

Socio-economic and Psychosocial Determinants of Smoking and Passive Smoking in Older Adults *

ZHANG Dong Mei^{1,2,†}, HU Zhi^{1,†}, ORTON Sophie^{2,3,†}, WANG Jia Ji⁴,
ZHENG Jian Zhong⁵, QIN Xia¹, and CHEN Ruo Ling^{1,6,#}

1. School of Health Administration, Anhui Medical University, Hefei 230032, Anhui, China; 2. Centre for Health and Social Care Improvement, School of Health and Wellbeing, University of Wolverhampton, Wolverhampton WV1 1DT, UK; 3. Division of Primary Care, University of Nottingham, Nottingham NG7 2RD, UK; 4. School of Public Health and General Practice, Guangzhou Medical University, Guangzhou 510182, Guangdong, China; 5. Department of Health Administration and Service, Shanxi Medical University, Taiyuan 030001, Shanxi, China; 6. Division of Health and Social Care Research, King's College London, London SE1 3QU, UK

Abstract

Objective To determine the associations of socio-economic and psychosocial factors with active and passive smoking in older adults.

Methods Using a standard interview method, we examined random samples of 6071 people aged ≥ 60 years in 5 provinces of China during 2007-2009.

Results World age-standardised prevalence for current and former smoking in men was 45.6% and 20.5%, and in women 11.1% and 4.5%. Current smoking reduced with older age but increased with men, low socioeconomic status (SES), alcohol drinking, being never-married, pessimistic and depressive syndromes. Former smoking was associated with men, secondary school education, a middle-high income, being a businessman, being widowed, less frequencies of visiting children/relatives and friends, and worrying about children. Among 3774 never-smokers, the prevalence of passive smoking was 31.5%, and the risk increased with women, low SES, alcohol drinking, being married, having a religious believe, and daily visiting children/relatives. There were sex differences in the associations, and an interaction effect of education and income on smoking and passive smoking.

Conclusion Older Chinese had a higher level of smoking and passive smoking than those in high income countries, reflecting China's failures in controlling smoking. The associations with low SES and different psychosocial aspects and sex differences suggest preventative strategies for active and passive smoking.

Key words: Smoking; Second-hand smoke; Socio-economic; Psychosocial; Older adults

Biomed Environ Sci, 2013; 26(6):453-467 doi: 10.3967/0895-3988.2013.06.006 ISSN:0895-3988
www.besjournal.com(full text) CN: 11-2816/Q Copyright ©2013 by China CDC

*The data collection in this study was supported by the Research Grants from the BUPA Foundation (45NOV06) and Alzheimer's Research Trust (ART/PPG2007B/2) in the UK. and Anhui provincial natural science foundation for institutions of higher education (KJ2013A164) Dr ZHANG Dong Mei was supported by the Strategic Research Development Fund, University of Wolverhampton in Centre for Health and Social Care Improvement, School of Health and Wellbeing, UK.

#Correspondence should be addressed to Professor CHEN Ruo Ling, School of Health Administration, Anhui Medical University, Hefei 230032, Anhui, China. Tel: 86-551-651611237, Fax: 86-551-65167714, E-mail: r_chen77@hotmail.com

Biographical note of the first author: ZHANG Dong Mei, female, born in 1967, Ph.D, associate professor, majoring in epidemiology and chronic disease management.

†contributed equally.

Received: February 27, 2012;

Accepted: February 12, 2013

INTRODUCTION

As the most preventable cause of premature death and disability, cigarette smoking is one of the most important public health challenges worldwide^[1]. It not only directly damages the smoker's health, but also increases varying types of morbidities and mortality among non-smokers via passive smoking or second-hand smoking (SHS)^[2-4]. Smoking and passive smoking have been recognised to impose a huge burden on individuals, communities and health services. Many high income countries, such as the UK, have set up education campaigns and regulation to control smoking and passive smoking, with their prevalence rates declining^[1].

China is the world's largest producer and consumer of tobacco. A 1996 national survey showed that the prevalence rate for ever smokers was 66.9% for men and 4.2% for women over the age of 15 years, and of the non-smokers, 53.5% were regularly exposed to passive smoking^[5]. In 2002, ever-smoking rates in males and females aged 15 and over were 66.0% and 3.1%, respectively. The level of passive smoking exposure was however not improved, with the prevalence of passive smoking in non-smokers 51.9%^[6].

There is evidence that smoking and passive smoking in later life increase the risk of mortality and chronic diseases^[4], including dementia^[7-8]. Cutting smoking after the age of 65 years would benefit older people for their health and survival^[9]. However, previous studies of investigating behaviours of smoking and passive smoking exposure were predominately undertaken in young and middle aged populations, and few studies have been done in older people. The associations of socio-economic status (SES) and psychosocial factors with smoking and passive smoking exposure in older people are unclear. Studying the patterns of smoking and passive smoking in an older population will offer applicable insights into the control of smoking and passive smoking exposure.

Using a standard method, we carried out a multicentre study of older people's health in China, characterising details of smoking and passive smoking, and SES and psychosocial factors^[8,10]. In this study, we aimed to examine the associations of socio-economic status and psychosocial factors with smoking and passive smoking exposure.

METHODS

Study Population

The participants were derived from a 4-province

study of dementia^[10], and to increase the study power, also from participants in the 3rd wave survey of the Anhui study^[11].

The Four Provinces Study The methods have been fully described elsewhere^[10]. In brief, in 2008-2009 we selected one rural and one urban community from each of 4 provinces (Guangdong, Heilongjiang, Shanghai, and Shanxi) as the study fields, trying to recruit no fewer than 500 participants in each community. We employed a cluster random sampling method to choose residential communities from each of 4 provinces (detailed location data on request). The target population consisted of those residents aged ≥60 years who had lived in the areas for at least 5 years. Ethical approval for the study was obtained from the Research Ethics Committee, University College London, UK, and the Ethics Committee of Anhui Medical University in China. Based on the residency list of the committees of the village and the district, we recruited a total of 4314 participants, with an overall response rate of 93.8%. Permission for interview and informed consent were obtained from each participant or, if that was not possible, from the closest responsible adult. The participants were interviewed at home by each local survey team from Guangzhou, Harbin, and Shanxi Medical Universities, and School of Public Health of Fudan University. The main interview materials included the Geriatric Mental State (GMS) questionnaire^[12], other components of the 10/66 algorithm dementia research package^[13-14], and a general health and risk factors record^[15]. According to standard procedures^[16-17], we measured systolic and diastolic blood pressure, height, weight, and waist circumference for all participants.

