EPIDEMIOLOGICAL EVIDENCE ON

ENVIRONMENTAL TOBACCO SMOKE AND STROKE -

A REVIEW WITH META-ANALYSES

Authors $\,:\,$ P N Lee and B A Forey

Date : September 2007

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

18 publications have described the results of studies relating stroke (or related conditions) to ETS exposure in non-smokers. This document presents a comprehensive review of the evidence, with meta-analysis.

The studies varied considerably in design, ETS exposure indices used and definition of disease. Based on 29 sex-specific relative risk estimates from 18 studies, and using current spousal exposure (or nearest equivalent) as the index of exposure, random-effects meta-analysis gave an overall estimate of 1.27 (95% CI 1.18-1.36, p<0.001). There was some heterogeneity between the estimates (chisquared = 42.06 on 28 d.f., p<0.05). Relative risks were less clearly elevated in prospective studies (than in case-control or cross-sectional studies) and in North American and European studies (than in Asian or Australasian studies). No elevation was seen in three studies of subarachnoid haemorrhage.

Results did not vary materially based on alternative exposure indices, preferring ever to current exposure, or total to spousal exposure, where available, but in fact few studies presented alternative estimates. Too few studies presented relative risk for workplace or for childhood ETS exposure for adequate assessment. Adjustment for risk factors other than age had no obvious effect on the risk estimates.

Nine studies provided dose-response estimates. Meta-analysis of results for the highest level of exposure gave a relative risk of 1.60 (1.39-1.85) while for the lowest level of exposure the estimate was 1.18 (1.02-1.37).

Given the significant overall association, the lack of heterogeneity, and the evidence of a dose-response relationship, the possibility of a causal relationship demands serious attention. However limitations of the evidence preclude a definite conclusion. The possibility of some bias due to uncontrolled confounding or to misclassification of smoking habits needs to be borne in mind. Perhaps more relevant is the likelihood of publication bias. There are a number of prospective studies (including the huge American Cancer Society CPS-I and CPS-II studies) for which results have been reported relating ETS to lung cancer and to heart disease, but not relating ETS to stroke. It seems likely such findings would have been reported had an

association been found. Furthermore, incomplete results from the Japanese Hirayama study that could not be included in our meta-analyses, suggested a much weaker association, based on more stroke cases, than seen in the studies presenting detailed data.

Also relevant to the interpretation are the weaknesses evident in many of the studies. These include use of unvalidated diagnosis and ETS exposure assessment, incomplete follow-up, failure to re-assess smoking status and exposure at intervals in prospective studies, and use of inappropriate control groups in some studies. Also a number of the studies limit attention to either fatal or non-fatal stroke, with consequent potential bias.

Acknowledgment

This work was supported by the tobacco industry. The accuracy of the material presented and the interpretation of the findings are the responsibility of the authors alone.

INTRODUCTION

This document summarizes the evidence from 18 publications¹⁻¹⁸ describing the results of studies relating stroke (or related conditions) to environmental tobacco smoke (ETS) exposure in non-smokers. This updates not only our earlier report¹⁹ based on 15 publications^{1-14,16} with three additional relevant publications,^{15,17,18} but also a review we published in the Journal of Stroke and Cerebrovascular Diseases.²⁰ No other comprehensive review or meta-analysis has so far been reported. A 2005 estimate by Jamrozik *et al*²¹ of deaths "attributable" to passive smoking used a relative risk (RR) estimate for stroke of 1.45, based on the median from only seven studies,^{2,4,7,8,12,13,22} one of which²² did not actually report results restricted to non-smokers.

METHODS

Publications describing the results of epidemiological studies relating the risk of stroke to ETS exposure in lifelong non-smokers (or exceptionally in those who had not smoked for a long period of time) were sought from PUBMED and EMBASE searches, from the extensive files on smoking and health accumulated by P N Lee Statistics and Computing Ltd (PNLSC), and from reference lists of papers retrieved. Appendix A explains why results from certain other publications, which might have been thought to cite relevant data, are not included.

For all the studies details were entered into a study database of the study location and design, the types of results available, and the potential confounding variables considered. Details relating to a varying number of RRs per study were also entered, including the type of stroke, the precise definition of exposure (and non-exposure), and the number of variables adjusted for, as well as the RR itself and its 95% confidence interval (CI). [Note that in this review the term "relative risk" is taken to include direct estimates of the RR from prospective studies, and indirect estimates (odds ratios) from case-control or cross-sectional studies.] For a given type of stroke and exposure, RRs (and CIs) were entered that adjusted for age and the greatest number of additional variables, (most-adjusted RRs). In addition, if separately available, those RRs that adjusted for age only, or failing that, age and the smallest number of additional variables (least-adjusted RRs) were also entered. Where adjusted results were given only by level of exposure RRs and CIs for overall

exposure were estimated.²³⁻²⁵ For each study, all aspects of data extraction were carried out by one of us and checked by the other.

Fixed-effects and random-effects meta-analyses were conducted using standard methods²⁶ with the Egger test used to investigate publication bias.²⁷ Due to marked variability regarding the definitions of exposure and disease for which results were available, with some studies presenting multiple results, an order of preference was used to select RRs for a "principal" meta-analysis. This preference was based in turn on: type of exposure (spouse highest preference, then household, total, cotinine), time of exposure (current highest preference, then recent, during marriage, ever, in the past) and stroke definition (prefer first named category for those studies shown in Table 1 reporting results for more than one category of stroke). Alternative preferences, as described in Table 5, were used in sensitivity analyses. Unless otherwise stated, the data presented and meta-analyses given in this review are always based on the most-adjusted RRs. Sex-specific estimates are included in the meta-analyses where available.

RESULTS

As shown in <u>Table 1</u>, one of the publications¹⁸ provided results for two separate, prospective studies. Five of the studies were published in the 1980s, with the next study not published until 1998. Details of nine of the 19 studies have been published since 2004, showing increasing recent interest in the subject.

Of the 19 studies, six have been conducted in Australia and/or New Zealand, five in the USA, three in Great Britain, three in China and two in Japan.

Ten of the studies were of prospective design, seven of mortality and three considering non-fatal events also. Three of the studies were of cross-sectional design, all of non-fatal events. Six of the studies were of case-control design, one² using hospital controls and the rest population controls. Two^{2,8} of the case-control studies were of living cases, three^{4,7,11} involved both living and dead cases, and one¹⁴ only dead cases. Two of the studies^{4,11} used proxy informants for patients who had died or were unable to communicate, using proxy informants also for their matched controls. One study⁷ used proxy informants for the dead cases but not for the controls. In one

study,¹⁴ people reporting a death were asked questions about the lifestyle of the decedent and of a living person known to the informant.

