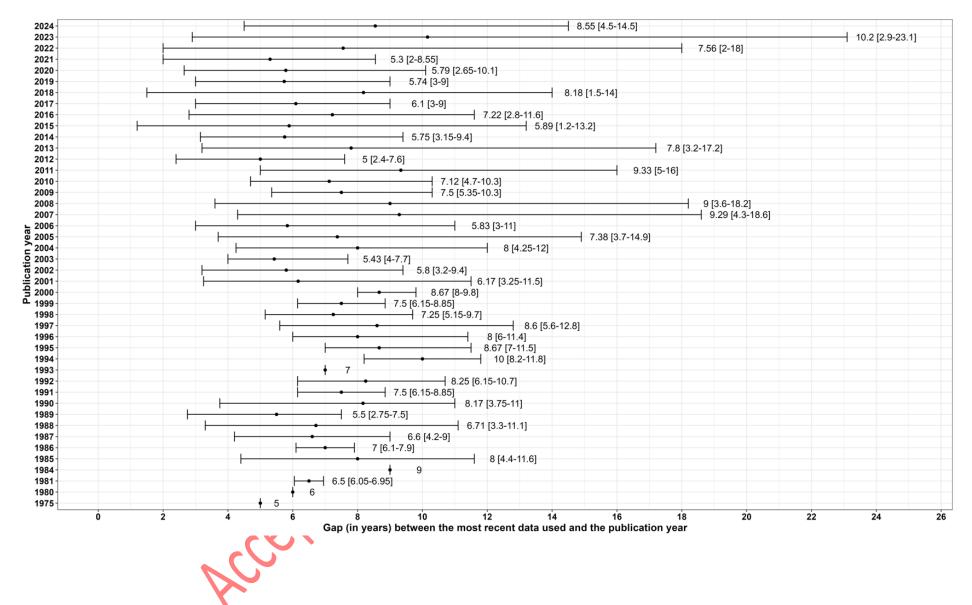
Few studies explored exposure to physical agents, with five studies (5/296, 1.7%) focusing on radiation
[187,218,239-241]. No studies investigated the effects of climate change on farmers' health. Exposure
to biological agents was rarely studied as well, with just three papers (3/296, 1.0%) addressing
mycotoxins [241-243]. Finally, only three studies (3/296, 1.0%) examined psychological factors related
to farming exposure [244-246].

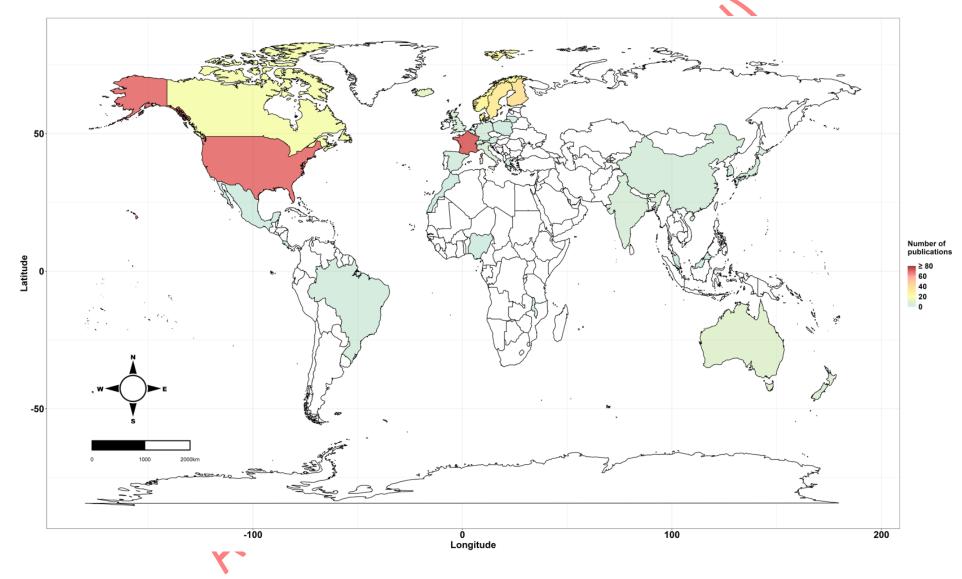
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471 Health events

- The most frequently studied health events were cancer (142/296, 48.0%), followed by mortality (44/296, 14.9%), injuries (38/296, 12.8%), workplace accidents (32/296, 10.8%), respiratory disorders (30/296, 10.1%), neurodegenerative diseases (28/296, 9.5%), and mental health issues (26/296, 8.8%) (Multimedia appendices 11 and 18). Less studied conditions included cardiovascular diseases (16/296, 5.4%), autoimmune disorders (11/296, 3.7%), musculoskeletal disorders (11/296, 3.7%), reproductive disorders (3/296, 1.0%), sleep disorders (1/296, 0.3%), and frailty (1/296, 0.3%). Notably, no studies explored the farming microbiome.
- Among cancers, lung cancer was the most commonly investigated (43/142, 30.3%), followed by prostate 479 cancer (38/142, 26.8%), leukemia (37/142, 26.1%), colorectal cancer (35/142, 34.6%), multiple 480 myeloma (35/142, 34.6%), non-Hodgkin lymphoma (35/142, 34.6%), bladder cancer (31/142, 21.8%), 481 and brain cancer (31/142, 21.8%) (Multimedia appendix 19). Respiratory disorders were primarily 482 focused on asthma (15/30, 50%) and COPD (chronic obstructive pulmonary disease) (14/30, 47%). 483 Parkinson's disease was the most studied neurodegenerative condition (16/28, 57%), followed by 484 multiple sclerosis (6/28, 21%). Fewer publications examined Alzheimer's disease (2/28, 7%) and 485 amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (2/28, 7%) (Multimedia appendix 20). In the mental health field, suicide 486 (12/26, 46%) and depression (8/26, 31%) were the most investigated issues (Multimedia appendix 21). 487

- Figure 2. Number of year between the most recent data used and publication for all included articles (1975-2024). 488
- educed the defended of the def Points refer to the average number of years (or gap) between the most recent data used and publication (x-axis) for each publication year (y-axis). Error bars 489
- 490 refer to the 90%CI of the number of years between the most recent data used and publication.





492 Figure 3. World map of the number of publications per country of the farming population studied between 1975 and 2024.

494 Keyword analysis

Following an initial extraction of 1259 authors' keywords, manual harmonization was performed. Duplicate keywords were removed through singular/plural standardization (130/1259, 10.3%) and through synonym unification and grouping of cancer-related terms (553/1259, 43.9%). This yielded a final set of 576 harmonized keywords (576/1259, 45.8%), which were all used in subsequent analyses to prevent selection bias.

500 On average, each publication included 8.90 keywords [90% CI: 0-17], although 35 publications (35/296,

501 11.8%) lacked any keywords, in line with the journal guidelines. Keyword analysis confirmed prior
502 findings regarding farming exposure and health outcomes, as shown in Figure 4. It also provided deeper

503 insights into emerging research hotspots, trends, and gaps.

