Global Air Monitoring Study: A Multi-country Comparison of Levels of Indoor Air Pollution in Different Workplaces[†]

Heng-Nung Koong,¹*MBBS, MMed (Surg), FRCS*, Deborah Khoo,¹*MBBS*, Cheryl Higbee,²*MPH*, Mark Travers,²*MS*, Andrew Hyland,²*PhD*, K. Michael Cummings,²*PhD*, *MPH*, Carolyn Dresler,³*MD*, *MPA*

Abstract

Introduction: A local study completed in Singapore, which was part of an international multicountry study that aims to develop a global assessment of exposure to second-hand smoke in indoor workplaces, gathered data regarding the indoor air quality of public areas. It was hypothesised that air would be less polluted in non-smoking venues compared to places where smoking occurred. Materials and Methods: A TSI SidePak AM510 Personal Aerosol Monitor was used to sample and record the levels of respirable suspended particles (RSP) in the air. A broad range of venues were sampled in Singapore. The primary goal of data analysis was to assess the difference in the average levels of RSP in smoke-free and non smoke-free venues. Data was assessed at 3 levels: (a) the mean RSP across all venues sampled compared with the mean levels of smoke-free and non smoke-free venues, (b) levels in venues where smoking occurred compared with similar venues in Ireland, and (c) comparison between smoke-free and non smoke-free areas according to the type of venue. Statistical significance was assessed using the Mann-Whitney Utest. Results: The level of indoor air pollution was 96% lower in smoke-free venues compared to non smoke-free venues. Averaged across each type of venue, the lowest levels of indoor air pollution were found in restaurants (17 μ g/m³) and the highest in bars (622 μ g/m³); both well above the US EPA Air Quality Index hazardous level of ≥251 ug/m³. Conclusions: This study demonstrates that workers and patrons are exposed to harmful levels of a known carcinogen and toxin. Policies that prohibit smoking in public areas dramatically reduce exposure and improve worker and patron health.

Ann Acad Med Singapore 2009;38:202-6

Key words: Hospitality, PM, ,, Second-hand smoke, Smoke-free

Introduction

Second-hand smoke is a mixture of the smoke given off by the burning end of a cigarette, pipe or cigar, and the smoke exhaled from the lungs of smokers. There are more than 4,000¹⁻³ chemicals in second-hand smoke including 69¹⁻³ carcinogens as well as other chemicals that are irritants, toxicants and mutagens.⁴ In 1986, a report of the United States (US) Surgeon General concluded that second-hand smoke is a cause of disease in healthy non-smokers.⁵ Subsequent studies from the US Environmental Protection Agency,^{6,7} the US National Toxicology Programme⁸ and the International Agency for Research on Cancer⁹ have classified second-hand smoke as a known human carcinogen. Ireland became the first nation to implement smoke-free worksite regulations that included bars and restaurants in March 2004. Norway implemented its policy in June 2004. New Zealand, Sweden, Scotland, the United Kingdom and Uraguay have also passed similar regulations, to name a few. Through state or provincial regulations, large parts of Australia, Canada and the US have strong clean indoor air regulations. While this is very encouraging, smoking in indoor public places is still the norm in the vast majority of nations worldwide. On July 6 2007, 146 countries met at a World Health Organization (WHO) Framework Convention on Tobacco Control (FCTC)^{10,11} to draw up international protocols against cigarette smuggling as well as to agree on

¹ Department of Surgical Oncology, National Cancer Centre, Singapore

² Department of Health Behavior, Roswell Park Cancer Institute, Buffalo, NY 14263

³ International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC)

Address for Correspondence: Dr Heng-Nung Koong, Department of Surgical Oncology, National Cancer Centre, 11 Hospital Drive, Singapore 169610. Email: dsokhn@nccs.com.sg

[†] This report is part of a global study with data collected in Singapore, Australia, Belgium, Brazil, Canada, China, Cyprus, Egypt, France, Germany, Greece, India, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Japan, Laos, Malaysia, New Zealand, Pakistan, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Russia, Singapore, South Korea, Spain,

Switzerland, Syria, Thailand, United Kingdom, United States, Uruguay, Venezuela and Vietnam.

strict definitions of what it means to have a smoke-free bar or office. These guidelines include the statement that "there is no safe level of exposure to tobacco smoke", and specifications that half-measures such as designated smoking areas, air filtration or ventilation do not work.