The 3rd Wave Survey of the Anhui Study This was based on our Anhui cohort, which was set up in 2001 with a long-term follow up^[11]. The methods of the Anhui cohort study have been fully described before^[10-11]. In brief, in 2001-2003 we examined a random sample of 3 336 residents aged ≥60 years in Anhui province (*wave 1*) using the standard interview method of GMS-AGECAT^[18]. One year after the baseline investigation we re-examined 2608 cohort members (*wave 2*)^[19-20]. In 2007-2009 we carried out the 3rd wave of the survey within the cohort, successfully interviewing 1757 participants with a response rate of 82.4% of surviving cohort members^[11]. The *wave 3* interview protocol was similar to that in the 4-province study above.

Measurements of Socio-economic and Psychosocial Factors

In the general health and risk factors questionnaire, we recorded participant's socio-

demographic data, including educational level, main occupation status, annual personal and family incomes and whether they lived in a rural or urban area (rural people had much lower levels of education, occupation, and income^[21]). Psychosocial aspects were characterised, including social network and support and relationships^[15]. We employed a computer program-assisted diagnosis, the Automated Geriatric Examination for Computer Assisted Taxonomy (AGECAT)^[18], to analyse the information from the GMS to assess depressive syndromes in the study participants. The GMS-AGECAT diagnosis methods were fully described in our previous publications^[12,15,19-20]. In brief, AGECAT was developed using a theoretical model and tested against its success at replicating diagnoses on samples diagnosed by psychiatrists. It first attempts to replicate the process by which a psychiatrist achieves a syndromal diagnosis followed by a differential diagnosis. GMS symptoms are coalesced into 150 'symptoms components'. The symptom components are brought together into groups that typify the major symptom areas of each diagnostic syndrome. The scores on these individual groups determine the final syndromal level of 'confidence of diagnosis'. Thus the system uses both quantitative and qualitative measures when allocating subjects to levels of confidence, and required for its construction, many hundreds of clinical decisions on the placement of groups of symptom components on the syndrome levels. Individual participants are allocated to levels of confidence of diagnosis (0-5) on each of the eight diagnostic syndromes: organic disorder, depression, mania, schizophrenia and paranoid, obsessional, phobic, hypochondriacal, and general anxiety^[20].

Definition of Smoking and Passive Smoking Exposure

In the general health and risk factors record, we asked the participants for information on smoking habits and passive smoking exposure, using a similar questionnaire to the Scottish MONICA surveys^[17,22]. The methods of defining smoking and passive smoking have been described in previous papers^[8,17,22]. In brief, the current smokers were those who gave a positive answer to "*Do you smoke cigarettes now?*". If yes, we asked additional information including the number of cigarettes smoked daily, maximum number smoked daily in the last 2 years, and duration of smoking habit. If not currently smoking, participants were asked about their smoking history and related information. We

defined 'never-smokers' as those who gave negative answers to both enquiries. After giving details of smoking status, all participants were required to provide the answers 'yes' or 'no' relating to exposure to passive smoking. Three sources of passive smoking exposure were given (home, workplace, and other places) and respondents were given three choices: *no, none at all; yes, some; or yes, a lot*. Duration of exposure to each of the three sources of passive smoking was recorded in number of years.

Statistical Analysis

The 4-province data was combined with the Anhui 3rd wave survey data (*waves 1 and 2 did not have passive smoking data available*) for analysis. The prevalence rates of smoking and passive smoking (with 95% confidence intervals-CIs) were calculated and standardised against the world population of 2007-09 (www.census.gov) by the age ranges: 65-69, 70-74, 75-79, and ≥80 years. Distributions of demographic, socio-economic and psychosocial factors among current, former and never smoking were tested by Chi-square. Instead of a logistic regression model analysis we employed proportional hazards regression models to calculate a prevalence rate ratio (PRR) of increased active and passive smoking among participants with different socio-economic and psychosocial factors, according to the methods which we used in previous studies^[23-24]. Compared to a prevalence odds ratio in the logistic model, PRR would generate more conservative findings of the associations between risk factors and smoking and passive smoking due to robust variances adjusted in the models^[25-26]. Since there were some differences in socio-economic indicators or other variables of interest among 5 provinces we included the 5-province geographic areas data to account for clustering in the estimation of the models. All analyses were performed in STATA, version 11 (Stata, College Station, Texas).

RESULTS

Of 6071 participants, 5962 (98.2%) reported smoking status; 1438 current smokers and 737 former smokers. World age standardized prevalence of current smoking was 45.6% (95% CI 42.6%-48.6%) in men and 11.1% (9.87%-12.3%) in women, and of former smoking 20.5% (18.6%-22.4%) and 4.49% (3.73%-5.26%) respectively.

Table 1 gives the numbers, frequencies and relative risk for basic characteristics, socio-economic

Table 1. Distribution of Risk Factors and Relative Risk of Smoking in the 5 provinces Health Study of Older Adults, China

Variable	Smoking Status				Age-sex Adjusted Relative Risk			
	Current-		Former-		Never-		Current-smoking	
	n=1438	(%)	n=737	(%)	n=3787	(%)	RR†	P Value
Age groups (years)								
60-64	295	30.3	100	10.3	579	59.4	1.00	1.00
65-69	337	29.6	106	9.3	696	61.1	0.97	0.90
70-74	316	22.4	180	12.7	916	64.9	0.72	1.20
75-79	252	20.9	180	14.9	776	64.2	0.65	1.35
≥80	236	19.4	171	14.1	809	66.5	0.61	1.29
Sex								
Men	1084	41.5	581	22.2	950	36.3	1.00	1.00
Women	353	10.6	156	4.7	2833	84.8	0.25	0.21
Urban/rurality								
Urban	350	12.6	344	12.4	2084	75.0	1.00	1.00
Rural	1088	34.2	393	12.3	1703	53.5	2.50	1.00
Educational level								
College/University	34	10.6	58	18.0	230	71.4	0.58	1.27
High Secondary School	95	17.2	67	12.1	391	70.7	1.00	1.00
Secondary school	202	24.0	136	16.2	504	59.9	1.29	1.31
Primary school	458	30.2	202	13.3	858	56.5	1.81	1.25
Illiterate (or no school)	648	23.8	272	10.0	1798	66.2	2.07	1.18
Main occupation								
Official/teacher	157	16.9	173	18.6	599	64.5	1.00	1.00
Businessman	7	17.5	12	30.0	21	52.5	1.25	2.62
Others	85	20.4	47	11.3	284	68.3	1.51	0.85
Manual labourer	170	16.4	124	11.7	743	71.6	1.19	0.89
Peasant	967	31.7	358	12.0	1727	56.6	2.21	0.85
House wife	51	10.6	22	4.6	408	84.8	1.75	0.81
Annual personal income (RMB Yuan)								
≥20 000	206	17.7	185	15.9	773	66.4	0.79	0.97
10 000-19 999	317	18.5	207	12.0	1194	69.5	1.00	1.00