The definition of the disease considered varied by study, with four of the studies presenting separate results for two differing endpoints. The most commonly considered endpoints were stroke (8 studies), cerebrovascular disease (5), subarachnoid haemorrhage (3) and ischaemic stroke (3), but results were also reported in one or two studies for cerebral ischaemia, silent cerebral infarction, transient ischaemic attack and aneurysmal subarachnoid haemorrhage.

All the studies were of subjects who reported never smoking or only smoking for less than a defined short period (e.g. 3 months^{4,8} or 6 months¹⁶) or never smoking regularly. One study confirmed current non-smoking by a serum cotinine <14.1 ng/ml. Exceptionally, one study included exsmokers of cigarettes who had given up more than 10 years ago and two^{6,7} included exsmokers of pipes or cigars.

Seven studies^{2-4,8,15-17} considered exposure from a smoking spouse (in one case² the first spouse); three of these studies^{4,8,17} did not restrict analysis to married subjects. Eleven studies considered exposure at home, either generally,^{2,9,12} or from smoking by any other household member,^{5,11,14,18(both studies)} by other household members attending screening¹ or by parents.^{4,8} Six studies considered exposure both inside and outside the home, which we refer to as total exposure in this report (home, work, travel or leisure;² home or work;⁷ home, other small spaces or large indoor areas;⁹ spouse, workplace or early life;¹⁷ or unspecified exposure.^{6,10}) Less commonly studied sources of exposure considered were work,^{2,17} travel,² leisure,² small spaces other than home,⁹ large indoor areas⁹ and the combination of these two.¹² Only one study¹⁷ considered exposure in childhood (before age 20, from family members).

The largest study³ involved 2609 cases, with five other studies of between 500 and 1000 cases. The smallest study¹ involved only 12 cases, with four other studies of less than 100 cases.

Relative risk of stroke

Shown in bold in <u>Table 2</u>, and also in <u>Figure 1</u>, are the 29 RR(CI) estimates used in the "principal" meta-analysis together with their CIs. These come from 18 studies, the largest study³ reporting a non-significant (p>0.05) trend, but no estimates. Of the 29 estimates eight are significantly above 1.00, and one is significantly below 1.00. The estimates range from 0.25 to 2.10. Table 2 also presents additional details of the RR including the source and timing of exposure and the disease definition. In 13 of the studies data were only available for one source of exposure (within those considered in the preference list) and one definition of exposure time and disease, so there was no alternative RR that could be included in the meta-analysis. For four studies, ^{2,9,16,17} available alternative estimates are shown, which are used in the sensitivity meta-analyses. It should be noted that, although the intention had been to analyze, in the principal meta-analysis, estimates most nearly approximating to current spousal exposure, in fact only six studies presented RRs for spousal exposure and only eight presented results for current exposure. For three studies ^{11,12,15} estimates for alternative disease definitions are also shown in Table 2.

Appendix Table B gives details of the potential confounding variables adjusted for in analysis. Age was always adjusted for, as too, with one minor exception, was sex. Other factors adjusted for commonly were blood pressure (10 studies), diabetes (9), education (9), obesity/weight (8), alcohol consumption (7), race/ethnicity (7), exercise (6), marital status (6), cholesterol/lipids (5), occupation (5) and socioeconomic status (5). Nine of the 19 studies adjusted for eight or more variables in at least some of the analyses.

<u>Table 3</u> presents RR(CI)s for other rarer indices of ETS exposure and for dose-response analyses. These derive from 10 studies. Only one study ¹⁷ gives RRs specifically for exposure in childhood though two ^{4,8} present findings for ETS from the parents, with the time of exposure unspecified. Few of the RRs or trends are statistically significant. RRs highlighted in bold type are those used in the dose-response meta-analyses.

Meta-analysis results

Table 4 presents results of the principal meta-analysis, together with subgroup analyses. Based on the 29 RR estimates highlighted in Table 2, fixed-effects meta-analysis shows a highly significant (p<0.001) increased risk associated with ETS exposure, with the overall RR estimated as 1.27 (95% CI 1.18-1.36). There is some heterogeneity between the estimates (chisquared 42.06 on 28 degrees of freedom [d.f.], p<0.05) but the random-effects estimate is similar at 1.25 (1.13-1.38). Analysis by subgroup did not show any significant variation in the RR estimate by sex, exposure index, study size, number of adjustment variables, and fatality, though the number of estimates by level was rather limited. There was, however, some indication that relative risks were higher in Asian and Australasian studies than in North American and European studies, higher in case-control and cross-sectional than in prospective studies and higher in studies specifically of stroke or cerebrovascular disease. No elevated risk was seen in the studies of subarachnoid haemorrhage. There was also some variation by year of publication.

No significant evidence of publication bias was seen in this meta-analysis.

<u>Table 5</u> presents results of various sensitivity meta-analyses. Estimates did not vary materially according to whether preferences were towards ever rather than current exposure, or towards total rather than spousal exposure or whether results for silent cerebral infarction, which may not be regarded as stroke, were excluded. Nor did estimates vary much according to whether we selected RRs adjusted for a minimal set of variables including age ("least adjusted") or RRs adjusted additionally for between 3 and 15 other variables ("most adjusted"). The pairs of RRs for those five studies for which separate "most adjusted" and "least adjusted" estimates were available are shown in <u>Table 6</u>, together with their ratio. No consistent effect of adjustment is seen.

As shown in <u>Table 7</u>, based on the estimates highlighted in bold type in Table 3, there is evidence of a dose-response relationship based on the eight studies providing relevant data. For the highest level of exposure a clearly significant increased risk of stroke associated with ETS exposure is seen (RR 1.60, 95% CI 1.39-

1.85, p<0.001). For the lowest level of exposure the increase is of marginal significance (1.18, 1.02-1.37, p<0.05).

DISCUSSION

Based on 29 estimates, from 18 studies, of the risk of stroke associated with current spousal ETS exposure, or the nearest equivalent available, random-effects meta-analysis gave a highly significant (p<0.001) increased RR estimate of 1.25 (1.13-1.38). For those eight studies providing dose-response data, the highest levels of exposure were associated with an even higher estimate of 1.60 (1.39-1.85). In assessing this association in terms of a causal relationship, various issues have to be taken into account, which are discussed in the sections that follow.