The goal of this study is to provide the latest scientific equipment and methods to practitioners around the world in at least 20 different countries and develop a global scorecard of second-hand smoke exposure. In each country, efforts were made to test air quality in each of the following: restaurants, bars, transportation centres (airports, train stations), hotels, shopping malls, offices and other outdoor ambient air venues. It was hypothesised that indoor air would be less polluted in venues where smoking is prohibited or does not occur, as compared to places where smoking is present (Fig. 1).

Current Status of Smoke-free Legislation in Singapore

For Singapore, legislations against smoking have come a long way since their introduction in the early 1970s. From 1986 to 2001, the National Smoking Control Programme (NSCP) and the Committee on Smoking Control (CSC) managed the anti-smoking control measures. In 2001, the Health Promotion Board was formed to manage and promote health programmes, including smoking control and education.¹² The year 2004 saw the unprecedented development of a pub heeding the National Cancer Centre's call to become smoke-free. In the subsequent year, the National Environment Agency announced plans to implement more widespread smoking bans. This ban was first put into effect in October 2005 at public swimming complexes, open-air stadiums, community clubs, toilets, bus stands, shelters and bus interchanges. It was further extended to public eating places in October 2006, and with effect from July 2007, pubs, clubs and karaoke lounges have gone smoke-free as well.

These encouraging developments have, and will, continue to contribute much towards ensuring a healthier nation. Scientific proof needs to be translated into action before it can have the desired effects, and this is an area in which government bodies have an indispensable role to play.

In conjunction, the National Cancer Centre has participated in the joint global air monitoring study. This study was done in partnership with the International Agency for Research on Cancer to determine the quality of air in indoor environments where smoking is permitted.

Materials and Methods

The data presented here from Singapore is part of a larger study, which included over 20 different countries. Air quality was tested in each of the following: restaurants, bars, transportation areas, including airports and train stations, and other types of venues, such as hotels, shopping malls, offices and outdoor ambient air venues.

A TSI SidePak AM510 Personal Aerosol Monitor (TSI Inc., St. Paul, Minnesota, USA) was used to sample and record the levels of respirable suspended particles (RSP) in the air (Fig. 2). The SidePak uses a built-in sampling pump to draw air through the device. Particulate matter in the air scatters the light from a laser to assess the real-time concentration of particles less than 2.5 µm in micrograms per cubic metre, or PM2.5. PM2.5 is the concentration of particulate matter in the air smaller than 2.5 microns in diameter, which are easily inhaled deep into the lungs. Particles of this size are released in significant amounts from burning cigarettes. Hence, the PM₂₅ may be used as a strong indicator of exposure to carcinogenic second-hand smoke (SHS). Long-term annual exposures are linked to an approximate 4% increased risk of death from all natural causes, a 6% increased risk of death from cardiopulmonary disease, and an 8% increased risk of death from lung cancer for each 10 mcg/m³ increase in long-term average PM₂₅ concentrations.^{13,14} Short-term exposures (≤ 24 hours) are known to exacerbate underlying conditions. For example, exposure to a raised PM_{25} was associated with a 4.5% increased risk of unstable angina and myocardial infarction, especially in individuals with existing coronary artery disease in a case-crossover study by Pope CA et al.¹⁴

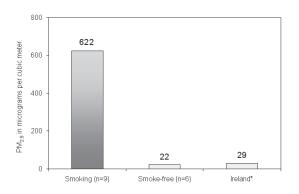
The SidePak was calibrated against a standardised light scattering instrument, which had been previously calibrated and used in other similar studies. In addition, the SidePak was zero-calibrated prior to each use by attaching a HEPA filter according to the manufacturer's specifications.