Variable	Smoking Status					Age-sex Adjusted Relative Risk						Continued
	Current-		Former-		Never-	Current-smoking			Former-smoking			
	n=1438	(%)	n=737	(%)		RR†	(95% CI)	P Value	RR†	(95% CI)	P Value	
2000-9999	528	31.1	200	11.8	968	57.1	1.66	(1.40-1.97)	<0.001	1.01	(0.74-1.38)	0.942
<2000	387	28.0	145	10.5	852	61.6	1.72	(1.26-2.34)	0.001	0.93	(0.67-1.31)	0.694
Average annual income per one family (RMB Yuan)												
≥20 000	380	16.9	280	12.5	1588	70.6	0.86	(0.67-1.10)	0.228	0.87	(0.80-0.95)	0.002
10 000-19 999	213	18.5	145	12.6	795	69.0	1.00			1.00		
2000-9999	414	32.2	169	13.2	701	54.6	1.62	(1.15-2.28)	0.006	1.01	(0.69-1.47)	0.975
<2000	431	33.8	143	11.2	703	55.1	1.83	(1.26-2.68)	0.002	0.88	(0.50-1.53)	0.640
Drinking alcohol												
No	915	18.2	569	11.3	3545	70.5	1.00		<0.001	1.00		
Yes	522	56.4	167	18.0	237	25.6	1.89	(1.77-2.01)	<0.001	0.93	(0.74-1.17)	0.536
Having a religious belief												
No	1284	25.7	651	13.0	3061	61.3	1.00		<0.001	1.00		
Yes, with activity	91	20.1	54	8.2	512	70.4	0.78	(0.54-1.12)	0.185	0.97	(0.87-1.08)	0.614
Yes, without ctivity	59	13.9	28	9.5	207	77.9	0.94	(0.52-1.70)	0.838	0.96	(0.77-1.19)	0.703
Marital status												
Married	1070	25.6	531	12.7	2575	61.7	1.00		<0.001	1.00		
Widow	300	18.7	178	11.1	1128	70.2	1.11	(0.95-1.29)	0.188	1.15	(1.04-1.26)	0.004
Divorced	13	44.8	3	10.3	13	44.8	1.31	(0.82-2.08)	0.255	0.77	(0.24-2.45)	0.653
Never married	54	37.2	24	16.6	67	46.2	1.17	(1.07-1.28)	0.001	1.03	(0.86-1.23)	0.784
Living with												
Nobody	74	22.7	142	11.8	409	65.4	1.00			1.00		
Family members/others	662	24.2	1292	12.4	3375	63.3	0.95	(0.79-1.15)	0.612	1.00	(0.80-1.25)	0.997
Visiting children or relatives												
Everyday	138	23.9	361	9.1	1011	67.0	1.00			1.00		
1-3/ week	251	24.0	459	13.1	1203	62.9	0.94	(0.78-1.13)	0.498	1.29	(0.99-1.69)	0.064

Continued

Variable	Smoking Status					Age-sex Adjusted Relative Risk							
	Current-		Former-		Never-	Current-smoking			Former-smoking				
	n=1438	(%)	n=737	(%)		RR†	(95% CI)	P Value	RR†	(95% CI)	P Value		
≤1/ month	348	24.3	613	13.8	1560	61.9	<0.001	0.98	(0.78-1.24)	0.879	1.44	(1.25-1.65)	<0.001
Contact with friends in the local community													
Everyday	225	23.0	456	11.4	1301	65.6	<0.001	1.00			1.00		
1-3/ week	273	26.0	620	11.4	1494	62.6		1.12	(0.92-1.35)	0.250	0.98	(0.83-1.16)	0.839
≤1/ month	237	22.8	357	15.1	975	62.1		0.97	(0.69-1.38)	0.888	1.29	(1.07-1.55)	0.007
Visiting neighbour													
Everyday	240	24.1	497	11.7	1323	64.2	<0.001	1.00			1.00		
1-3/ week	232	27.5	511	12.5	1118	60.1		1.13	(0.98-1.30)	0.092	1.02	(0.94-1.12)	0.581
≤1/ month	265	21.0	424	13.1	1329	65.9		0.85	(0.63-1.14)	0.277	1.07	(0.76-1.50)	0.710
Participating in senior community activity in leisure time													
No	643	24.6	1303	12.1	3351	63.3	0.039	1.00			1.00		
Yes	91	20.4	131	14.2	420	65.4		0.76	(0.60-0.98)	0.034	1.08	(0.82-1.42)	0.605
Optimistic													
Yes	630	26.5	1162	10.1	3124	63.3		1.00			1.00		
No	104	23.6	272	12.8	649	63.5	0.020	1.21	(1.04-1.39)	0.011	0.85	(0.65-1.11)	0.235
Worrying about children													
No	644	23.7	1232	12.4	3325	63.9	0.115	1.00			1.00		
Yes	91	27.1	199	12.4	444	60.5		1.21	(0.96-1.53)	0.103	1.16	(1.02-1.31)	0.026
Depression syndromes (level)													
0	1243	23.6	642	12.2	3375	64.2	0.040	1.00			1.00		
1-2	107	29.7	49	13.6	204	56.7		1.52	(1.06-2.18)	0.023	1.31	(0.82-2.07)	0.257
≥3	87	26.0	45	13.4	203	60.6		1.40	(0.98-1.98)	0.061	1.43	(0.88-2.33)	0.150

and psychosocial factors for current- and former-smoking in older adults in China. Risk of current smoking reduced with older age, but increased with male sex, living in a rural area, low levels of education, occupation, and personal and family incomes, drinking alcohol, being divorced/never-married, not participating in senior community activity, being pessimistic and having depressive syndromes. It was not significantly associated with having a religious belief, living with family members, frequencies of visiting children/relatives/neighbours and contacting

friends, and worrying about children (Table 1).
The data analysis for male participants showed similar associations to those in the whole data, but additionally, the risk of current smoking increased with living alone, daily visiting children/relatives/neighbours and having middle level of depressive syndromes (Table 2). For women, the significant association was only with low socioeconomic status, less frequencies of visiting children/relatives and friends, worrying about children and having depressive syndromes (Table 2).