Of the total 576 keywords, 301 (301/576, 52.3%) appeared only once, while 68 (68/576, 11.8%) were 504 mentioned at least 10 times. More frequently used keywords included 39 that appeared at least 20 times 505 (39/576, 6.8%) and 11 keywords that featured in at least 50 publications (11/576, 1.9%). The 50 most 506 frequent keywords were mentioned in at least 17 publications (17/296, 5.7%), while the top 10 appeared 507 in at least 51 publications (51/296, 17.2%) (Multimedia appendix 22). The most frequently cited 508 keyword was "cancer" (150/296, 50.7%), followed by "mortality" (96/296, 32.4%), "pesticide" (88/296, 509 29.7%), "occupation" (82/296, 27,7%), "farmer" (77/296, 26.0%), "agriculture" (74/296, 25.0%), 510 "exposure" (57/296, 19.3%), and "epidemiology" (57/296, 19.3%). 511

In terms of overall citations, "cancer" (5766/9379, 61.5%), "pesticide" (3569/9379, 38.1%), and "mortality" (3097/9379, 33.0%) were the most cited. Over the past decade, the frequency of the top five keywords has drastically increased (Multimedia appendix 23). Notably, keywords like "cancer," "mortality," "occupation," "pesticide," "agriculture," and "farmer" have been consistently present in publications spanning at least 30 years (not necessarily consecutively) (Multimedia appendix 24). In the last decade, emerging keywords such as "big data," "administrative health database," "dust," and "BMI" (body mass index) have gained prominence (Multimedia appendix 25).

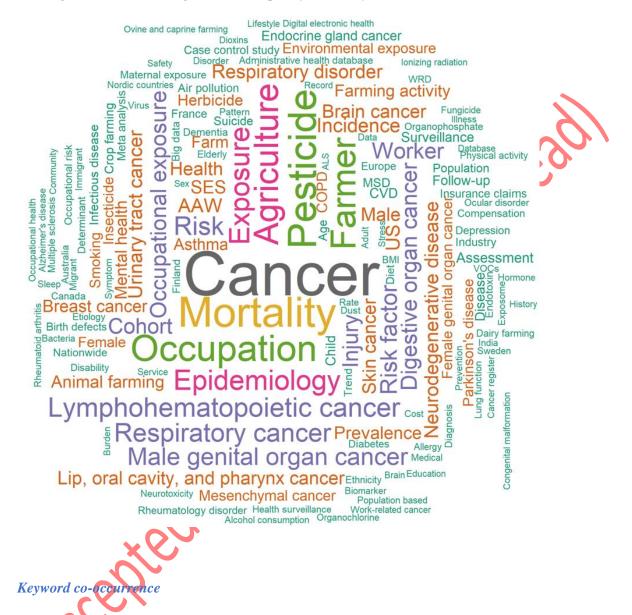
- 519 Figure 4. Wordcloud of the most frequent keywords among the 296 papers published between 1975-
- 520 2024.

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523

524

521 The larger the font size, the greater the frequency of the keywords.



A keyword co-occurrence network illustrating the frequency of keyword co-mentions in publications was constructed, thereby revealing relationships and conceptual connections (Figure 5). In this network, nodes/vertices represent keywords, with their sizes indicating frequency, while edges denote cooccurrences. The network's density and arrangement reveal topic interconnectivity, with larger vertices representing more frequently mentioned keywords. The network visualization helps identify clusters of related topics and highlights core research areas.

Using a community detection algorithm (spin-glass model with simulated annealing), four distinct clusters or communities of keywords were identified. Each cluster groups keywords that are often mentioned together, with stronger internal associations and weaker connections to keywords in other clusters.

The top keywords for each cluster were "cancer" (red cluster), "pesticide" (purple cluster), "mortality" 535 (green cluster), and "exposure" (blue cluster). The red cluster highlights associations between various 536 537 types of cancer, reflecting the fact that studies investigating cancer risks often examine multiple types of cancer. The green cluster links "mortality" with terms like "mental health", "injury", and "animal 538 farming", explained by the association between workplace accidents, mental health issues (e.g., suicide), 539 animal farming, and mortality. In the purple cluster, "pesticide" connects with "occupational exposure" 540 and "farming activity", emphasizing that pesticide exposure is primarily studied in occupational settings 541 across different types of farming. The blue cluster connects "exposure" to terms like "neurodegenerative 542 disease", "respiratory disorder", "cardiovascular disorder", "risk factor", "air pollution", "age", and 543 "diet", indicating the study of various risk factors in relation to several health events. These clusters 544 highlight current research hotspots that focus on four main interconnected themes: the associations 545 between risk factors, pesticide exposure, farming activities, and a range of diseases. 546

547

548 Thematic mapping - research hotspots

Figure 6 presents a thematic map that illustrates current research trends. Thematic mapping visualizes 549 the relationship between research themes or topics, enabling the identification of trends, emerging areas, 550 551 and gaps in the literature. The result is a strategic diagram that shows how themes relate to each other 552 and their relevance within a specific field. The graph is divided into four quadrants, categorizing topics 553 based on their relevance (x-axis, Callon's centrality) and maturity (y-axis, Callon's density) within the 554 broader research landscape. Each circle represents a theme or topic (i.e., a cluster of equivalent keywords), with the circle size corresponding to the frequency of the keywords associated with that 555 556 theme.

557 The upper-right quadrant represents "hot topics", which are both highly relevant and mature in the 558 research landscape. Four key hot topics drive AHD-based public health research in farming populations. These include one focused on cancer research, another on respiratory disorders, and a third encompassing neurodegenerative diseases, workplace accidents, injuries, and mental health issues. The final hot topic involves large-scale studies in France and Europe using big data and insurance claims.

The lower-right quadrant contains "basic topics", which are relevant but not yet mature in the research
landscape. Only one such theme emerged: research related to pesticide exposure, mortality, and farming.

In the upper-left quadrant, "niche themes" refer to mature research topics that have not yet achieved full relevance. Three niche themes were identified: the first involves studies examining aging and research conducted in Norway; the second focuses on reproductive disorders and parental exposure, a theme

567 poised to potentially evolve into a hot topic. The final niche theme covers genetics and metabolism.

568 Finally, the lower-left quadrant contains "peripheral topics", which represent either emerging or 569 declining themes with low relevance and maturity. Four peripheral topics were observed, primarily 570 centered around research on ocular disorders, the use of electronic health/medical records, and studies 571 conducted in India

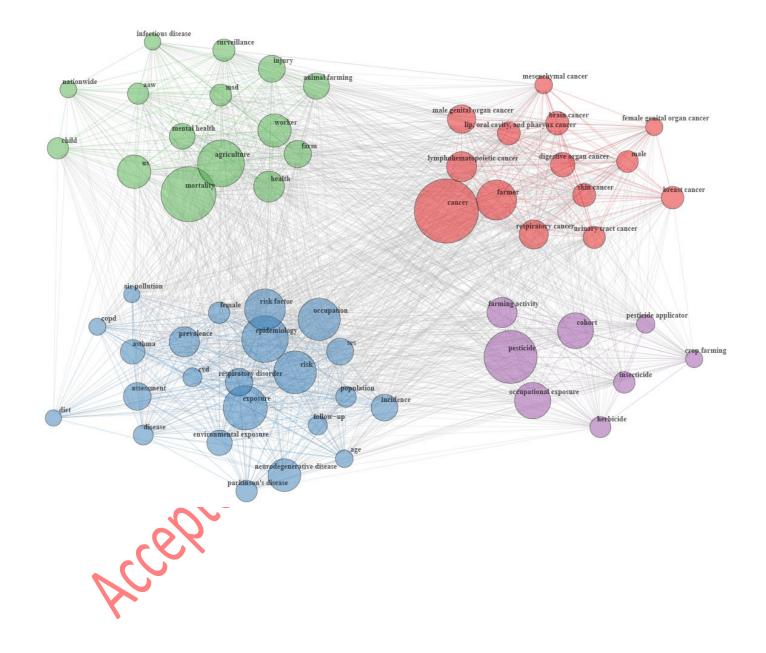
571 conducted in India.