While second-hand smoke is not the only source of indoor particulate matter, PM_{2.5} monitoring is highly sensitive to it. Ambient particle concentrations and cooking are additional sources of indoor particle levels, but smoking is by far the largest contributor to indoor air pollution.¹⁵ Furthermore, there is a direct link between the level of RSP and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAH), which are known carcinogens in cigarette smoke, with RSP levels being approximately 3 orders of magnitude greater than PAH's.⁷

The equipment was set to a one-minute log interval, which calculates the average of the preceding 60 onesecond measurements. Sampling was discreet in order not to disturb the occupants' normal behaviour. The monitor was generally located in a central location on a table or bar and not on the floor so the air being sampled was within the occupants' normal breathing zone. For each venue, the first and last minute of logged data were removed as they included measurements of outdoors and entryway air. The remaining data points were averaged to obtain the mean $PM_{2.5}$ concentration within the venue. Sampling was



Fig. 1. The participating countries in the Global Air Monitoring Study.



*Average PM2.5 level in Ireland following a comprehensive smoking ban. Note: The difference between smoking and smoke-free venues is statistically significant, p<0.001 from a Man-Whitney U-test.

Fig. 3. Average fine particle air pollution.

Air Quality	Air Quality Index	РМ _{2.5} (µg/m³)	Health Advisory	
Good	0-50	=15	None.	
Moderate	51-100	16~40	Unusually sensitive people should consider reducing prolonged or heavy exertion.	
Unhealthy for Sensitive Groups	101-150	41-65	People with heart or lung disease, older adults, and children should reduce prolonged or heavy exertion.	
Unhealthy	151-200	66-150	People with heart or lung disease, older adults, and children should avoid prolonged or heavy exertion. Everyone else should reduce prolonged or heavy exertion.	
Very Unhealthy (Alert)	201-300	151-250	People with heart or lung disease, older aduits, and children should avoid all physical activity outdoors. Everyone else should avoid prolonged or heavy exertion.	
Hazardous	=301	=251		

Fig. 5. US EPA Air Quality Index.

performed by associates in Singapore, and the data was analysed by the Roswell Park Cancer Institute staff.

Sampling of Venues

Fifteen venues were sampled in Singapore. The venues were selected to obtain a broad range of size, location and type of venue. Venues included bars, restaurants and a hospital. Table 1 presents some general descriptive information on the size and occupancy of each venue.



Fig. 2. TSI SidePak AM510 Personal Aerosol Monitor.



Note: The difference between smoking and smoke-free venues is statistically significant, p<0.001 from a Mann-Whitney U-test. "Other types of venues include a hotel lobby, food mall, and a hospital

Fig. 4. Average fine particle air pollution by type of venue.

Statistical Analyses

The primary goal was to assess the difference in the average levels of RSP in places that were smoke-free (no smoking observed during sampling) and places that were not (smoking was observed during sampling). Within each country, the mean RSP is reported across all of the venues sampled and these are then compared with the mean levels of all venues in the entire sample that were "smoke-free" and those that were not. Additionally, levels in venues where smoking occurred were compared with levels in venues in Ireland where there is a comprehensive smoking policy. The data from Ireland come from another study and are included as a reference group for the data in this study.¹⁶ Finally, the comparison between smoking and smoke-free venues is replicated for each type of venue. Statistical significance is assessed using the Mann-Whitney U-test.

Results

Table 1 presents detailed information about each venue sampled. Levels of indoor air pollution ranged from 11 to $1605 \ \mu g/m^3$.

Six of the venues sampled were smoke-free (no smoking

Table 1. Average PM25 Level in Each Venue

Venue #	Туре	Volume (m ³)	People (mean)	Cigarattes (mean)	Smoker Density*	Mean PM _{2.5} (ug/m ³)
1	Bar	720	20	5.0	0.69	88
2	Bar	600	14	6.0	1.00	672
3	Bar	263	25	12.0	4.57	226
4	Bar	298	32	11.0	3.70	820
5	Bar	400	24	10.0	2.50	254
6	Bar	400	23	10.0	2.50	1605
7	Bar	184	32	9.0	4.90	813
8	Bar	280	23	7.0	2.50	274
9	Bar	800	36	16.0	2.00	850
10	Other	6750	20	0.0	0.00	18
11	Other	25,000	100	0.0	0.00	39
12	Other	12,500	73	0.0	0.00	19
13	Outside				27	
14	Restaurant	1000	30	0.0	0.00	17
15	Other	1200	43	0.0	0.00	11
Total		3600	35	6.1	1.74	382

* Average number of burning cigarettes per 100 m3

was observed), and the average level of $PM_{2.5}$ in these venues was 22 µg/m³. Smoking was observed in 9 of the venues sampled, and the average level of $PM_{2.5}$ in these venues was 622 µg/m³. The level of indoor air pollution was 96% lower in venues that were smoke-free compared to venues where smoking was observed, and this difference was statistically significant (*P* <0.001) as determined by the Mann-Whitney U-test (Fig. 3).