Table 2. Age-adjusted Relative Risk of currently Smoking in Men and Women in the 5-provinces Health Study of Older Adults, China

Variable	Current Smoking					
	Men			Women		
	RR†	(95% CI)	P Value	RR†	(95% CI)	P Value
Age groups (years)						
60-64	1.00			1.00		
65-69	0.97	(0.86-1.10)	0.672	0.97	(0.61-1.55)	0.901
70-74	0.71	(0.63-0.80)	<0.001	0.74	(0.48-1.14)	0.167
75-79	0.63	(0.51-0.79)	<0.001	0.69	(0.40-1.20)	0.188
≥80	0.63	(0.48-0.83)	0.001	0.53	(0.21-1.32)	0.173
Urban/rurality						
Urban	1.00			1.00		
Rural	2.19	(1.59-3.03)	<0.001	3.80	(1.83-7.88)	<0.001
Educational level						
College/University	0.48	(0.29-0.80)	0.004	1.80	(0.44-7.31)	0.412
High secondary school	1.00			1.00		
Secondary school	1.29	(1.13-1.47)	<0.001	1.19	(0.55-2.55)	0.659
Primary school	1.63	(1.35-1.95)	<0.001	3.43	(1.27-9.26)	0.015
Illiterate	1.97	(1.63-3.38)	<0.001	3.18	(0.84-12.1)	0.089
Main occupation						
Official/teacher	1.00			1.00		
Businessman	1.22	(0.67-2.24)	0.518	1.49	(0.39-5.62)	0.559
Others	1.53	(1.41-1.65)	<0.001	1.59	(0.37-6.77)	0.530
Manual labourer	1.23	(1.01-1.49)	0.036	1.17	(0.68-2.01)	0.567
Peasant	2.15	(1.61-2.87)	<0.001	2.68	(1.37-5.27)	0.004
House wife	NA			2.07	(1.50-2.84)	<0.001
Personal income per year (RMB Yuan)						
≥20 000	0.73	(0.51-1.05)	0.088	1.06	(0.68-1.65)	0.792
10 000-19 999	1.00			1.00		
2000-9999	1.49	(1.26-1.75)	<0.001	2.37	(2.06-2.73)	<0.001
<2000	1.61	(1.41-1.85)	<0.001	2.14	(1.04-4.41)	0.039
Average family income per year (RMB Yuan)						
≥20 000	0.88	(0.75-1.02)	0.091	0.76	(0.41-1.41)	0.382
10 000-19 999	1.00			1.00		
2000-9999	1.46	(1.19-1.79)	<0.001	2.16	(0.86-5.42)	0.101
<2000	1.75	(1.43-2.14)	<0.001	2.11	(0.66-1.73)	0.208

Continued

Variable	Current Smoking					
	Men			Women		
	RR†	(95% CI)	P Value	RR†	(95% CI)	P Value
Drinking alcohol						
No	1.00			1.00		
Yes	1.76	(1.67-1.85)	<0.001	3.59	(2.44-5.26)	<0.001
Marital status						
Married	1.00			1.00		
Widow	1.11	(0.92-1.33)	0.277	1.12	(0.86-1.44)	0.401
Divorced	1.38	(1.05-1.82)	0.021	0.81	(0.10-6.55)	0.846
Never married	1.24	(1.12-1.36)	<0.001	0.64	(0.14-2.89)	0.562
Having a religious belief						
No	1.00			1.00		
Yes, with activity	0.89	(0.77-1.02)	0.090	0.67	(0.33-1.36)	0.268
Yes, without activity	0.86	(0.71-1.05)	0.138	1.10	(0.30-4.01)	0.891
Living with						
Nobody	1.00			1.00		
Family members/others	0.85	(0.76-0.96)	0.007	1.35	(0.77-2.38)	0.295
Visiting children or relatives						
Everyday	1.00			1.00		
1-3/ week	0.83	(0.72-0.96)	0.010	1.40	(1.04-1.88)	0.027
≤1/ month	0.86	(0.70-1.05)	0.128	1.53	(1.06-2.19)	0.022
Contact with friends						
Everyday	1.00			1.00		
1-3/ week	1.05	(0.96-1.15)	0.311	1.38	(0.88-2.18)	0.164
≤1/ month	0.85	(0.61-1.18)	0.342	1.46	(1.14-1.89)	0.003
Visiting neighbour						
Everyday	1.00			1.00		
1-3/ week	1.06	(0.98-1.15)	0.144	1.38	(0.89-2.12)	0.146
≤1/ month	0.79	(0.62-1.01)	0.058	1.05	(0.65-1.70)	0.837
Participating in senior community activity in leisure time						
No	1.00			1.00		
Yes	0.77	(0.64-0.93)	0.007	0.75	(0.31-1.82)	0.529
Optimistic						
Yes	1.00			1.00		
No	1.24	(1.05-1.47)	0.013	1.11	(0.73-1.69)	0.618
Worrying about children						
No	1.00			1.00		
Yes	1.03	(0.92-1.17)	0.587	1.70	(1.28-2.26)	<0.001
Depression syndromes (level)						
0	1.00			1.00		
1-2	1.24	(1.10-1.40)	<0.001	2.21	(1.10-4.44)	0.026
≥3	1.08	(0.92-1.28)	0.334	2.01	(1.11-3.63)	0.021

Former smoking was associated with male sex, having secondary school education (compared to high school), being a businessman, middle level of family income (>1999 - <20 000 RMB), being widowed, less frequencies of visiting children/relatives or contacting friends, and worrying about children. Other factors in Table 1 were not significantly related to former smoking. Separate data analysis by sex showed that in men the significant association was for older age [RR 1.54 (95% CI 1.14-2.06) for 75-79 years old, and 1.42 (1.00-2.00) for ≥80 years old] businessmen (2.02, 1.26-3.24), being widowed (1.08, 1.00-1.17), visiting children/relatives ≤ monthly (1.25, 1.07-1.46). In women it was associated with low levels of education (3.91, 1.50-10.2 for 2nd school, 4.25, 1.70-10.6 for illiterate), occupation (2.07, 1.44-2.99 for peasant, 8.48, 2.97-24.2 for businessman) and annual personal income (1.94, 1.07-3.54 for <10 000 RMB vs ≥10 000 RMB), being widowed (1.39, 1.10-1.74), less frequencies of visiting children/relatives (2.03, 1.78-2.31 for 1-3 times per week, 2.41, 1.67-3.48 ≤ monthly) and contacting friends (1.31, 1.08-1.58 for <daily) and worrying about children (1.34, 1.04-1.73).

Among 3787 never-smokers, 3774 (99.6%) had available data for passive smoking. World age-standardized prevalence of passive smoking was 31.5% (29.5%-33.5%); 24.4% (20.6%-28.3%) in men vs 33.7% (31.4%-36.0%) in women. In men who

experienced passive smoking, 56.7% were involved in exposure at home, 49.8% at work and 48.4% at other places, while in women the correspondent figures were 88.0%, 22.5% and 31.6% respectively.