572 This thematic map helps highlight both well-established and emerging areas of research, as well as gaps

573 that may be ripe for future investigation.

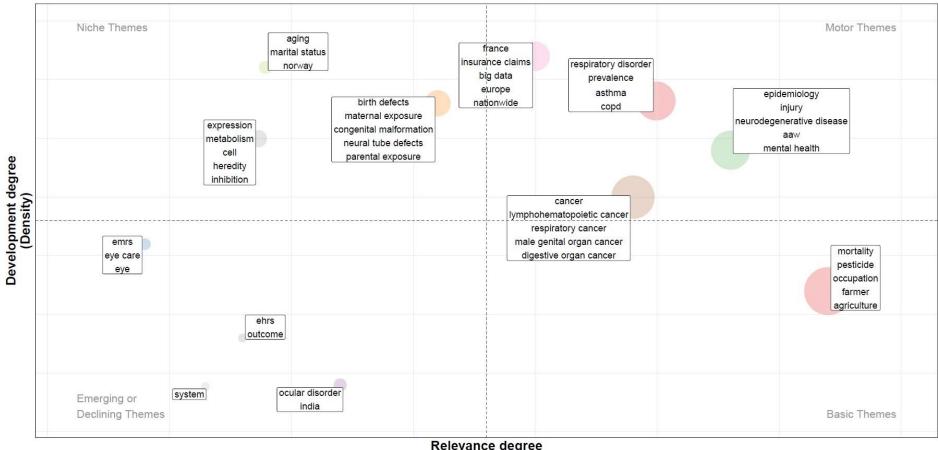
- Figure 5. Keyword co-occurrence network of the 296 articles published between 1975-2024. 574
- AAW: workplace accident, COPD: chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, CVD: cardiovascular disorder, MSD: musculoskeletal disorder, SES: socio-economic 575
- status, US: United States of America. 576
- Each vertex/node represents a keyword, while edges represent the co-occurrence between keywords. Two keywords are connected when they co-occur in the 577
- same publication, and the size of each vertex indicates the frequency of a keyword—larger vertices represent more frequently mentioned keywords. Keywords 578
- 579 with the same color (cluster) represent a research area.

rd-lars.



- 581 Figure 6. Thematic mapping - research hotspots based on keywords from the 296 articles published between 1975-2024.
- AAW: workplace accident; COPD: chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, EHRs: electronic health records, EMRs: electronic medical records. 582
- The graph shows how themes relate to each other and their relevance within a specific field. This graph is divided into four quadrants, categorizing topics based 583
- on their relevance (x-axis, Callon's centrality) and maturity (y-axis, Callon's density) within the broader research landscape. Each circle represents a theme or 584
- topic (i.e., a cluster of equivalent keywords), with the circle size corresponding to the frequency of the keywords associated with that theme. 585

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Relevance degree (Centrality)

Accepte

587 Bibliometric farming exposome

between keywords associated with potential risk factors and specific health outcomes. This analysis was restricted to exposome-related and health event-related keywords. Out of 576 keywords, 130 were related to the exposome (130/576, 22.6%), among which 93 were related to the specific external exposome (e.g., pesticide), 19 to the general external exposome (e.g., climate), and 18 to the internal exposome (e.g., oxidative stress). There were also 70 health event-related keywords (e.g., brain cancer)

In order to identify research trends and gaps in the farming exposome literature, a bibliometric keyword

co-occurrence analysis was conducted to explore the farming exposome by examining the co-occurrence

595 (70/576, 12.2%).

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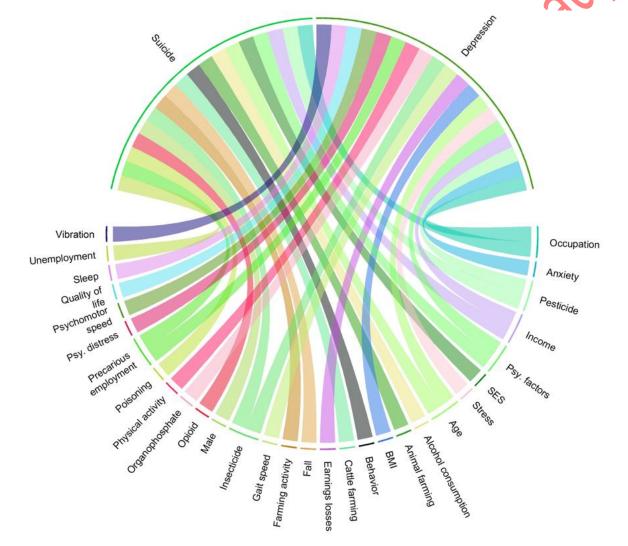
The results of this analysis are synthesized in Table 6 and Multimedia appendix 26, with each cell representing the percentage of occurrences of an exposome-related keyword (e.g., air pollution) in all publications mentioning a specific health event-related keyword (e.g., Alzheimer's disease). For example, a value of 33.3 indicates that an exposome-related keyword appeared in 33.3% of all publications mentioning a specified health event-related keyword. To facilitate interpretation and ease the reading of Table 6, exposome-related keywords were categorized into 19 groups (e.g., chemical agent), and health event-related keywords into 20 groups.

Distinct keyword exposome profiles were developed for each health event-related keyword (Multimedia 603 appendices 27-52), as illustrated in Figure 7 for mental health disorders. Most exposome-related 604 keywords associated with mental health disorder-related keywords pertained to the type of occupations 605 as well as chemical, lifestyle, socio-economic, and psychological factors. Cancer-related keywords were 606 associated mostly with keywords related to the internal (sex) and specific external exposome (chemical 607 agents, lifestyle, and type of occupation). Autoimmune disease-related keywords co-occurred mostly 608 609 with external exposome-related keywords (chemical agents, lifestyle, type of occupations, and socio-610 economic factors). Neurodegenerative disease-related keywords were associated mostly with keywords related to the specific external exposome (lifestyle, chemical agents, and type of occupations). 611 Reproductive disorders co-occurred mostly with internal (sex, BMI) and specific external exposome-612 613 related keywords (chemical agents and type of occupations). Both musculoskeletal disorder and injuryrelated keywords were associated with keywords from all three exposome components, in particular sex, 614

615 type of occupations, lifestyle, biomechanical factors, chemical agents and psychological factors. Infectious disease-related keywords co-occurred with specific external exposome keywords (biological 616 617 agents and type of occupations), while respiratory disorder-related keywords were associated mostly with internal (sex) and specific external exposome-related keywords (lifestyle, chemical and biological 618 619 agents, and type of occupations). Cardiovascular disorder-related keywords were associated with keywords from all three exposome components, in particular the sex, type of occupations, lifestyle, 620 621

36

- Figure 7. Chord diagram of keyword co-occurrence between potential risk factor and mental healthdisorder keywords from the 296 articles published between 1975-2024.
- 624 BMI: body mass index, psy: psychological, SES: socio-economic status.
- 625 On the top half of the chord diagram are disease-related keywords, while exposome-related keywords
- are displayed on the bottom half. Each chord or link indicates that an exposome-related keyword was
- 627 mentioned with a disease-related keyword (co-occurrence) at least once in the same publication. The
- 628 chord color differs from one exposome-related keyword to another.