Averaged across each type of venue, the lowest levels of indoor air pollution were found in restaurants (17 μ g/m³) and the highest levels were found in bars (622 μ g/m³) (Fig. 4).

Discussion

In the US, the EPA cited over 80 epidemiologic studies in creating a particulate air pollution standard in 1997.¹⁷ In order to protect public health, the EPA has set limits of $15 \ \mu g/m^{4.5}$ as the average annual level of PM_{2.5} exposure. Based on the latest scientific evidence, EPA staff currently propose even lower PM_{2.5} standards to adequately protect public health,¹⁸ making the current high PM_{2.5} exposures of people in smoking environments even more alarming.

Previous studies have evaluated air quality by measuring the change in levels of RSP between smoke-free venues and those that permit smoking. Ott et al¹⁹ did a study of a single tavern in California and showed an 82% average decrease in RSP levels after smoking was prohibited by a city ordinance. Repace²⁰ studied 8 hospitality venues in Delaware before and after a statewide prohibition of smoking in these types of venues and found that about 90% of the fine particle pollution could be attributed to tobacco smoke. Similarly, in a study of 22 hospitality venues in Western New York, Travers et al²¹ found a 90% reduction in RSP levels in bars and restaurants, and 84% reduction in large recreation venues such as bingo halls and bowling alleys, and even a 58% reduction in locations where only SHS from an adjacent room was observed at baseline. A cross-sectional study of 53 hospitality venues in 7 major cities across the US showed 82% less indoor air pollution in the locations subject to smoke-free air laws, even though compliance with the laws was less than 100%.²² The US EPA Air Quality Index (Fig. 5) gives a guideline to assessing the severity of air pollution according to the level of PM_{2.5} (mg/m³) in the air.

Other studies have directly assessed the role SHS exposure has on human health. One study found that respiratory health improved rapidly in a sample of bartenders after a state smoke-free workplace law was implemented in California,²³ and another study reported a 40% reduction in acute myocardial infarctions in patients admitted to a regional hospital during the 6 months that a local smokefree ordinance was in effect.²⁴ Farrelly et al²⁵ also showed a significant decrease in both salivary cotinine concentrations and sensory symptoms in hospitality workers after New York State's smoke-free law prohibited smoking in their worksites.

Conclusions

Hospitality venues that allow indoor air smoking in Singapore are significantly more polluted than both indoor smoke-free sites and outdoor air in Singapore. This study demonstrates that workers and patrons in such venues are exposed to harmful levels of a known carcinogen and toxin, with the average level of $PM_{2.5}$ (622 µg/m³) being well above the hazardous level ($\geq 251 \mu g/m^3$) of the US EPA Air Quality Index. Policies that prohibit smoking in public worksites dramatically reduce second-hand smoke exposure and improve worker and patron health.

Acknowledgements

The research was funded by grants from the U.S. National Cancer Institute/NIH (from the Roswell Park Transdisciplinary Tobacco Use Research Center (TTURC), P50 CA111236, and from the Flight Attendant Medical Research Foundation (FAMRI).

REFERENCES

- International Agency for Research on Cancer. IARC Monographs on the Evaluation of Carcinogenic Risk to Humans. Volume 83. Tobacco Smoke and Involuntary Smoking.
- The Health Consequences of Involuntary Exposure to Tobacco Smoke: A Report of the Surgeon General. Chapter 2. Toxicology of Second-hand Smoke. Last revised 4 January 2007.