Table 3 gives the numbers, frequencies and relative risk for basic characteristics and socio-economic and psychological factors in relation to passive smoking exposure. The risk of exposure to passive smoking increased with female sex, living in rural areas, low socio-economic status, being married (1.31, 1.03-1.66, vs others), drinking alcohol, having a religious belief (1.33, 1.04-1.72), and daily visiting of children/relatives (1.14, 1.02-1.25, vs others). Separate data analysis by sex showed that in men it was significantly associated with educational levels of ≥university (1.40, 1.04-1.88), or ≤secondary school (1.91, 1.38-2.63, vs high secondary school), businessman (4.21, 2.62-6.79), having a religious belief, living with family members (1.52, 1.16-2.00), ≤monthly visiting children (1.34, 1.01-1.79). In women it was increased with living in rural areas (1.57, 1.02-2.42), being illiterate (1.79, 1.09-2.95), low occupation (1.46, 1.23-1.73 for manual labourer, 2.08, 1.19-3.65 for peasant, and 1.53, 1.04-2.25 for housewife), annual personal income of <10 000 RMB (1.46, 1.09-1.97 for 2000-9999 RMB, 1.67, 1.18-2.38 for <2000 RMB, vs ≥10 000 RMB), being married, drinking alcohol, having a religious belief and daily visiting children/relatives.

Table 3. Distribution of Risk Factors and Age-sex Adjusted RR of Passive Smoking in the 5 provinces Study Health of Older Adults, China

Variable	Passive Smoking					Age-sex Adjusted Relative Risk		
	Yes		No		P Value	RR	(95% CI)	P Value
	n=1160	(%)	n=2614	(%)				
Age groups (years)								
60-64	190	32.9	388	67.1	0.165	1.00		
65-69	232	33.4	462	66.6		1.02	(0.83-1.24)	0.862
70-74	278	30.4	637	69.6		0.94	(0.84-1.06)	0.323
75-79	216	28.0	555	72.0		0.87	(0.73-1.04)	0.123
≥80	242	30.1	563	69.9		0.93	(0.71-1.22)	0.606
Sex								
Men	218	23.1	727	76.9	<0.001	1.00		
Women	941	33.3	1884	66.7		1.44	(1.19-1.73)	<0.001
Urban/rurality								
Urban	498	42.9	1585	60.6	<0.001	1.00		
Rural	662	57.1	1029	39.4		1.59	(1.07-2.35)	0.022

Variable	Passive Smoking				P Value	Age-sex Adjusted Relative Risk		
	Yes		No			RR	(95% CI)	P Value
	n=1160	(%)	n=2614	(%)				
Educational level								
College/University	54	23.5	176	76.5	<0.001	1.28	(0.93-1.77)	0.130
High secondary school	75	19.2	316	80.8		1.00		
Secondary school	110	21.9	393	78.1		1.11	(0.85-1.45)	0.438
Primary school	270	31.8	580	68.2		1.56	(1.16-2.08)	0.003
Illiterate	650	36.2	1146	63.8		1.78	(1.14-2.80)	0.012
Main occupation								
Official/teacher	108	18.1	490	81.9	<0.001	1.00		
Businessman	6	28.6	15	71.4		1.42	(0.92-2.19)	0.112
Others	60	21.2	223	78.8		1.10	(0.61-1.97)	0.753
Manual labourer	200	27.0	542	73.0		1.40	(1.18-1.66)	<0.001
Peasant	664	38.6	1056	61.4		1.96	(1.28-3.01)	0.002
House wife	122	29.9	286	70.1		1.46	(0.98-2.17)	0.066
Personal income per year (RMB Yuan)								
≥20 000	166	21.5	606	78.5	<0.001	1.00		
10 000-19 999	328	27.6	861	72.4		1.19	(0.89-1.61)	0.228
2000-9999	343	35.6	620	64.4		1.52	(1.23-1.87)	<0.001
<2000	323	38.0	527	62.0		1.62	(1.26-2.10)	<0.001
Average family income per year (RMB Yuan)								
≥20 000	459	29.0	1126	71.0	<0.001	1.00		
10 000-19 999	204	25.9	585	74.1		0.87	(0.70-1.08)	0.206
2000-9999	226	32.3	473	67.7		1.07	(0.94-1.22)	0.291
<2000	271	38.7	430	61.3		1.27	(0.97-1.68)	0.086
Marriage								
Married	842	32.8	1722	67.2	<0.001	1.00		
Widow	298	26.4	829	73.6		0.76	(0.60-0.96)	0.023
Divorced	1	7.7	12	92.3		0.23	(0.02-2.20)	0.209
Never married	19	28.4	48	71.6		0.91	(0.59-1.41)	0.672
Drinking alcohol								
No	1070	30.3	2465	69.7	0.007	1.00		
Yes	90	38.3	145	61.7		1.49	(1.06-2.09)	0.022
Having a religious belief								
No	873	28.6	2182	71.4	<0.001	1.00		
Yes, with activity	210	41.3	298	58.7		1.37	(1.00-1.87)	0.053
Yes, without activity	77	37.2	130	62.8		1.27	(1.09-1.48)	0.002

Variable	Passive Smoking					Age-sex Adjusted Relative Risk		
	Yes		No		P Value	RR	(95% CI)	P Value
	n=1160	(%)	n=2614	(%)				
Living with								
Nobody	105	25.7	303	74.3	0.011	1.00		
Family members/others	1054	31.3	2310	68.7		1.23	(0.93-1.63)	0.138
Worrying about children								
No	1014	30.6	2304	69.4	0.209	1.00		
Yes	144	32.6	298	67.4		1.03	(0.87-1.22)	0.690
Visiting children or Relatives								
Everyday	345	34.3	662	65.7	<0.001	1.00		
1-3/ week	315	26.3	882	73.7		0.80	(0.72-0.87)	<0.001
≤1/ month	497	31.9	1063	68.1		0.95	(0.86-1.05)	0.320
Contact with friends								
Everyday	431	33.2	866	66.8	0.035	1.00		
1-3/ week	446	30.0	1042	70.0		0.91	(0.71-1.17)	0.464
≤1/ month	277	28.4	698	71.6		0.87	(0.57-1.32)	0.511
Visiting neighbour								
Everyday	470	35.6	850	64.4	<0.001	1.00		
1-3/ week	356	32.0	756	68.0		0.90	(0.77-1.07)	0.237
≤1/ month	330	24.8	999	75.2		0.72	(0.41-1.26)	0.248
Participating in senior community activity in leisure time								
No	1026	30.7	2316	69.3	0.950	1.00		
Yes	128	30.5	291	69.5		1.01	(0.79-1.30)	0.916
Optimistic								
Yes	934	30.0	2181	70.0	0.032	1.00		
No	222	34.3	426	65.7		1.11	(0.93-1.34)	0.242
Depression syndromes (level)								
0	1020	30.3	2345	69.7	0.209	1.00		
1-2	72	35.6	130	64.4		1.14	(0.92-1.40)	0.223
≥3	67	33.2	135	66.8		1.06	(0.72-1.56)	0.779

Table 4 shows the risk of smoking and passive smoking exposure in combined levels of education and income. Among participants with education of ≤ primary school, smoking was associated with lower income. The risk of passive smoking increased with

lower educational level in participants with an averaged family income of ≥2000 RMB, but in those with high income appeared to be for all participants regardless of educational level.