Consistency

Given the considerable differences between the studies in design, definition of exposure and definition of disease, it was unsurprising that there was evidence of some heterogeneity between the estimates. However the meta-analysis estimates were not materially affected by choice of the individual RR estimates to be included based on time or type of exposure, though the limited number of RRs reported in many of the studies meant that only a few studies provided estimates for the sensitivity analyses that differed from those included in the principal analysis. Of the 29 estimates included in the principal analysis, eight were significantly (p<0.05) increased, with nine below 1.0, including one that was significantly decreased (see Table 2). Subgroup analysis did suggest some possible sources of variability in the estimates, with the RR less clearly elevated in prospective studies and in North American and European studies, and not elevated in studies of subarachnoid haemorrhage.

Comparison with the estimate of Jamrozik

A previous estimate of 1.45,²¹ based on the median from only seven studies, seems markedly too high when the currently available data are considered. From the data used in our principal meta-analysis, the median of the 29 estimates is only 1.23.

We now consider various potential sources of bias.

Misclassification of the subject's smoking status

It is well established that some smokers deny current or past smoking on interview, and that smokers are more likely than are non-smokers to be married to (or work with) smokers. 28,29 These two facts, taken in conjunction, imply that studies relating ETS exposure in self-reported never smokers to risk of a disease associated with smoking may observe an apparent increased risk even when no true risk of ETS exposure exists. This "misclassification bias" has been widely discussed for lung cancer, and we believe we have demonstrated it to be of material importance.^{29,30} though other opinions differ. 31,32 As smoking is less associated with stroke than it is with lung cancer, this bias may be less important, but deserves some attention. We note that (with the exception of one 18 which only considered misclassification of the subject's smoking status in relation to their overall mortality results) none of the publications providing the data we review discuss this sort of bias at all. The only study to attempt to confirm nonsmoking status was that of Whincup $et al^{13}$ which used cotinine not only to quantify ETS exposure but also to exclude current smokers. However, even this study could not exclude the possibility that some of the subjects had failed to report past smoking.

Confounding

In principle, risk factors associated both with stroke and with ETS exposure could confound the association of interest. Although all the studies took into account age and sex, there was considerable variation between them in the extent to which other risk factors for stroke have been taken into account. While a number of the studies have considered no (or very few) additional adjustment variables in their analysis, 1-3,10,14 some have taken into account quite an extensive list, 6,9,11-13,15-17 at least in some of their analyses. While our analyses (see Tables 4, 5 and 6) do not indicate that such adjustment has any major effect on the RR estimate (with the possible exception of one study 13), the data as presented do not allow separation of the effects of allowing for potential confounding by specific variables.

It is interesting to note that ten of the studies have adjusted for blood pressure, a very strong predictor of stroke. If in fact ETS exposure increases risk of hypertension, with strokes occurring as a result, then it would seem that such adjustment is unjustified ("overmatching"). We note that one of the studies¹³ did

report a significant positive association of blood pressure with cotinine level. However, see <u>Appendix C</u>, no such association was seen in large representative samples of the English population in 1996, 1998 and 2001.

Publication bias

While our principal and sensitivity analyses did not show statistically significant publication bias, this does not mean that failure to publish relevant findings has not materially affected our meta-analyses. It is clear that there are a number of prospective studies for which results have been reported concerning ETS and heart disease but not concerning ETS and stroke. It might reasonably be expected that results for stroke would have been reported had a significant association been found. The most notable omissions are the American Cancer Society Cancer Prevention Studies I and II, where results have been reported based on as many heart disease cases as 14891 and 2819 respectively. 33,34 These studies could also have provided RR estimates based on many thousand cases of stroke, possibly more than the 5029 cases considered in all the 18 studies combined in our meta-analyses.

It is also notable that the Hirayama study,³ despite being based on as many as 2609 deaths from cerebrovascular disease, failed to report any RR, merely citing a Mantel-extension (trend) chi of 1.604 and a one-tail p value of 0.05436. Based on results for lung cancer, where the chi was 2.915 based on 200 deaths, and where data published in more detail elsewhere³⁵ give an RR(CI) for spousal smoking of 1.16 (0.94-1.43), we estimate that for stroke the corresponding RR(CI) values would be 1.06 (0.96-1.17). While we considered this estimate to be too tentative to be included in the meta-analyses shown in Tables 4 and 5, had we done so the fixed-effects estimate of 1.27 (1.18-1.36) would have reduced to 1.19 (1.13-1.27).

Study weaknesses

There are a number of weaknesses that are common to many or a number of the studies. These include the following:

(i) failure to validate the diagnosis of stroke by CT scan, with a number of the studies based on unconfirmed death certificate diagnosis ^{1,3,5,10,14,17,18} and some based on a diagnosis reported by the subject; ^{9,16}

- (ii) small number of cases, with one study involving only 12 cases, and four others of less than 100 cases; 2,6,10,13
- (iii) incomplete follow-up in prospective studies by only tracking deaths occurring in the study area (e.g. ^{3,5}), or by failure of linkage; ¹⁸
- (iv) in prospective studies of some years duration, determining ETS exposure and other risk factors only at baseline, so not allowing for possible changes; 3,5,10,12,13,15
- (v) with the exception of one study using cotinine, ¹³ reliance on unconfirmed subjective assessment of ETS exposure, sometimes determined from proxy respondents; ^{4,7,11,14} and
- (vi) failure to restrict attention to married subjects when analyzing spousal exposure 4,8,17 or to control for household size when analysing household exposure (no studies did).

It should also be noted that case-control studies of survivors from stroke^{2,8} and prospective studies of fatal cases^{1,3,5,10,17,18} need not necessarily provide an accurate assessment of the relationship of ETS exposure to onset of stroke. Hypothetically at least, if ETS exposure does not cause stroke, but increases the chances of survival in those who suffer one, one would expect to see a positive association in a study of survivors from stroke.

Some other issues related to specific studies also deserve comment.

- (i) The large Japanese prospective study³ not only failed to report its results in terms of RRs, but also adjusted for the age of the spouse rather than the age of the subject, as is usual,
- (ii) It seems likely there may have been some overlap in the cases considered by the two Australian case-control studies.^{4,8}
- (iii) The New Zealand case-control study⁷ had a poor design, using proxy interviews only for cases, and conducting interviews for controls two years after the interviews for cases, and
- (iv) The Hong Kong case-control study¹⁴ had a most unusual design which produced very implausible findings. In this study each person who reported a death in 1998 at four death registries was given a questionnaire which asked about the lifestyle 10 years earlier of the decedent and of a living control

person about the same age who was well known to the informant, analyses being restricted to those never smoking cases and controls who had a living spouse in 1998. The representativeness of controls selected in this way is clearly open to question. It is interesting to note that the study reported similar large relative risks, of order 1.7, associated with two or more smokers in the home for essentially all causes of death, regardless of whether they were smoking associated. Thus, estimates were implausibly similar (and high) for lung cancer and for cancer other than the lung, and also for all cancer, all circulatory deaths and all other deaths. This suggests strongly that all the findings are biased by a common inappropriate control group.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

18 publications have described the results of studies relating stroke (or related conditions) to ETS exposure in non-smokers. This document presents a comprehensive review of the evidence, with meta-analysis.