629

630 Table 6. Co-occurrence between exposome category-related keywords and health event category-related keywords among the 296 articles published between

631 1975 and 2024.

Health event		Internal exposome ge Sex BMI BP Heredity Ethnicity Hormone Menopause Metabol. OS Inflar												ecific e	_	General external exposome				
											<u>S</u> Ir	nflam.			-	Biomech.		Phys.	SE	Psy.
Cardiovascular disease	5.88	11.8	5.88	5.88	0	5.88	0	0		0	0	0	11.8			11.8	23.5	0	29.4	17.6
Work-related disease	0	20	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0	20	20	20	40	0	20	0
Autoimmune disease (IBD, RA, vasculitis, NR)	0	0	11.1	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	22.2	44.4	0	0	55.6	0	22.2	0
Cancer	3.62	27.5	2.17	0	0.73	1.45	3.62	0.73	2	.9 0.	73	0	17.4	51.4	7.25	1.45	58.7	5.8	8.7	0
Dental health	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	50	C	0	0	0	0	50	0
Ocular disorder	16.7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	16.7	16.7	0	0	0	0	0	16.7
Frailty	50	0	50	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	100	50	0	0	0	0	0	50
Anemia	100	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	10	00	0	0	0	C	0	0	0	0	0	0
Infectious disease																				
(malaria, Lyme disease, tuberculosis, toxoplasmosis, NR)	0	7.14	0	0	0	7.14	0	0		0	0	0	21.4	21.4	50	7.14	28.6	0	14.3	7.14
Injury (includ. workplace accident and disability)	4.26	8.51	2.13	0	0	2.13	0	2.13		0	0	0	12.8	14.9	2.13	14.9	23.4	2.13	4.26	6.38
Chronic kidney disease	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0	100	66.7	0	0	33.3	0	0
Mental health (depression, suicide, NR)	9.52	4.76	4.76	0	0	0	0	Х о		0	0	0	28.6	23.8	0	4.76	33.3	4.76	23.8	28.6
Metabolic disorder (diabetes, dysthyroidism, NR)	11.1	0	11.1	11.1	0	11.1	0	0		0	0	0	33.3	44.4	0	11.1	44.4	11.1	0	22.2
Mortality	4.17	17.7	0	0	1.04	0	1.04	2.08		0	0	0	17.7	55.2	8.33	4.17	54.2	5.21	17.7	2.08
Musculoskeletal disorder (arthritis, low-back pain, NR)	7.14	14.3	7.14	0	0	0	0	\sim		0	0	0	14.3	21.4	7.14	14.3	42.9	7.14	0	21.4
Neurodegenerative disease (AD, ALS, MND, MS, PD, NR)	6.06	0	0	0	3.03	6.06	0	O	12	.1 6.	06	0	21.2	48.5	6.06	0	36.4	0	9.09	3.03
Sensory impairment	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0	C	0	0	100	0	0	0
Reproductive disorder (birth defects, infertility, spontaneous abortion, NR)	0	28.6	14.3	0	0	7.14	7.14	0	7.1	14	0	0	7.14	35.7	7.14	0	64.3	0	7.14	0
Respiratory disorder																				
(allergy, asthma, COPD, pneumonia, sarcoidosis, NR)	5.88	11.8	8.82	2.94	0	5.88	0	0	5.8	38	0	2.94	47.1	35.3	11.8	2.94	35.3	0	8.82	5.88
Skin disorder (dermatitis, NR)	0	50	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	50	50	0	0	50	0	0	0

632 Note: AD: Alzheimer's disease, ALS: amyotrophic lateral sclerosis, Bio.: biological agent, Biomech.: biomechanical factor, BMI: body mass index, BP: blood

633 pressure, Chem.: chemical agent, COPD: chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, IBD: inflammatory bowel disease, includ.: including, Inflam.: inflammation,

634 Metabol.: metabolism, MND: motor neuron disease, MS: multiple sclerosis, NR: not reported, Occup.: occupation, OS: oxidative stress, PD: Parkinson's disease,

635 Phys.: physical agent, psy: psychological factor, RA: rheumatoid arthritis, SE: socio-economic factor.

- Each cell refers to the number of times (in %) an exposome category-related keyword (e.g., chemical agent) was mentioned among all publications in which a 636
- health event category-related keyword (e.g., cancer) appeared. 637

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638 **Discussion**

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640 Main findings

This review provides the first comprehensive and objective synthesis of research on the use of AHDs to address health issues in farming populations. It identifies major contributors, key publications, and existing research gaps while also suggesting future directions for leveraging AHDs to study health issues in farming populations. Overall, findings indicate that only a small part of the exposome and a limited range of health events have been examined within farming populations through the reuse of AHDs.

646

647 Current trends in AHD use for public health research in farming populations

Research utilizing AHDs in farming populations has been predominantly conducted in developed 648 countries [150,225], with the US (e.g., [172,223,227]), France (e.g., [207,222,224]), Canada (e.g., 649 [145,186,195]), and Scandinavian nations (e.g., [182,189])—Denmark, Finland, Norway, and 650 Sweden—leading the field. This dominance is linked to considerable funding from these regions and 651 international collaborations. Scandinavian countries are particularly advanced in AHD use, offering 652 databases that are highly complete, accessible, and well-integrated into public health research. AHDs 653 from Denmark, Sweden, Canada, and France also provide comprehensive data on a patient's digital 654 trajectory within their respective health systems [93,98,104,108,113,115,128,247]. France stands out 655 further, with an AHD dedicated specifically to the entire farming population (MSA). This may explain 656 657 the frequent large-scale and long-term studies from these countries, some of which included over 100 658 000 participants. However, many studies still had a regional focus, partly due to the use of AHDs by 659 traditional epidemiological studies like AGRICAN [207] and AHS [172], which rely on limited resources [47-50,53,54,57]. These studies often used AHDs to identify farming populations for inclusion 660 or to supplement cohort data. The international AGRICOH consortium, initiated by the US National 661 662 Cancer Institute (NCI) and the International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC), includes 11 of the 29 cohorts identified in this review [150,225]. However, several cohorts in AGRICOH were not 663 identified, potentially due to lack of publications, language barriers, or limited use of AHDs. There were 664

many publications associated with these well-established cohorts, for which many of the most prolificauthors were working [172,182,189,207,222-227].

The most frequently used AHDs in farming population health research were disease registers followed 667 668 by electronic health/medical records and insurance claims. More than two-thirds of the studies used disease registers, in particular cancer and mortality registers. This is not surprising since disease registers 669 670 are created for clinical and research purposes with continuous, exhaustive, and optimal digital collection of individual data regarding one or more health events in a geographically defined population [53,105]. 671 The coding systems and the granularity of information related to health outcomes, populations, and 672 exposure determinants varied widely across studies. Most studies used AHDs to collect socio-673 demographic and health event information (e.g., [222]). 674