Table 4. Number of Passive Smoking and Relative Risk in Combinations of Family Income and Educational Level in the 5 provinces Health Study of Older Adults, China

Educational Level	Average Income Per One Family (RMB Yuan) *							
	≥20 000		10 000-19 999		2000-9999		<2000	
	N (%)	RR [†] (95% CI)	N (%)	RR [†] (95% CI)	N (%)	RR [†] (95% CI)	Nos (%)	RR [†] (95% CI)
For active smoking								
≥High 2nd School	186/653 (28.5)	1.09 (0.83-1.43)	33/135 (24.4)	1.00	31/66 (47.0)	1.65 (1.03-2.63)	4/21 (19.0)	0.90 (0.57-1.43)
2nd School	139/414 (33.6)	1.35 (1.09-1.67)	68/217 (31.3)	1.24 (0.99-1.57)	88/143 (61.5)	2.05 (1.61-2.63)	43/68 (63.2)	2.02 (1.31-3.11)
Primary school	176/476 (37.0)	1.54 (1.15-2.08)	139/385 (36.1)	1.71 (1.30-2.25)	199/399 (49.9)	2.09 (1.58-2.77)	146/258 (56.6)	2.27 (1.69-3.05)
Illiterate (or no school)	157/702 (22.4)	1.44 (0.95-2.19)	117/412 (28.4)	1.77 (1.22-2.58)	265/675 (39.3)	2.20 (1.44-3.35)	381/929 (41.0)	2.22 (1.33-3.72)
For passive smoking								
≥High 2nd School	105/467 (22.5)	1.66 (0.90-3.07)	14/102 (13.7)	1.00	5/35 (14.3)	1.04 (0.42-2.57)	5/17 (29.4)	2.07 (0.54-7.85)
2nd School	64/275 (23.3)	1.66 (1.06-2.60)	24/148 (16.2)	1.15 (0.56-2.38)	15/55 (27.3)	1.82 (0.80-4.14)	7/25 (28.0)	1.93 (0.76-4.87)
Primary school	101/299 (33.8)	2.35 (1.37-4.03)	61/242 (25.2)	1.69 (0.99-2.88)	55/198 (27.8)	1.88 (0.88-4.00)	53/111 (47.7)	3.22 (1.50-6.92)
Illiterate (or no school)	189/544 (34.7)	2.38 (1.19-4.75)	104/294 (35.4)	2.42 (1.11-5.27)	151/410 (36.8)	2.53 (1.33-4.78)	206/548 (37.6)	2.58 (1.10-6.02)

Note.[†] adjusted for age and sex. * similar findings for annual personal income analysis.

DISCUSSION

In this multicentre population-based study in China, we found that the risk of smoking and passive smoking in older people was higher than those in high income countries^[27-34], and increased with low socioeconomic status and psychosocial factors. Smoking rates in men was 4-5 times higher than in women. In never-smoking older adults, women experienced more passive smoking exposure than men.

Cigarette Smoking in Older Adults

In the USA, a survey in 2007^[34] showed that 8.3% of older people aged ≥65 years were currently smoking. In England, the prevalence of active smoking in the ≥60 years age group is 14%; 15% for men vs 13% for women^[33]. The findings of our study suggested a much higher prevalence of active smoking in older Chinese men, and a similar or

slightly higher prevalence in women compared to those in the high income countries. This is due to the failing controls in tobacco smoking in China both currently and in the past few decades^[5-6,35].

Research conducted in high income countries has identified a number of SES and psychosocial factors associated with active smoking. Those employed in manual labour, with a low household income, low education, unmarried, consuming more units of alcohol, younger in age and being male have been reported to have higher rates of active smoking across all age groups^[33-34,36-37]. The findings of our study were similar, suggesting that there may be preventive strategies that can be implemented. The most interesting results in this study were the observed sex differences in the association with psychosocial factors; in men currently smoking was associated with low levels of social networks/supports/activities (eg, being divorced/never-married, religion, living with family, visiting children, etc), while in women seemed to be other way around. In high

income countries, most current prevention programmes are based on the social influence approach. Following this approach targets the proximal psychosocial variables believed to promote individuals to smoke^[38-39]. Our data suggested that targeting these low socioeconomic status and psychosocial factors in the Chinese population may be also effective. However, for Chinese women the education of giving up smoking should be implemented when they take part in social activities.

Passive Smoking Exposure

With the accumulation of scientific evidence about the harm of passive smoking^[3,22], many countries have taken action to reduce passive smoking exposure through legislation and health education, and have achieved significant improvements, with a declining prevalence of passive smoking exposure^[27-32]. In Canada, a recent survey showed 17% of never smokers in the ≥ 50 years age group reported exposure to passive smoking^[40]. In a Spanish population Twose et al.^[31] reported 25.4% of men and 24.7% of women ≥ 65 were exposed to passive smoking, with 9.8% of men and 24.7% of women being exposed at home. In the last few years, Chinese legislation has called for a ban on smoking in all public places. Progress has however been hindered by the high prevalence of smoking and a general view that smoking is acceptable^[5]. In China, a recent survey suggested no reduction in the prevalence of passive smoking exposure^[41]. Our study showed a higher level of passive smoking in older people in China than those in high income countries^[27-32]. The high risk of passive smoking exposure in older Chinese populations is due to the high level of active smoking and failures of banning smoking in public areas in the last few decades^[42], suggesting more strict control of cigarette smoking in China is urgently required.

In high income countries, investigators have demonstrated that there were similar risk factors for passive smoking exposure and smoking. A US study reported that those younger in age (< 60), males, lower incomes and less than high school education were at an increased the risk of passive smoking exposure^[43]. In this study we found that passive smoking exposure was associated with low SES (including rural-urban differences-people living in rural China are much poorer than their urban counterparts^[12,15]), being consistent with other countries^[44]. The interesting finding is that female sex was a risk factor for passive smoking in China.

This may be because they were exposed to passive smoking from their husbands or relatives who smoked a lot at home and male colleagues at work. Another interesting finding was that daily activities of visiting children/relatives/friends/neighbours increased passive smoking in women only, suggesting a potential impact on women's health^[45].