The studies varied considerably in design, ETS exposure indices used and definition of disease. Based on 29 sex-specific relative risk estimates from 18 studies, and using current spousal exposure (or nearest equivalent) as the index of exposure, random-effects meta-analysis gave an overall estimate of 1.27 (95% CI 1.18-1.36, p<0.001). There was some heterogeneity between the estimates (chisquared = 42.06 on 28 d.f., p<0.05). Relative risks were less clearly elevated in prospective studies (than in case-control or cross-sectional studies) and in North American and European studies (than in Asian or Australasian studies). No elevation was seen in three studies of subarachnoid haemorrhage.

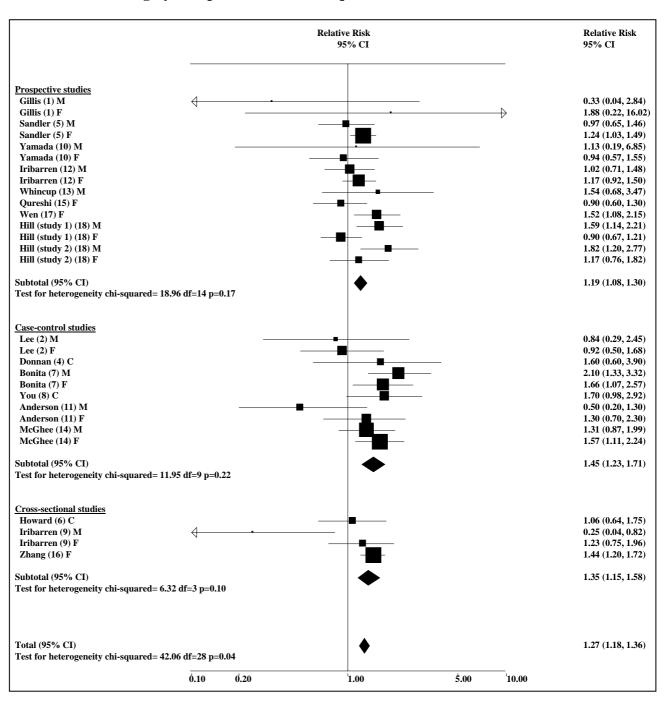
Results did not vary materially based on alternative exposure indices, preferring ever to current exposure, or total to spousal exposure, where available, but in fact few studies presented alternative estimates. Too few studies presented relative risk for workplace or for childhood ETS exposure for adequate assessment. Adjustment for risk factors other than age had no obvious effect on the risk estimates.

Nine studies provided dose-response estimates. Meta-analysis of results for the highest level of exposure gave a relative risk of 1.60 (1.39-1.85) while for the lowest level of exposure the estimate was 1.18 (1.02-1.37).

Given the significant overall association, the lack of heterogeneity, and the evidence of a dose-response relationship, the possibility of a causal relationship demands serious attention. However limitations of the evidence preclude a definite conclusion. The possibility of some bias due to uncontrolled confounding or to misclassification of smoking habits needs to be borne in mind. Perhaps more relevant is the likelihood of publication bias. There are a number of prospective studies (including the huge American Cancer Society CPS-I and CPS-II studies) for which results have been reported relating ETS to lung cancer and to heart disease, but not relating ETS to stroke. It seems likely such findings would have been reported had an association been found. Furthermore, incomplete results from the Japanese Hirayama study that could not be included in our meta-analyses, suggested a much weaker association, based on more stroke cases, than seen in the studies presenting detailed data.

Also relevant to the interpretation are the weaknesses evident in many of the studies. These include use of unvalidated diagnosis and ETS exposure assessment, incomplete follow-up, failure to re-assess smoking status and exposure at intervals in prospective studies, and use of inappropriate control groups in some studies. Also a number of the studies limit attention to either fatal or non-fatal stroke, with consequent potential bias.

FIGURE 1:RR of stroke among lifelong non-smokers in relation to current smoking by the spouse (or nearest equivalent)



Fixed effects meta-analysis of data shown in bold type in Table 2. For each study, RR is shown by a rectangular symbol with area proportional to its weight, and 95% CI is shown by a line. Each subtotal and overall total is shown by a diamond (of fixed height) with width corresponding to 95% CI

TABLE 1: Studies providing information on risk of stroke in relation to ETS exposure in lifelong non-smokers

Study	Year	Location	Туре	Endpoin	ts		of cases in non-smokers	
		Location	1,100	Fatality	Disease		Combined	
Gillis ¹	1984	Scotland	P	F	CVD	6		6
Lee ²	1986	England	CC	NF	STR	68		24
Hirayama ³	1987	Japan	P	F	CVD,SAH	2609		0
Donnan ⁴	1989	Australia	CC	В	CIS/I		142	
Sandler ⁵	1989	USA	P	F	CVD	529		126
Howard ⁶	1998	USA	CS	NF	SCI/I		77	
Bonita ⁷	1999	New Zealand	CC	В	STR		265	
You ⁸	1999	Australia	CC	NF	IST/I		154	
Iribarren ⁹	2001	USA	CS	NF	STR	95		42
Yamada ¹⁰	2003	Japan	P	F	SAH/I	67		5
Anderson ¹¹	2004	Australia/NZ	CC	В	SAH,ASH/I	105		30
Iribarren ¹²	2004	USA	P	В	IST,TIA/I	447		259
Whincup ¹³	2004	Gt.Britain	P	В	STR/I	0		41
McGhee ¹⁴	2005	China (Hong Kong)	CC	F	STR	300		297
Qureshi ¹⁵	2005	USA	P	В	STR/I,IST/I	109		0
Zhang ¹⁶	2005	China	CS	NF	STR	526		0
Wen ¹⁷	2006	China	P	F	STR	157		0
Hill (study 1) ¹⁸	2007	New Zealand	P	F	CVD	468		231
Hill (study 2) ¹⁸	2007	New Zealand	P	F	CVD	249		204

Footnotes

Under **study** is shown the first author of the publication cited

Fatality is indicated by F = fatal and NF = non fatal. B implies data only available for both fatal and non fatal occurrences combined