There was no consensus on the best methods or proxies to assess farming exposure. A variety of exposure 675 proxies and determinants were used across studies, with indirect methods being the most common. Many 676 studies dichotomized proxy, for example, classifying individuals as farmers or non-farmers or as 677 pesticide-exposed versus non-exposed. In nearly two-thirds of the included studies, job title (i.e., "being 678 679 a farmer") served as the primary exposure proxy. About one-third of studies took into account specific farming activities (e.g., dairy farming, crop farming) to reflect the diversity of farming practices. This 680 approach is a valuable proxy for agricultural exposure, offering a broader representation of the farming 681 exposome, which involves multiple stressors beyond just pesticides [147,152,188,201,248,249]. 682 Farming activity information was often derived from digitalized data, such as agricultural censuses or 683 self-reported data from mandatory insurance enrollments [152]. Many studies combined AHDs with 684 self-reported data (e.g., questionnaires) (e.g., [172,207]), which allowed for more comprehensive data 685 collection but tended to restrict the scope to regional studies due to resource constraints. These studies 686 typically yielded high-quality data, with more potential confounders considered compared to studies 687 688 relying solely on AHDs. Most studies using self-reported data focused on single exposures, mainly pesticides, with only one addressing multi-exposure to pesticides [236]. Biological monitoring and 689 airborne chemical sampling were rarely conducted, likely due to practical and financial constraints and 690 691 the short half-lives of most pesticides [250]. Dermal chemical monitoring has not been reported, even though it is the main exposure route for pesticides [251]. The high number of studies investigating 692

exposure to pesticides may be explained by the fact that AHS focuses on pesticide applicators and their 693 694 spouses [172] and because many pesticides have human adverse health effects such as neurotoxicity or 695 endocrine disruption [252-256]. Beyond pesticides, farmers face exposure to other chemicals [257], such 696 as air pollution, micro- and nanoplastics [258-263], as well as biological agents (e.g., endotoxins, zoonoses) [264-266], physical agents (e.g., UV radiation, noise, vibrations) [187,267], biomechanical 697 factors (e.g., repetitive movements, heavy load, working posture) [198,268,269], and psychosocial 698 699 stressors [270-274], which have been less studied than pesticides. Despite these multiple exposures, the 700 broader farming exposome remains understudied.

In addition to AHDs, some studies integrated other secondary data, such as climate data [187,275], air 701 quality data [194,217], job-exposure matrices (JEMs) [212,276,277], or crop-exposure matrices [278]. 702 JEMs provide exposure level estimates for various chemicals and stressors based on job categories 703 [250,279]. Although JEMs can provide valuable exposure data, they often lack the specificity of 704 individual-level data, making it difficult to account for task-specific risks, temporal variations, and the 705 inclusion of specific worker subgroups like females [250,279-282]. The lack of a universal standard for 706 707 JEMs further complicates their application, which may explain why many studies still rely on selfreported data for more accurate exposure assessment, despite the risk of recall bias [250,279-282]. 708

The health outcomes studied were predominantly cancer (e.g., [145,150,151,171-175,177-709 179,182,183,185,189,190,196,207,210-212,223]), 710 mortality (e.g., [173,186,194,195,202,205]), workplace injuries (e.g., [198,208]), respiratory disorders (e.g., asthma and COPD) (e.g., 711 [151,180,181,213,224,226]), neurodegenerative diseases (e.g., 712 Parkinson's disease) (e.g., [111,151,176,184,187,188,193,197,201,248,249,283]), and mental health issues (e.g., [151,244,273]), 713 which represent focal points within the research field. This is not surprising because many well-714 715 established cohorts centered on cancer research, in particular AGRICAN [207], CNAP [182] and 716 NOCCA [189]. In addition, arsenic and inorganic arsenic compounds are classified as carcinogenic to 717 humans by IARC [252,253,284], while malathion, glyphosate, diazinon, DDT and occupational exposures in spraying and application of non-arsenical insecticides are classified as probably 718 719 carcinogenic to humans (group 2A), and several other pesticides are ranked as possibly carcinogenic to 720 humans (group 2B), such as tetrachlorvinphos and parathion. Regarding mortality, it is often cancer and 721 suicide mortalities that are investigated [186,195,202,244]. Furthermore, several pesticides are neurotoxic [252,255], but existing studies focused mainly on Parkinson's disease and multiple sclerosis, 722 723 with a paucity of data on Alzheimer's disease and other neurodegenerative diseases [147,283]. In 724 contrast, certain areas, such as cardiovascular diseases (e.g., [151,194,203,227,285,286]), autoimmune 725 disorders (e.g., [168,219,237]), musculoskeletal disorders (e.g., [192,204,245,287,288]), reproductive 726 disorders (e.g., [242,289,290]), sleep disorders (e.g., [191]), aging-related conditions (e.g., [151,291]), 727 hearing impairment [267,292], and the microbiome [8,293-298], remain underexplored, despite their 728 potential relevance to farming populations.

729

730 Challenges of reusing AHD for public health research in farming populations

Each AHD presents unique advantages and limitations. For example, large sample sizes and a large 731 number of available health events are strengths, while generalizability and the absence of key 732 confounders are challenges [64,93,95,105,115]. Access to AHDs is frequently restricted by a variety of 733 factors, including governance and technical barriers such as language, data structure, interoperability, 734 and coding systems. Additional challenges stem from the type of AHD (e.g., insurance claims or cancer 735 registers), inadequate documentation (eg, absence of a data dictionary), limited accessibility due to 736 costs or conditions, as well as jurisdictional and legal constraints [30,62,64,81,113,115]. Identifying the 737 optimal AHD for a given research question is also complex, especially when considering the 738 heterogeneity in coding systems and country-specific data structures. In countries like Scandinavia, 739 Canada, and France, individual identifiers facilitate data linkage across multiple AHDs, enhancing 740 research opportunities [93,104,113,115,128,247]. However, many AHDs are not research-ready and 741 require significant processing, cleaning, and understanding before they can be analyzed 742 [93,105,113,222,299]. Another major challenge is the long lag between data access, analysis, and 743 research publication. On average, studies used data that were seven years old at the time of publication, 744 745 largely due to delays in data access, administrative approvals, and the need to prepare complex datasets 746 for analysis [223,300]. For instance, the TRACTOR project took two years to clean and prepare its dataset for research use [222]. These delays are compounded by the time required to conduct statistical 747 analyses and prepare manuscripts for publication, as well as review and publication times (delay from 748

749 submission to acceptance and from acceptance to publication). Another limitation of AHDs is the lack 750 of detailed exposure data. AHDs rarely include exposure information due to their administrative focus, 751 requiring researchers to supplement with additional data sources, such as JEMs or self-reported data. 752 When exposure information is recorded in AHDs, it is often too generalized, typically only reflecting broad job classifications, such as farming, without specifying detailed activities or stressors. There are 753 754 some exceptions, such as MSA data, which captures a wider range of specific farming activities (e.g., 755 dairy farming) [222]. However, exposure to specific stressors (e.g., chemical compounds) is largely 756 absent from AHDs.

The reference populations used in farming studies vary, which precludes direct comparisons and limits 757 the generalizability of the findings. For example, AGRICAN used the general population as a reference 758 [207], while TRACTOR used a farming population [152,168]. Studies also differ in their focus on 759 specific farming populations, such as the entire agricultural workforce [207], farm managers [152], or 760 pesticide applicators [172], which may lead to distinct exposure profiles that influence health outcomes 761 because these farming populations have different socioeconomic status, experiences, and behaviors. 762 763 Hence, to avoid or lessen bias, some studies focused on specific farming populations [152,172]. Moreover, the scope of farming populations included in studies is often limited, omitting subgroups like 764 farm families, nearby residents, or consumers exposed to agricultural products, which limits the broader 765 application of the findings. In addition, farming practices can vary significantly between countries and 766 studies, and there is no international standardized classification for farming activities. In some cases, 767 farming categories are derived from legal or administrative sources, as seen in the MSA data 768 [152,168,283]. This lack of standardization limits the comparability and generalizability of findings 769 across studies. In addition, the generalizability of the findings to other countries when using AHDs may 770 771 be limited because of the differences in healthcare systems [93].