While social networks and activities are a protective factor for older people's health^[15], our study showed that the more social activities engaged within, the higher the passive smoking exposure, mainly in women. This is due to high level of active smoking from the general population which the older adults contacted, including their children/relatives and friends. Our findings of the association between social networks and passive smoking exposure in older people may have implications in helping to control cigarette smoking in China. Educating older people to the harmful effects of passive smoking, and its association with social networks and activities, would urge them to persuade their children/relatives or other people in contact to discourage smoking, or at least not smoke in front of them. This may be an effective strategy as in Chinese culture older people are well respected and other people, particularly their children/grandchildren value their advice^[15].

Strengths and Limitation of the Study

The main strength of the current study was the inclusion of data of older adults across 5 provinces in China, with a high response rate and face-to-face interviews with investigators to collect information using a standardized questionnaire^[3]. Apart from the employment of cluster analysis, we directly calculated the relative risk of smoking and passive smoking, avoiding an invalidated transferring from the odds ratio^[46]. Thus the findings are robust. Our study has limitations. Firstly, most of the participants had low levels of education. They may have had a different understanding of survey questions, which could result in bias in collection of the information. Specifically, the knowledge and awareness of respondents may have led to differences between perceived and actual passive smoking exposure. However, this may not bring bias towards to our findings because we found that low education was associated with high level of passive smoking. Secondly, we defined passive smoking exposure using a questionnaire, rather than employing cotinine level^[3,47]. Thus a few people who actually had passive smoking might be misclassified as not

being exposed to passive smoke. But the number would be expected to be small. Thirdly, there were some variations in SES and psychosocial data among samples, which may affect the study findings. For example, the rank of SES from the lowest to the highest in terms of annual personal income was Anhui, Helongjiang, Shanxi, Shanghai, and Guangzhou, probably reflecting their province levels in China. We employed the cluster analysis method to account for the effect of the geographic variations, which produced more conservative results. Thus, our findings are further robust.

Implication

Campaigns for controlling smoking and passive smoking seemed to focus on younger people^[48-49]. Older adults are more sensitive to political, economic and policy changes for their health. Our multicentre community-based study provides some of the first, large-scale data on smoking and passive smoking in older adults, suggesting an interaction effect of education and income on the risk of smoking and passive smoking. This is of great importance in policy-making. Results of this study call for a prevention policy aimed at older people, and strategies to reduce smoking and passive smoking. Policies should involve educating older people and other population as well about the hazards of passive smoking, associating smoking behaviour with negative rather than positive images, and in trying to demoralise smoking. These are the strategies that have proved to be effective in many other countries, and provide a superb set of strategies for China to apply as it increases its efforts to combat the single most important cause of death and disability in the world's most populous country. Particularly, campaigns for reducing passive smoking exposure in older people via delivering our research findings of the association between social activities and passive smoking may play an important role in control of cigarette smoking in China.

Conclusions

This study has shown a higher level of smoking and passive smoking in older adults in China than those in high income countries. Although men smoked much more than women, women were 1.5 times higher to be exposure to passive smoking. All these reflected failures in controlling cigarette smoking and in banning smoking in public areas in China. The associations of smoking and passive smoking with low socioeconomic status and

different psychosocial aspects suggest preventative strategies for controlling smoking and passive smoking exposure. The rural-urban differences in passive smoking exposure demonstrate the need to control passive smoking in rural China, where more than half of Chinese live. The observed sex differences in the associations would help guide more efficient policies. Increasing educational level and removing the poverty may help reduce smoking and passive smoking regionally, nationally, and internationally.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors thank all participants in the 4-province study and in the Anhui cohort study.

COMPETING INTERESTS

None.

REFERENCES

1. World Health Organisation. Tobacco Factsheet. 2011 [cited Accessed 07.04.2011].
2. Barnoya J, Glantz SA. Cardiovascular effects of secondhand smoke: nearly as large as smoking. *Circulation*, 2005; 111, 2684-98.
3. Chen R, Tunstall-Pedoe H, Tavendale R. Environmental tobacco smoke and lung function in employees who never smoked: the Scottish MONICA study. *Occup Environ Med*, 2001; 58, 563-8.
4. Oberg M, Jaakkola MS, Woodward A, et al. Worldwide burden of disease from exposure to second-hand smoke: a retrospective analysis of data from 192 countries. *Lancet*, 2011; 377, 139-46.
5. Yang G, Fan L, Tan J, et al. Smoking in China: findings of the 1996 National Prevalence Survey. *JAMA*, 1999; 282, 1247-53.
6. Yang GH, Ma JM, Liu N, Zhou LN. Smoking and passive smoking in Chinese, 2002. *Zhonghua Liu Xing Bing Xue Za Zhi*, 2005; 26, 77-83.(In Chinese)
7. Barnes DE, Haight TJ, Mehta KM, et al. Secondhand smoke, vascular disease, and dementia incidence: findings from the cardiovascular health cognition study. *Am J Epidemiol*, 2010; 171, 292-302.
8. Chen R. Association of environmental tobacco smoke with dementia and Alzheimer's disease among never smokers. *Alzheimers Dement*, 2012; 8, 590-5.
9. Sunyer J, Lamarca R, Alonso J. Smoking after age 65 years and mortality in Barcelona, Spain. *Am J Epidemiol*, 1998; 148, 575-80.
10. Chen R, Ma Y, Wilson K, et al. A multicentre community-based study of dementia cases and subcases in older people in China--the GMS-AGECAT prevalence and socio-economic correlates. *Int J Geriatr Psychiatry*, 2012; 27, 692-702.
11. Chen R, Hu Z, Wei L, Ma Y, et al. Incident dementia in a defined older chinese population. *PLoS ONE*, 2011; 6, e24817.
12. Chen R, Hu Z, Qin X, et al. A community-based study of depression in older people in Hefei, China--the GMS-AGECAT