Disease, as named by the authors of the paper: ASH = aneurysmal subarachnoid haemorrhage, CIS = cerebral ischaemia, CVD = cerebrovascular disease, IST = ischaemic stroke, SAH = subarachnoid haemorrhage, SCI = silent cerebral infarction, STR = stroke, TIA = transient ischaemic attack, /I = incident indicates that the cases were restricted to those with first occurrence of the disease or excluded those with history of stroke

Numbers of cases in lifelong non-smokers are totals in the study; for analyses relating to specific types of disease or specific exposures, numbers may be less than this. Where studies report sex-specific results, sex-specific numbers are shown except for study 7 where only combined numbers are available. Where studies report results for combined sexes only, combined numbers are shown. For study 3, numbers are of CVD; there were 126 cases of SAH. For study 11, numbers are of SAH; numbers of ASH not available. For study 12, numbers are of IST; numbers of TIA were 99 in females and 52 in males. For study 15, numbers are of STR; there were 100 cases of IST

The year is the year of that publication

The study **types** are CC = case control, CS = cross-sectional and P = prospective

TABLE 2: RR of stroke among lifelong non-smokers in relation to current smoking by the spouse (or nearest equivalent)

	Exposure	:	Endpoint		Number of adjustment			Signif-
Study	Source	Timing	Fatality	Disease	variables	Sex	RR (95% CI)	icance
Gillis ¹	Н	R(5)	F	CVD	1	M F	0.33 (0.04-2.84) 1.88 (0.22-16.0)	
Lee ²	S	C	N	STR	2	M	Not significant	
	S	C			2	F	Not significant	
	S	M			2	M	0.84 (0.29-2.45)	
	S	M			2	F	0.92 (0.50-1.68)	
	Ť	C			1	M	1.35 (0.44-4.12)	
	T	C			1	F	1.19 (0.57-2.50)	
Hirayama ³	S	E	F	CVD SAH	1	F	No significant tre	
Donnan ⁴	S	E	В	CIS	3 (+ sex)	C	1.60 (0.60-3.90)	
Sandler ⁵	Н	E	F	CVD	4	M	0.97 (0.65-1.46)	
Sandier	п	E	Г	CVD	4	F	1.24 (1.03-1.49)	+
Howard ⁶	T	С	N	SCI	10 (+ sex)	C	1.06 (0.64-1.75)	
Bonita ⁷	T	D(10)	В	STR	4	M	2 10 (1 22 2 22)	
Bonita	1	R(10)	Б	SIK	4	F	2.10 (1.33-3.32) 1.66 (1.07-2.57)	+
You ⁸	S	Е	N	IST	5 (+ sex)	C	1.70 (0.98-2.92)	
Iribarren ⁹	Н	С	N	STR	11	M	0.25 (0.04-0.82)	_
moanten	H	C	11	SIK	11	F	1.23 (0.75-1.96)	
	T							
	T					M F	0.27 (0.11-0.57) 0.89 (0.57-1.38)	-
Yamada ¹⁰	T	E	F	SAH	1	M F	1.13 (0.19-6.85) 0.94 (0.57-1.55)	
Anderson ¹¹	Н	Е	F	SAH	8	M	0.50 (0.20-1.30)	
				SAH		F	1.30 (0.70-2.30)	
				ASH		M	0.60 (0.20-1.70)	
				ASH		F	1.20 (0.60-2.40)	
Iribarren ¹²	Н	С	В	IST	10	M	1.02 (0.71-1.48)	
				IST		F	1.17 (0.92-1.50)	
				TIA		M	1.16 (0.49-2.71)	
				TIA		F	1.26 (0.76-2.08)	
Whincup ¹³	C	С	В	STR	16	M	1.54 (0.68-3.47)	
McGhee ¹⁴	Н	P(10)	F	STR	2	M	1.31 (0.87-1.99)	
		, ,				F	1.57 (1.11-2.24)	+
Qureshi ¹⁵	S	E	В	STR IST	7	F	0.90(0.60-1.30) 0.80(0.60-1.30)	
16	G.	C			1.4			
Zhang ¹⁶	S	C E	N	STR	14	F	1.44 (1.20-1.72) 1.27 (1.05-1.54)	+
		E					1.27 (1.03-1.34)	+
Wen ¹⁷	S	C	F	STR	9	F	1.52 (1.08-2.15)	+
	S	M			9	F	1.33 (0.96-1.84)	
	T	E			9	F	1.64 (0.91-2.95)	
Hill (study 1) ¹⁸	Н	C	F	CVD	2	M	1.59(1.14-2.21)	+
Tim (study 1)	11	C	1.	CAD	9	F	0.90(0.67-1.21)	+
Hill (study 2) ¹⁸	Н	C	F	CVD	9	M	1.82(1.20-2.77)	+
IIII (Bludy 2)	**	~	-	J. D	9	F	1.17(0.76-1.82)	
					,	•	1.17(0.70-1.02)	

Footnotes

Under study is shown the first author of the publication cited

Source of exposure is coded as C = cotinine (above lowest level), H = household, S = spouse, T = total. See text for detailed definition

Timing of exposure is coded as C = current, E = ever (or unspecified), M = during marriage, R(N) = recent, within last N Years, P(N) = past, N years ago. For study 2, current spousal exposure refers to last 12 months of first marriage

Fatality is indicated by F = fatal and NF = non fatal. B implies data only available for both fatal and non fatal occurrences combined

Fatality is indicated by F = fatal and NF = non fatal. B implies data only available for both fatal and non fatal occurrences combined Disease, as named by the authors of the paper: ASH = aneurysmal subarachnoid haemorrhage, CIS = cerebral ischaemia, CVD = cerebrovascular disease, IST = ischaemic stroke, SAH = subarachnoid haemorrhage, SCI = silent cerebral infarction, STR = stroke and TIA = transient ischaemic attack

Number of adjustment variables. See Appendix B for details

Sex is coded as C = combined, F = females and M = males

The **RRs** and **CIs** used for the main meta-analysis are highlighted in bold type. Significant (p<0.05) positive (or negative) relative risks are indicated by + (or -)

TABLE 3: RR of stroke among lifelong non-smokers for rarer indices of ETS exposure and for dose-response analyses