There are several well-known limitations of AHDs that complicate the investigation of health outcomes [301]. Health events captured in AHDs are typically limited to those requiring medical attention, which may not reflect the true incidence of diseases. Additionally, the level of detail varies across diseases, even within the same AHD [92]. Although diagnostic accuracy is generally higher in disease registers, these are often geographically limited and cover only a subset of health conditions. For example, in 777 France, cancer registers only cover 23 out of 96 administrative regions [155]. In addition, certain conditions, such as depression, are not covered by any registers. Identifying health outcomes in AHDs 778 779 often requires complex algorithms that combine data from multiple sources, such as drug reimbursements, disease declarations, or medical procedures [104,105,128,152,302-304]. Additionally, 780 781 inconsistencies in case definitions and algorithms across studies and countries hinder the ability to 782 compare and pool risk estimates [104,302,304]. Some AHDs also lack critical clinical information, such 783 as laboratory results and genetic data [115,128,305], and the recorded diagnosis or treatment date may not correspond to the actual onset of the disease. Furthermore, diagnosis codes are not always indicative 784 of a confirmed diagnosis. 785

786

787 Emerging opportunities and research needs

While AHDs are well-utilized in certain countries, there are underexplored opportunities in regions like 788 the UK, where AHDs exist but are underutilized for research [113]. For low- and middle-income 789 790 countries, the development and access to AHDs remain limited, and international support is needed to expand this research infrastructure. As already reported [306], here is also a notable lack of sex-specific 791 data, even though occupational exposures and health outcomes can vary significantly between sexes due 792 to genetic, physiological, psychological, and behavioral factors [307-311]. Future research should 793 address these disparities to provide a more comprehensive understanding of health risks in farming 794 communities. Although there are inherent delays in using AHDs due to the time required for data 795 generation, consolidation, and access, we advocate for the continued publication of studies, even those 796 using older data. Historical data remain vital for better understanding long-term health trends, 797 particularly for diseases like cancer, where tumor initiation can span decades [312,313]. Editors should 798 799 encourage the publication of studies using older datasets, especially when addressing long-term health 800 outcomes (e.g., cancer, neurodegenerative diseases) or when recent data are not available [312].

None of the analyzed AHDs fully adhere to the FAIR principles, possibly because most were developed prior to the establishment of these principles in 2016 [228-230]. Moreover, the assessment of AHD FAIR compliance relied solely on information presented in publications, which may not provide a comprehensive evaluation. Nevertheless, there is a critical need to advocate for the integration of FAIR 805 principles within AHDs to enhance public health research [228-230]. Currently, the landscape is favorable for data reuse, particularly with initiatives like the forthcoming European Health Data Space 806 807 [314-316]. Data reuse extends beyond mere access; it encompasses data discovery, a fundamental aspect 808 of FAIR that involves recognizing the existence of databases [228-230]. To facilitate this, the creation 809 of data catalogs is essential [228]. Numerous data repositories, such as Re3Data [317], Zenodo [318], 810 CANUE [319], Figshare [320], "Epidémiologie – France" [321], data.gouv [322], Dataverse [320], or 811 Data Europa [320], already exist. In addition, specialized multidisciplinary open-access and peerreviewed journals like Scientific Data and Data in Brief publish datasets [318]. A dataset search can also 812 be conducted using Google [323]. However, the documentation and access conditions for datasets can 813 highly vary across inventories, complicating the selection process for researchers. The absence of 814 indicators or scores for data reusability further hampers efforts to identify the most suitable datasets for 815 specific research questions [45,69]. To our knowledge, no comprehensive catalog of AHDs currently 816 exists to date. An online inventory of AHDs, modeled after existing resources like 817 OccupationalCohorts.net [324], OccupationalExposureTools.net [325], and TEDI (Toxicological and 818 819 Exposure Database Inventory) [10], could greatly enhance research endeavors. The motivation for analyzing AHDs often stems from the data they contain. Consequently, as data availability increases, 820 researchers will be better positioned to formulate research questions and engage in a parallel process of 821 "datagraphy" or "datagraphic search" akin to traditional bibliographic research. The objective of 822 "datagraphy" would be to determine which datasets are best suited for addressing specific research 823 questions, highlighting the need for accessible catalogs to support this goal. 824

There is also an opportunity to integrate other secondary data, such as person-generated data (e.g., mobile health, social media, digital footprints, wearable sensors), contextual data (e.g., climate and air quality), and smart agriculture data [2,83,84,326-328]. These datasets, largely untapped in farming population research, could provide new insights into health outcomes and environmental exposures [101].

Nationwide studies using big data were a hotspot. AI, such as machine learning (ML), is particularly
useful for analyzing big data and holds substantial promise for future research [329-331], particularly
for identifying predictors of health outcomes in farming populations [332]. To date, AI has been

underutilized, with only two studies using it, one for identifying occupational injuries in agriculture
[208] and one reviewing the development of chronic kidney disease risk prediction models [209].
Incorporating AI, along with cohort enrichment and interdisciplinary expert interpretation, could open
new avenues for research.

837 Many studies continue to examine agriculture as a broad category, highlighting the need for more 838 detailed investigations into specific farming activities and tasks [147,152,188,201,248,249]. Our 839 analysis reveals major research gaps in understanding environmental and occupational exposures among farming populations, particularly with regard to emerging concerns like PFAS, biological agents, 840 micro/nanoplastics, and the impact of climate change. Climate change is a critical issue for agriculture, 841 as it may drive shifts in pests, diseases, and farming practices [274,333-339]. Parental exposure appears 842 to be a theme that will soon become a hot topic. Further research is also needed to explore the farming 843 exposome, particularly focusing on the "mixture effects" of multiple simultaneous exposures [340,341]. 844 Omics data, which has not been utilized in farming population studies to date, represents a promising 845 avenue for future research since genetics and metabolism were found to be a niche theme. Omics data 846 847 refers to the large-scale datasets generated from various omics technologies that analyze biological molecules (e.g., genomics, transcriptomics, proteomics, metabolomics), which provide comprehensive 848 insights into different biological layers and processes [11,342,343]. 849

To enhance the characterization of farming exposome research using keyword analysis, there is a 850 pressing need for standardized keyword reporting. We advocate for the development of a standardized 851 approach to reporting keywords in scientific journals, including defining a minimum set of information 852 (e.g., study type, health outcome, population studied, data sources, positive/negative/null associations) 853 and adopting a list of standardized terms. Though challenging, this approach would improve literature 854 855 searches, make data more comparable and FAIR [228-230], and lead to more efficient, frugal (less time 856 and energy spent to identify relevant information) and accurate synthesis of the scientific literature, such 857 as in reviews and bibliometric analyses.

The prominence of topics such as cancer, neurodegenerative diseases, mortality, injuries, and mental health issues underscores the need for targeted prevention strategies. The thematic map analysis indicates that reproductive disorders (e.g., birth defects, endometriosis, infertility) are on the verge of becoming a central research focus. Emerging and understudied health conditions, including ocular disorders, autoimmune diseases (e.g., inflammatory bowel disease, rheumatoid arthritis), sleep disorders (e.g., sleep apnea), cardiovascular diseases, and musculoskeletal conditions (e.g., low back pain), warrant increased attention and further research. Aging-related health issues such as frailty also represent promising avenues for future research, particularly given the growing aging population and associated healthcare challenges [24].