- prevalence, case validation and socio-economic correlates. *Int J Geriatr Psychiatry*, 2004; 19, 407-13.
13. Prince M, Ferri CP, Acosta D, et al. The protocols for the 10/66 dementia research group population-based research programme. *BMC Public Health*, 2007; 7, 165.
 14. Prince MJ, de Rodriguez JL, Noriega L, et al. The 10/66 Dementia Research Group's fully operationalised DSM-IV dementia computerized diagnostic algorithm, compared with the 10/66 dementia algorithm and a clinician diagnosis: a population validation study. *BMC Public Health*, 2008; 8, 219.
 15. Chen R, Wei L, Hu Z, et al. Depression in older people in rural China, 2005; 165, 2019-25.
 16. Chen R, Tunstall-Pedoe H, Morrison C, et al. Trends and social factors in blood pressure control in Scottish MONICA surveys 1986-1995: the rule of halves revisited. *J Hum Hypertens*, 2003; 17, 751-9.
 17. Chen R, Tunstall-Pedoe H. Socioeconomic deprivation and waist circumference in men and women: The Scottish MONICA surveys 1989-1995. *Eur J Epidemiol*, 2005; 20, 141-7.
 18. Copeland JR, Chen R, Dewey ME, et al. Community-based case-control study of depression in older people. Cases and sub-cases from the MRC-ALPHA Study. *Br J Psychiatry*, 1999; 175, 340-7.
 19. Chen R, Hu Z, Wei L, et al. Severity of depression and risk for subsequent dementia: cohort studies in China and the UK. *Br J Psychiatry*, 2008; 193, 373-7.
 20. Chen R, Hu Z, Wei L, et al. Is the relationship between syndromes of depression and dementia temporal? The MRC-ALPHA and Hefei-China studies. *Psychol Med*, 2009; 39, 425-30.
 21. Woo J, Kwok T, Sze FK, Yuan HJ. Ageing in China: health and social consequences and responses. *Int J Epidemiol*, 2002; 31, 772-5.
 22. Chen R, Tavendale R, Tunstall-Pedoe H. Environmental tobacco smoke and prevalent coronary heart disease among never smokers in the Scottish MONICA surveys. *Occup Environ Med*, 2004; 61, 790-2.
 23. Chen R, Dick F, Seaton A. Health effects of solvent exposure among dockyard painters: mortality and neuropsychological symptoms. *Occup Environ Med*, 1999; 56, 383-7.
 24. Chen R, Wei L, Seaton A. Neuropsychological symptoms in Chinese male and female painters: an epidemiological study in dockyard workers. *Occup Environ Med*, 1999; 56, 388-90.
 25. Thompson ML, Myers JE, Kriebel D. Prevalence odds ratio or prevalence ratio in the analysis of cross sectional data: what is to be done? *Occup Environ Med*, 1998; 55, 272-7.
 26. Wang J, Peng WJ, He Q, et al. Re-visit the relationship between prevalence odds ratio and prevalence rate ratio. *Chinese J Health Statistics*, 2012; 29, 149-50. (In Chinese)
 27. Martinez-Sanchez JM, Fernandez E, Fu M, et al. Assessment of exposure to secondhand smoke by questionnaire and salivary cotinine in the general population of Barcelona, Spain (2004-2005). *Prev Med*, 2009; 48, 218-23.
 28. Jarvis MJ, Feyerabend C, Bryant A, et al. Passive smoking in the home: plasma cotinine concentrations in non-smokers with smoking partners. *Tob Control*, 2001; 10, 368-74.
 29. Skorge TD, Eagan TM, Eide GE, et al. Exposure to environmental tobacco smoke in a general population. *Respir Med*, 2007; 101, 277-85.
 30. Tilloy E, Cotel D, Ruidavets JB, et al. Characteristics of current smokers, former smokers, and second-hand exposure and evolution between 1985 and 2007. *Eur J Cardiovasc Prev Rehabil*, 2010; 17, 730-6.
 31. Twose J, Schiaffino A, Garcia M, et al. Correlates of exposure to second-hand smoke in an urban Mediterranean population. *BMC Public Health*, 2007; 7, 194.
 32. Pirkle JL, Bernert JT, Caudill SP, et al. Trends in the exposure of nonsmokers in the U.S. population to secondhand smoke: 1988-2002. *Environ Health Perspect*, 2006; 114, 853-8.
 33. Office for National Statistics. Smoking and drinking among adults, 2009. A report on the 2009 General Lifestyle Survey. [cited Accessed 04.04.2011]; Available from: www.statistics.gov.uk.
 34. Thorne S, Malarcher A, Maurice E, Caraballo R. Cigarette smoking among adults-United States, 2007. *MMWR*, 2008; 57, 1221-6. 57, 1221-1226. 2008.
 35. Ministry of Health of the People's Republic of China. Decision on smoke-free health institutions in China from 2011. Beijing. Available at <http://www.moh.gov.cn/publicfiles/business/htmlfiles/mohbgt/s9510/200905/40804.htm> (Accessed on 04-04-2011)
 36. Huisman M, Kunst AE, Mackenbach JP. Inequalities in the prevalence of smoking in the European Union: comparing education and income. *Prev Med*, 2005; 40, 756-64.
 37. The Health and Social Care Information Centre. Statistics on smoking: England 2010. [cited Accessed 04.04.2011]; Available from: www.ic.nhs.uk.
 38. Charlton A, Minagawa KE, While D. Saying "no" to cigarettes: a reappraisal of adolescent refusal skills. *J Adolesc*, 1999; 22, 695-707.
 39. Epstein JA, Griffin KW, Botvin GJ. A model of smoking among inner-city adolescents: the role of personal competence and perceived social benefits of smoking. *Prev Med*, 2000; 31, 107-14.
 40. Vozoris N, Loughheed MD. Second-hand smoke exposure in Canada: prevalence, risk factors, and association with respiratory and cardiovascular diseases. *Can Respir J*, 2008; 15, 263-9.
 41. Xiao L, Yang Y, Li Q, et al. Population-based survey of secondhand smoke exposure in China. *Biomed Environ Sci*, 2010; 23, 430-6.
 42. Parry J. China pushes ahead with ban on indoor smoking. *BMJ*, 2011; 342, d1990.
 43. Ellis JA, Gwynn C, Garg RK, et al. Secondhand smoke exposure among nonsmokers nationally and in New York City. *Nicotine Tob Res*, 2009; 11, 362-70.
 44. Janson C, Kunzli N, de MR, et al. Changes in active and passive smoking in the European Community Respiratory Health Survey. *Eur Respir J*, 2006; 27, 517-24.
 45. Chen R, Zhang D, Chen Y, et al. Passive smoking and risk of cognitive impairment in women who never smoke. *Arch Intern Med*, 2012; 172, 271-3.
 46. Zhang J, Yu KF. What's the relative risk? A method of correcting the odds ratio in cohort studies of common outcomes. *JAMA*, 1998; 280, 16901.
 47. Chen R, Tavendale R, Tunstall-Pedoe H. Measurement of passive smoking in adults: self-reported questionnaire or serum cotinine? *J Cancer Epidemiol Prev*, 2002; 7, 85-95.
 48. Department of Health. Smokefree England – one year on. www.dh.gov.uk/tobacco . 2008. [cited Accessed 02.06.2012]
 49. Fong GT, Hyland A, Borland R, et al. Reductions in tobacco smoke pollution and increases in support for smoke-free public places following the implementation of comprehensive smoke-free workplace legislation in the Republic of Ireland: findings from the ITC Ireland/UK Survey. *Tob Control*, 2006; 15 Suppl 3, iii51-8.