- 3. National Cancer Institute. Smoking and Tobacco Control. Risks Associated with Smoking Cigarettes with Low Machine-Measured Yields of Tar and Nicotine. Monograph 13.
- Hoffmann D, Hoffmann I, El-Bayoumy K. The less harmful cigarette: a controversial issue. A tribute to Ernst L. Wynder. Chem Res Toxicol 2001;14:767-90.
- US Department of Health and Human Services, The health consequences of involuntary smoking. A report of the Surgeon General, 1986. Rockville, Maryland: Public Health Service, Centers for Disease Control, 1986.
- US Environmental Protection Agency, Health Effects of Passive Smoking: Assessment of Lung Cancer in Adults, and Respiratory Disorders in Children, 1992.
- US Environmental Protection Agency, Fine Particle (PM 2.5) Designations. Available at: http://www.epa.gov/pmdesignations. Accessed 4 December 2006.
- National Toxicology Program. 9th Report on Carcinogens 2000. US Department of Health and Human Services, National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences: Research Triangle Park, 2000.
- 9. World Health Organization, Tobacco Smoke and Involuntary Smoking. IARC, 2004.
- World Health Organization Framework Convention on Tobacco Control. Updated reprint 2004, 2005. World Health Organization, 2003.
- Conference of the Parties to the World Health Organization Framework Convention on Tobacco Control; 6 July 2007.
- Health Promotion Board, Singapore. National Smoking Control Programme (NSCP). Available at: http://www.hpb.gov.sg/hpb. Accessed 16 January 2007.
- Pope C, Burnett R, Thun M, Calle E, Krewski D, Ito K, et al. Lung cancer, cardiopulmonary mortality, and long-term exposure to fine particulate air pollution. JAMA 2002;8:1132-41.
- Pope CA 3rd, Muhlestein JB, May HT, Renlund DG, Anderson JL, Horne BD. Ischemic heart disease events triggered by short-term exposure to fine particulate air pollution. Circulation 2006;5;114:2430-1.
- 15. Ott W, Switzer P, Robinson J. Particle concentrations inside a tavern

before and after prohibition of smoking: evaluating the performance of an indoor air quality model. J Air Waste Manag Assoc 1996;46:1120-34.

- Mulcahy M, Clancy L, Connolly G, Carpenter C, Travers M, Cummings KM, et al. How smoke-free laws improve air quality: a global study of Irish pubs. Galway, Ireland: Health Service Executive-West Environmental Health Department, 2006.
- US Environmental Protection Agency. National ambient air quality standards for particulate matter; final rule. Federal Register 1997;62:38651-701.
- Environmental Protection Agency. January 2005 Draft Staff Paper for Particulate Matter Fact Sheet. Available at: http://www.epa.gov/airlinks/ pdfs/pmstaff2_fact.pdfix. Accessed 24 October 2005.
- Ott W, Switzer P, Robinson J. Particle concentrations inside a tavern before and after prohibition of smoking: evaluating the performance of an indoor air quality model. J Air Waste Manag Assoc 1996;46:1120-34.
- Repace JL. An air quality survey of respirable particles and particulate carcinogens in Delaware hospitality venues before and after a smoking ban. Repace Associates Inc, 2003.
- Travers MJ, Cummings KM, Hyland A, Repace JL, Pechacek TF, Caraballo R, et al. Indoor Air Quality in Hospitality Venues Before and After the Implementation of a Clean Indoor Air Law – Western New York. Morbidity Mortality Weekly Report 2003;53:1038-41.
- 22. Hyland A, Travers MJ, Repace JL. 7 City Air Monitoring Study, March-April 2004. Roswell Park Cancer Institute, May 2004.
- 23. Eisner MD, Smith AK, Blanc PD. Bartenders' respiratory health after establishment of smokefree bars and taverns. JAMA 1998;280:1909-14.
- Sargent RP, Shepard RM, Glantz SA. Reduced incidence of admissions for myocardial infarction associated with public smoking ban: before and after study. BMJ 2004;328:977-80.
- Farrelly MC, Nonnemaker JM, Chou R, Hyland A, Peterson KK, Bauer UE. Changes in hospitality workers' exposure to secondhand smoke following the implementation of New York's smoke-free law. Tob Control 2005;14:236-41.