Study	Sex	Exposure grouping	RR by level (95% CI)
Lee ²		ETS exposure at home	
	M	Not at all Little Average/a lot	Not significant, no significant trend
	F	Not at all Little Average/a lot	Not significant, no significant trend
		ETS at work	
	M	Not at all Little Average/a lot	Not significant, no significant trend
	F	Not at all Little Average/a lot	Not significant, no significant trend
		ETS during travel	
	M	Not at all Little Average/a lot	Not significant, no significant trend
	F	Not at all Little Average/a lot	Not significant, no significant trend
		ETS during leisure	
	M	Not at all Little Average/a lot	Not significant, no significant trend
	F	Not at all Little Average/a lot	Not significant, no significant trend
		Total ETS exposure	
	M	Score 0-1 2-4 5-12	1.24 (0.39-3.99) 1.77 (0.41-7.61)
	F	Score 0-1 2-4 5-12	0.86 (0.37-1.99) 2.44 (0.90-6.58)
Donnan ⁴		Either parent smoked	
	С	No Yes	1.00 (0.50-2.10)
Howard ⁶		Total ETS exposure	
	С	Hours per week	No significant relationship
You ⁸	_	Mother smoked	
	С	No Yes	0.98 (0.44-2.20)
	С	Father smoked No Yes	0.69 (0.43-1.12)
	C	Either parent smoked	0.07 (0.43 1.12)
	C	No Yes	0.78 (0.48-1.26)
	C	Cigarettes smoked by spouse	
		0 1-20 >20 per day	1.55 (0.83-2.88) 1.91 (0.94-3.88)
Iribarren9		ETS exposure at home	
	M	No 40+ hrs/wk	Not significant
	F	No 40+ hrs/wk	1.40 (0.53-3.04)
		FTC avnosure in small spaces	
	M	ETS exposure in small spaces No Yes	0.47 (0.17-1.10)
		No 40+ hrs/week	1.03 (0.16-3.62)
	F	No Yes	0.64 (0.36-1.08)
		No 40+ hrs/wk	0.58 (0.21-1.65)
		ETS exposure in large indoor areas	
	M	No Yes	0.35 (0.14-0.78)
	_	No 40+ hrs/wk	Not significant
	F	No Yes	0.68 (0.43-1.11)
		No 40+ hrs/wk	0.34 (0.02-1.62)
	3.7	Total ETS exposure	0.45 (0.10.1.22)
	M	No 40+ hrs/wk	0.45 (0.10-1.32)
	F	No 40+ hrs/wk	0.52 (0.21-1.12)

TABLE 3 (continued)

Study	Sex	Exposure grouping	RR by level (95% CI)
Iribarren ¹²		ETS exposure at home	
	M	0 1-19 20+ hrs/wk	IST: 0.89 (0.56-1.42) 1.29 (0.75-2.20)
			TIA: 1.20 (0.45-3.20) 1.06 (0.24-4.65)
	F	0 1-19 20+ hrs/wk	IST: 0.99 (0.72-1.35) 1.50 (1.07-2.09)
			TIA: 1.00 (0.52-1.93) 1.72 (0.88-3.35)
		Out-of-home exposure	
	M	No Yes	IST: 0.93 (0.70-1.25)
			TIA: 0.78 (0.41-1.51)
		0 1-19 20+ hrs/wk	IST: 0.99 (0.73-1.34) 0.75 (0.47-1.21)
			TIA 0.77 (0.38-1.54) 0.83 (0.30-2.30)
	F	No Yes	IST: 1.06 (0.85-1.33)
			TIA: 0.78 (0.49-1.26)
		0 1-19 20+ hrs/wk	IST: 1.08 (0.85-1.37) 1.00 (0.68-1.46)
			TIA: 0.81 (0.48-1.34) 0.70 (0.31-1.54)
Whincup ¹³		Serum cotinine concentration	
•	M	<0.8 0.8-1.4 1.5-2.7 2.8+ ng/ml	1.34 (0.53-3.40) 1.39 (0.48-4.04) 2.16 (0.80-5.80)
McGhee ¹⁴		Number of smokers in household	
	C	0 1 2+	1.34 (1.01-1.79) 2.08 (1.33-3.25) [Trend p=0.001]
Zhang ¹⁶	F	Cigarettes smoked by husband 0 1-9 10-19 20+ per day	1.28 (0.92-1.77) 1.32 (1.01-1.72) 1.62 (1.28-2.05) [Trend p<0.001]
	F	Duration of smoking by husband 0 1-17 18+ years	1.13 (0.70-1.82) 1.47 (1.22-1.78) [Trend p<0.001]
	F	Pack-years of smoking by husband 0 1-13 14+	1.12 (0.82-1.54) 1.55 (1.27-1.90) [Trend p<0.001]
Wen ¹⁷	F	Pack-years of smoking by husband 0 <8.8 8.8-17.9 18.0+	1.35 (0.79-2.31) 1.25 (0.76-2.07) 1.36 (0.94-1.96) [Trend p=0.029]
		TIME .	
	Г	ETS at work	0.72 (0.44.1.20)
	F	No Yes	0.73 (0.44-1.20)
		0 <10 10-24 25+ years	0.47 (0.17-1.29) 0.95 (0.47-1.90) 0.74 (0.35-1.56) [Trend p=0.520]
		ETS in early life	
	F	No Yes	1.10 (0.74-1.63)
	F	0 <20 20+ years [sic]	0.91 (0.56-1.47) 1.46 (0.86-2.45) [Trend p=0.342]
	E	Ever exposed by husband, at work or in early life No Yes	1.64 (0.01.2.05)
	F	NO TES	1.64 (0.91-2.95)

Footnotes

Under **study** is shown the first author of the publication cited

 $\textbf{Sex} \text{ is coded as } C = combined, \ F = females \ and \ M = males$

See text for definitions of total exposure

RRs are adjusted for covariates (see Appendix B) if adjusted data are available. The first exposure level is always the base for comparison (RR = 1.00). The disease is as defined in Table 1 except that for study 12 results are shown separately for IST = ischaemic stroke and TIA = transient ischaemic attack. Those highlighted in bold type are included in dose-response meta-analyses (see Table 7). Trend tests given by original author