867

868 Limitations

The findings of this review should be considered in view of their limitations. Because of time and 869 resource constraints, a single screening approach was used, with only one author (PP) conducting the 870 review and bibliometric analysis. While single screening is an efficient use of time and resources, there 871 is a higher risk of missing relevant studies than when using dual screening [344,345]. However, when 872 completed by an experienced reviewer familiar with the research topic, the proportion of missed studies 873 is limited and estimated to be around 3% [344]. Therefore, we cannot exclude the possibility that some 874 studies may have been missed. Nevertheless, we are confident that none of these methodological 875 limitations would change the overall conclusions of this work. Our restriction on articles published in 876 English and French may have inadvertently excluded potential relevant publications. We cannot exclude 877 the possibility that publications using AHDs for addressing health issues in farming populations may 878 have been missed if there was no mention of AHD in the publications' titles and abstracts. However, it 879 is important to mention that our search strategy was similar to recent reviews that specifically examined 880 the use of AHDs for population-based research [93,96,103,104]. We further broadened our search by 881 including synonyms to improve the comprehensiveness of our literature search. Some details and 882 883 specificities on the AHDs and other digital data used may be limited since only information reported in 884 each study was used. Shortcomings inherent to bibliometric analysis cannot be excluded. Some authors 885 may have duplicate names, and namesakes could exist. This limitation could not be prevented as a unique 886 author identifier (e.g., ORCID number) was not available. Self-citation could not be identified.

887 While our keyword analysis helped map the farming exposome in AHD-based public health research,
888 this profile is incomplete and potentially biased. Because our review focused on AHD-based studies, we

889 likely missed relevant epidemiological studies not using AHDs, leaving gaps in our understanding of the full farming exposome across public health. Additionally, the variability in keyword reporting 890 891 practices across journals introduced bias into our keyword analysis. Some journals limit the number of 892 keywords, and the lack of standardized keyword ontologies adds further variability. To mitigate this bias, we manually harmonized the keywords (e.g., use of one unique term for a given entity). While this 893 894 approach is time-consuming, it allows for a more accurate analysis. For instance, if this approach was 895 not performed, the same entity could be designated by various terms that would have been considered separate entities/terms, potentially resulting in underestimates (e.g., in the number of publications). 896 Despite these challenges, the findings from our scoping review were consistent with the keyword 897 analysis. 898

Notwithstanding the aforementioned limitations, most of which are inherent to all scoping reviews and bibliometric analyses [93,96,103,104,158-160], we are confident that our findings can provide a comprehensive picture of what has been published until now (the current state of research and general trends) regarding the use of AHDs for addressing health issues in farming populations. This study may lay the groundwork for researchers to quickly identify research priorities and emerging research trends investigating health issues in farming populations using AHDs.

- 905
- 906 **Conclusions**

907 Technological advancements have greatly increased the volume of research data available, positioning 908 AHDs as critical resources for population-based public health studies [41]. Our review underscores the 909 broad public health implications of AHDs, providing actionable insights for researchers, physicians, and 910 policymakers (Textbox 2). Addressing the identified research gaps is crucial to comprehensively 911 understanding health risks in farming populations.

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918 **Textbox 2**. Take-home messages.

919 Farming population

Research focusing on low- and middle-income countries, as well as on underrepresented subgroups within farming
communities (e.g., females, children, and contingent workers), remains insufficiently developed. These areas warrant further
investigation to ensure more comprehensive insights.

924 AHD use

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930

925 The use of AHDs in public health research among farming populations is expanding, offering major potential to enhance 926 epidemiological studies and inform public health decisions. Promoting AHD-based research, alongside the integration of other 927 secondary data and AI approaches, represents a promising direction for future exploration. There is also a need to promote 928 FAIR principles. Creating an AHD catalog/inventory could be a solution that would allow researchers to conduct "datagraphic 929 search" akin to traditional bibliographic research.

931 Farming exposure

Published studies on farming-related exposures often rely on broad proxies like job titles, neglecting to capture the nuances of
specific agricultural tasks. While pesticide exposure remains a predominant research focus, emerging concerns such as PFAS,
biological agents, micro/nanoplastics, and the effects of climate change require urgent attention. The farming exposome remains
underexplored, despite its potential to uncover important associations between risk factors and a diverse range of health
outcomes.

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937

938 Health outcomes

939 Cancer, respiratory diseases, neurodegenerative disorders, and mental health issues are among the most frequently studied
940 health outcomes in farming populations. However, significant gaps exist in understanding other critical conditions such as
941 cardiovascular diseases, reproductive disorders, ocular conditions, autoimmune diseases, musculoskeletal disorders, age942 related health issues, and microbiome impacts. Addressing these overlooked areas is essential for a more complete
943 understanding of the health risks faced by farming communities.

944

The insights derived from AHDs can inform meaningful recommendations for policymakers and guide future research directions, ultimately aiding health services and health policy development. Our findings underscore the necessity of comprehensive, interdisciplinary approaches to better understand and mitigate the health risks encountered by farming populations. Such efforts will improve data 949 comparability and research quality while also supporting the formulation of targeted prevention 950 strategies. This, in turn, will enhance health outcomes for farming populations and promote the is realized 951 sustainability of agriculture in an increasingly dynamic environment. The findings from this review offer 952 953

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956

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- for the decision to submit for publication. 964
- 965
- **Conflicts of Interest** 966
- 967 None declared.
- 968

969 **Abbreviations**

- 90%CI: 90% confidence interval 970
- AAW: workplace accident 971
- 972 AGEIS: Autonomy, Gerontology, E-health, Imaging & Society (Autonomie, Gérontologie, E-santé,
- Imagerie et Société in French) 973
- AGR: annual growth rate 974
- AGRICAN: Agriculture and Cancer 975
- AHD: administrative health database 976
- 977 AHS: Agricultural Health Study
- 978 AI: artificial intelligence
- 979 AMI: Aging Multidisciplinary Investigation
- 980 ANR: French National Research Agency (Agence Nationale de la Recherche in French)

- 981 BIBLIO: preliminary guideline for reporting bibliometric reviews of the biomedical literature
- 982 BMI: body mass index
- 983 COPD: chronic obstructive pulmonary disease
- 984 CNAP: Cancer in the Norwegian Agricultural population cohort
- 985 CVD: cardiovascular disorder
- 986 DDT: dichlorodiphenyltrichloroethane
- 987 EHR: electronic health record
- 988 EMR: electronic medical record
- 989 FAIR: findable, accessible, interoperable and reusable
- 990 FERMA: risk factors of the rural environment and the allergic and respiratory disease
- 991 FF: fractional frequency
- 992 GDP: gross domestic product
- 993 IARC: International Agency for Research on Cancer
- 994 IBD: inflammatory bowel disease
- 995 ICMJE: International Committee of Medical Journal Editors
- 996 IQR: interquartile range
- 997 JEM: job-exposure matrix
- 998 mHealth: mobile health
- 999 MIAI: Multidisciplinary Institute in Artificial Intelligence
- 1000 ML: machine learning
- 1001 MSA: National Health Insurance Fund for Agricultural Workers and Farmers (Mutualité Sociale1002 Agricole in French)
- 1003 NAWS: National Agricultural Workers Survey
- 1004 NCI: National Cancer Institute
- 1005 NOCCA: Nordic Occupational Cancer Study
- 1006 ORCID: Open Researcher and Contributor ID
- 1007 PFAS: per- and polyfluoroalkyl substances