TABLE 4: Results of principal meta-analysis, overall and by subgroup

Estimates included	Estimates	Analysis	RR (95% CI)	Significance
All	29	Fixed	1.27 (1.18-1.36)	p<0.001*
All	2)	Random	1.25 (1.13-1.38)	p<0.001 p<0.001
		Kandom	1.23 (1.13-1.36)	p<0.001
Sex : male	12	Fixed	1.31 (1.12-1.52)	NS
female	14	Fixed	1.25 (1.15-1.36)	
combined	3	Fixed	1.35 (0.96-1.91)	
Exposure index : Spouse	7	Fixed	1.34 (1.17-1.54)	NS
Total/cotinine	6	Fixed	1.41 (1.13-1.77)	
Household	16	Fixed	1.21 (1.10-1.33)	
Continent: N.America	8	Fixed	1.12 (1.00-1.26)	p<0.05
Europe	5	Fixed	1.03 (0.67-1.57)	P <0.05
Asia	6	Fixed	1.41 (1.24-1.61)	
Australasia	10	Fixed	1.37 (1.19-1.58)	
			-107 (-1127 -1100)	
Publication year: 1984-1989	7	Fixed	1.16 (1.00-1.36)	p<0.05
1990-1999	4	Fixed	1.61 (1.26-2.04)	•
2000-2004	9	Fixed	1.09 (0.93-1.28)	
2005-2007	9	Fixed	1.34 (1.20-1.48)	
Number of cases: 1-199	16	Fixed	1.14 (0.98-1.33)	NS
200+	13	Fixed	1.31 (1.20-1.42)	
Study type: prospective	15	Fixed	1.19 (1.08-1.30)	p<0.1
case-control	10	Fixed	1.45 (1.23-1.71)	
cross-sectional	4	Fixed	1.35 (1.15-1.58)	
Number of adjustment variables [†] :0-5	14	Fixed	1.30 (1.16-1.47)	NS
6+	15	Fixed	1.24 (1.13-1.36)	
Fatality: fatal	13	Fixed	1.26 (1.14-1.40)	NS
non-fatal	7	Fixed	1.33 (1.15-1.54)	
both	9	Fixed	1.22 (1.05-1.41)	
Disease: CVD or stroke	20	Fixed	1.31 (1.20-1.42)	NS
subarachnoid haemorrhage	4	Fixed	0.97 (0.68-1.37)	- 10
other	5	Fixed	1.18 (0.99-1.40)	

<u>Footnotes</u>

Estimates indicates number of RR (CI) estimates included in meta-analysis

Analysis: Random-effects are shown only for the overall analysis and are generally the same as, or similar to, the fixed-effects estimates otherwise

Significance for the overall analysis relates to significance of the RR, otherwise it relates to the significance of the difference in RR between levels of the factors studied. $NS = p \ge 0.1$

^{*}The heterogeneity chisquared was 42.06 on 28 d.f., p<0.05

[†] Apart from sex

Sensitivity meta-analyses **TABLE 5:**

		RR (95% CI)		Hetero	gene	ity
Analysis	Estimates	Fixed-effects	Random-effects	χ^2	d.f.	p
Principal	29	1.27 (1.18-1.36)	1.25 (1.13-1.38)	42.06	28	p<0.05
Preferring ever to current exposure*	29	1.23 (1.15-1.33)	1.23 (1.12-1.35)	38.60	28	p<0.1
Preferring total to spousal exposure [†]	29	1.25 (1.16-1.34)	1.22 (1.09-1.37)	51.51	28	p<0.01
Excluding silent cerebral infarction	28	1.27 (1.18-1.37)	1.26 (1.13-1.39)	41.57	27	p<0.05
Preferring "least adjusted" to "most adjusted" estimates	29	1.27 (1.19-1.37)	1.25 (1.13-1.38)	42.79	28	p<0.05

 $[\]frac{Footnotes}{*~Using~preference~order~for~time~of~exposure:~ever,~during~marriage,~in~the~past,~recent,~current}^{\dagger~Using~preference~order~for~type~of~exposure:~total,~cotinine,~spouse,~household}$

Effect of additional adjustment for variables other than age **TABLE 6:**

Study	Sex	Adjustment variables	RR (95% CI)	Ratio
Howard ⁶	С	Age, sex, race	1.03 (0.63-1.67)	
		Age, sex, race $+ 8$	1.06 (0.64-1.75)	1.03
Bonita ⁷	M	Age	2.06 (1.34-3.17)	
		Age + 3	2.10 (1.33-3.32)	1.02
	F	Age	1.50 (1.01-2.21)	
		Age + 3	1.66 (1.07-2.57)	1.11
Iribarren ¹²	M	Age	1.12 (0.78-1.60)	
		Age + 9	1.02 (0.71-1.48)	0.91
	F	Age	1.23 (0.97-1.57)	
		Age + 9	1.17 (0.92-1.50)	0.95
Whincup ¹³	M	Age, town	0.96 (0.49-1.89)	
		Age, $town + 15$	1.54 (0.68-3.47)	1.60
Zhang ¹⁶	F	Age	1.46 (1.23-1.72)	
6		Age + 13	1.44 (1.20-1.72)	0.99
Qureshi ¹⁵	F	Age	0.90 (0.60-1.40)	
C		Age + 6	0.90 (0.60-1.30)	1.00
Hill (Study 1) ¹⁸	F	Age, ethnicity	0.88 (0.66-1.17)	
(_	Age, ethnicity + 7	0.90 (0.67-1.21)	1.02
Hill (Study 2) ¹⁸	M	Age, ethnicity	1.91 (1.23-2.96)	
(Stat) - /	2,2	Age, ethnicity + 7	1.82 (1.20-2.77)	0.95
	F	Age, ethnicity	1.16 (0.75-1.79)	
		Age, ethnicity + 7	1.17 (0.76-1.82)	1.01

 $\frac{Footnotes}{See\ Appendix\ B\ for\ the\ additional\ adjustment\ factors}$ See Table 2 for extra information regarding exposure and disease Under **study** is shown the first author of the publication cited **Sex** is coded as C =combined, F =females and M =males

Dose-response meta-analyses TABLE 7:

Analysis	Estimates	RR (95% CI) Fixed-effects	Random-effects	$\frac{\text{Hetero}}{\chi^2}$	geneity d.f.	p
Low dose	9	1.18 (1.02-1.37)	1.18 (1.02-1.37)	5.21	8	NS
High dose	10	1.60 (1.39-1.85)	1.60 (1.39-1.85)	4.06	9	NS

Footnote
Based on estimates in Table 3 highlighted in bold type

APPENDIX A

STUDIES/ANALYSES NOT INCLUDED IN TABLES AND FIGURES

In preparing the tables and figures in this document certain papers which might be thought to cite relevant data have not been referred to. For each of these papers, this appendix notes the authors, date of publication and country and the reasons for not referring to them.