10891

- 1008 PRISMA-ScR: Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses extension for
- 1009 Scoping Reviews and evidence maps
- 1010 R&D: research and development
- 1011 TEDI: toxicological and exposure database inventory
- 1012 TRACTOR: Tracking and monitoring occupational risks in agriculture
- 1013 UFW: United Farm Workers of America
- 1014 UGA: Université Grenoble Alpes
- 1015 UK: United Kingdom
- 1016 US: United States
- 1017 UV: ultraviolet
- 1018

1019 Author contributions

1020 PP: Conceptualization, Methodology, Software, Validation, Formal analysis, Investigation, Data

prooffead

- 1021 Curation, Writing Original Draft, Writing Review & Editing, Visualization, Project administration,
- 1022 Funding acquisition. NV: Conceptualization, Writing Review & Editing, Resources, Funding1023 acquisition.
- 1024 All authors meet all four criteria for authorship in the ICMJE recommendations. All authors affirm that
- 1025 the manuscript is an honest, accurate, and transparent account of the study being reported; that no
- 1026 important aspects of the study have been omitted; and that any potential discrepancies from the study as
- 1027 originally planned (and, if relevant, registered) have been explained.
- 1028

1029 Data Availability Statement

- 1030 The datasets generated during and/or analyzed during the current study are available in the Multimedia1031 Appendices and from the corresponding author on reasonable request.
- 1032

1033 Multimedia Appendices

- 1034 Multimedia appendix 1: Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic reviews and Meta-Analyses
- 1035 extension for Scoping Reviews (PRISMA-ScR) Checklist.
- 1036 Multimedia appendix 2: Criteria used for the publication selection.
- 1037 Multimedia appendix 3: Bibliometric index metrics.
- 1038 Multimedia appendix 4: The BIBLIO checklist for reporting the bibliometric reviews of the biomedical
- literature.
- 1040 **Multimedia appendix 5**: Publication type.
- 1041 Multimedia appendix 6: Scientific productivity in terms of publications per period of time.
- 1042 Multimedia appendix 7: Historical direct citation network.
- 1043 Multimedia appendix 8. Most prolific authors' country.
- 1044 Multimedia appendix 9. Top 25 of the most cited publications.
- 1045 Multimedia appendix 10. Other bibliometric analysis information.
- 1046 Multimedia appendix 11. Publications included and analyzed.
- 1047 Multimedia appendix 12. Number of publications per country.
- 1048 Multimedia appendix 13. Main goal addressed by study.
- 1049 Multimedia appendix 14. Number of publications per cohort.
- 1050 Multimedia appendix 15. Type of digital data used.
- 1051 Multimedia appendix 16. Active data used.
- **1052** Multimedia appendix 17. Most frequent farming exposure proxy.
- 1053 Multimedia appendix 18. Most frequent health events studied.
- 1054 Multimedia appendix 19. Most frequent cancer studied.
- 1055 **Multimedia appendix 20**. Most frequent neurodegenerative disease studied.
- 1056 Multimedia appendix 21. Most frequent mental health issue studied.
- **1057** Multimedia appendix 22. Top 50 of the most frequent keywords.
- **Multimedia appendix 23**. Top 5 of the most frequent keywords growth trends.

- 1059 Multimedia appendix 24. Top ten of the most popular keywords by total number of years of1060 appearance.
- **Multimedia appendix 25**. Top 10 of the most frequent keywords by time period.
- 1062 Multimedia appendix 26. Co-occurrence between exposome-related keywords and health event-related
- 1063 keywords.
- 1064 Multimedia appendix 27. Keyword co-occurrence network between potential risk factor and mental
- 1065 health disorder keywords.
- 1066 **Multimedia appendix 28**. Chord diagram of keyword co-occurrence between potential risk/protective
- 1067 factor and neurodegenerative disease keywords.
- 1068 Multimedia appendix 29. Keyword co-occurrence network between potential risk/protective factor and
- 1069 neurodegenerative disease keywords.
- 1070 Multimedia appendix 30. Chord diagram of keyword co-occurrence between potential risk/protective
- 1071 factor and autoimmune disease keywords.
- 1072 Multimedia appendix 31. Keyword co-occurrence network between potential risk/protective factor and
- 1073 autoimmune disease keywords.
- 1074 **Multimedia appendix 32**. Chord diagram of keyword co-occurrence between potential risk/protective
- 1075 factor and breast and genital organ cancer keywords.
- 1076 Multimedia appendix 33. Keyword co-occurrence network between potential risk/protective factor and
- 1077 breast and genital organ cancer keywords.
- 1078 Multimedia appendix 34. Chord diagram of keyword co-occurrence between potential risk/protective
- 1079 factor and digestive organ, lip, oral cavity and pharynx cancer keywords.
- 1080 Multimedia appendix 35. Keyword co-occurrence network between potential risk/protective factor and
- 1081 digestive organ, lip, oral cavity and pharynx cancer keywords.
- 1082 Multimedia appendix 36. Chord diagram of keyword co-occurrence between potential risk/protective
- 1083 factor and lymphohematopoietic and mesenchymal cancer keywords.
- 1084 Multimedia appendix 37. Keyword co-occurrence network between potential risk/protective factor and
- 1085 lymphohematopoietic and mesenchymal cancer keywords.

- 1086 Multimedia appendix 38. Chord diagram of keyword co-occurrence between potential risk/protective
- 1087 factor and brain, skin, ocular and endocrine gland cancer keywords.
- 1088 Multimedia appendix 39. Keyword co-occurrence network between potential risk/protective factor and
- 1089 brain, skin, ocular and endocrine gland cancer keywords.
- 1090 Multimedia appendix 40. Chord diagram of keyword co-occurrence between potential risk/protective
- 1091 factor and respiratory and urinary tract cancer keywords.
- 1092 Multimedia appendix 41. Keyword co-occurrence network between potential risk/protective factor and
- 1093 respiratory and urinary tract cancer keywords.
- 1094 **Multimedia appendix 42**. Chord diagram of keyword co-occurrence between potential risk/protective
- 1095 factor and infectious disease keywords.
- 1096 Multimedia appendix 43. Keyword co-occurrence network between potential risk/protective factor and
- 1097 infectious disease keywords.
- 1098 Multimedia appendix 44. Chord diagram of keyword co-occurrence between potential risk/protective
- 1099 factor and respiratory disorder keywords.
- 1100 Multimedia appendix 45. Keyword co-occurrence network between potential risk/protective factor and
- 1101 respiratory disorder keywords.
- **Multimedia appendix 46**. Chord diagram of keyword co-occurrence between potential risk/protective
- 1103 factor and reproductive disorder keywords.
- Multimedia appendix 47. Keyword co-occurrence network between potential risk/protective factor and
 reproductive disorder keywords.
- Multimedia appendix 48. Chord diagram of keyword co-occurrence between potential risk/protective
 factor and injury and work-related disease keywords.
- 1108 Multimedia appendix 49. Keyword co-occurrence network between potential risk/protective factor and
- 1109 injury and work-related disease keywords.
- 1110 Multimedia appendix 50. Chord diagram of keyword co-occurrence between potential risk/protective
- 1111 factor and other health event keywords.
- 1112 Multimedia appendix 51. Keyword co-occurrence network between potential risk/protective factor and
- 1113 other health event keywords.

- 1114 Multimedia appendix 52. Keyword co-occurrence network between potential risk/protective factor and
- 1115 mortality keywords.

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