- Molgaard et al 1986,²² USA: Finding presented only for smokers and nonsmokers combined
- Howard et al 1994, 36 USA: Study of carotid artery disease
- Lin *et al* 1994,³⁷ China: Unclear if non-smokers includes ex-smokers as well as never smokers
- Wang *et al* 1994,³⁸ China: Unclear whether ETS results were based on never smokers, or on both smokers and non-smokers
- Diez-Roux et al 1995, 39 USA: Study of carotid artery disease
- Kiechl et al 2002, 40 Italy: Study of carotid artery disease
- Ying et al 2003,⁴¹ China: Data taken from ³⁷ and ³⁸
- Ivan 2004, 42 Romania: Study of cases only with no controls
- Miura et al, 43 2004 Japan: No analysis in never smokers

APPENDIX B Risk factors used as potential confounding factors to adjust relative risk analyses

	Pul	olicati	on															
Risk factor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18ª
Sex	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	\mathbf{x}^{b}	-	-	-	-
Age ^c	X	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	x	X	X
Race/ethnicity						x			X		X	X			X			X
Socioeconomic status													X			x	X	3
Education					x			x	X			X		X		x	X	X
Marital status		x			x				X			X						X
Occupation/employment									X							x	X	X
Diet						x											3	
Alcohol						x			X		X	X	X		X	x		
Region of residence				x							X		X					
Housing quality					x													X
Proxy respondent											x							
Exercise						x			x			X	x			x	X	
Cholesterol/lipids						x			x			X	2		x			
Other blood tests						x							2					
Blood pressure				x		x	x	x	x		x	X	2		x	2		
Diabetes						x	x	x	X		X	X	X		X	x		
Hormone therapy ^d																3		
Obesity/weight						x			X		X	X	X		X	x	X	
History of heart disease							x	x					X					
Lung function													X					
Height													x					
Aspirin use																X		

Risk factor adjusted for by 1, 2, 3 ... variables
Not applicable as results given by sex
Both the studies considered the same potential confounding factors

Sex adjusted for except for first relative risk in Table 2

Only age adjusted results were considered Includes menopause, oral contraception

APPENDIX C

Relationship between cotinine and blood pressure in nonsmokers in the Health Survey for England 1996, 1998 and 2001

In 1996, 1998 and 2001, data on cotinine, diastolic and systolic blood pressure and other relevant demographic and lifestyle characteristics were collected from large representative samples of the English population in the Health Survey for England (HSE). 44-46 Cotinine was determined in serum in 1996 and in saliva in 1998 and 2001. Based on these data the relationship of blood pressure to log cotinine was studied in men and women aged 35+, who had a cotinine level <20 ng/ml and who reported smoking no cigarettes or using nicotine products. Adjustment was made for age, sex, body mass index and units of alcohol per week. Results of the fitted models are shown in Appendix Table C.

For diastolic blood pressure, there was at each year a highly significant (p<0.001) positive association with age, body mass index and alcohol consumption and a negative association with female sex, but there was no consistent association of log cotinine. A marginally significant (p=0.03) positive association in the 1998 data was counterbalanced by nonsignificant negative associations in 1996 and 2001.

For systolic blood pressure, the associations with age, body mass index, alcohol consumption and sex were consistently seen, and again significant (at least p<0.01 in all analyses). However no consistent or significant association with log cotinine was seen.

These results do not suggest any meaningful relationship between ETS exposure and blood pressure.

APPENDIX TABLE C

Results of regression analyses of blood pressure on log cotinine, age, sex, body mass index and alcohol consumption in nonsmokers aged 35+ with no reported use of nicotine products and a cotinine level <20 ng/ml

	Year of HSE Survey	,a	
	1996	1998	2001
Number of subjects			
- Male	2543	2147	2574
- Female	2989	2466	3066
- Total	5532	4613	5640
Diastolic BP			
Constant	56.4831	59.8164	62.2174
Age ^b Sex (female v male) ^b Body mass index ^b Units alcohol per week ^b Log cotinine	Mean (SE) +0.1604 (0.0111) - 4.7047 (0.3229) +0.5315 (0.0357) +0.0506 (0.0117) - 0.0069 (0.1281) p = 0.957	Mean (SE) +0.1245 (0.0122) -4.3386 (0.3548) +0.4488 (0.0372) +0.0550 (0.0122) +0.2637 (0.1249) p = 0.035	Mean (SE) +0.0968 (0.0111) - 4.9135 (0.3180) +0.3893 (0.0319) +0.0611 (0.0114) - 0.0047 (0.1187) p = 0.969
Systolic BP			
Age ^b Sex (female v male) ^c Body mass index ^b Units alcohol per week ^d Log cotinine	71.8986 <u>Mean (SE)</u> +0.7477 (0.0174) -1.4173 (0.5053) +0.9762 (0.0558) +0.0709 (0.0183) -0.2327 (0.2005) p = 0.246	76.4112 <u>Mean (SE)</u> +0.6877 (0.0190) - 1.4963 (0.5498) - 0.8757 (0.0577) +0.0589 (0.0189) +0.3021 (0.1936) p = 0.119	77.1983 <u>Mean (SE)</u> +0.6592 (0.0172) -1.2651 (0.4906) +0.8413 (0.0492) +0.0822 (0.0176) +0.0991 (0.1832) p = 0.589

^a The data from the Health Survey for England are Crown Copyright and are made available through the ERSC Data Archive p<0.001 for each year p=0.005, p=0.007 and p=0.010 for 1996, 1998, 2001 respectively p<0.001, p=0.002 and p<0.001 for 1996, 1998 and 2001 respectively

References

- 1. Gillis CR, Hole DJ, Hawthorne VM, Boyle P. The effect of environmental tobacco smoke in two urban communities in the west of Scotland. *Eur J Respir Dis* 1984;65(suppl 133):121-6.
- 2. Lee PN, Chamberlain J, Alderson MR. Relationship of passive smoking to risk of lung cancer and other smoking-associated diseases. *Br J Cancer* 1986;**54**:97-105.
- 3. Hirayama T. Passive smoking and cancer: an epidemiological review. *Gann Monogr Cancer Res* 1987;**33**:127-35.
- 4. Donnan GA, McNeil JJ, Adena MA, Doyle AE, O'Malley HM, Neill GC. Smoking as a risk factor for cerebral ischaemia. *Lancet* 1989;**2**:643-7.
- 5. Sandler DP, Comstock GW, Helsing KJ, Shore DL. Deaths from all causes in non-smokers who lived with smokers. *Am J Public Health* 1989;**79**:163-7.
- 6. Howard G, Wagenknecht LE, Cai J, Cooper L, Kraut MA, Toole JF. Cigarette smoking and other risk factors for silent cerebral infarction in the general population. *Stroke* 1998;**29**:913-7.
- 7. Bonita R, Duncan J, Truelsen T, Jackson RT, Beaglehole R. Passive smoking as well as active smoking increases the risk of acute stroke. *Tob Control* 1999;8:156-60.
- 8. You RX, Thrift AG, McNeil JJ, Davis SM, Donnan GA. Ischemic stroke risk and passive exposure to spouses' cigarette smoking. *Am J Public Health* 1999;**89**:572-5.
- 9. Iribarren C, Friedman GD, Klatsky AL, Eisner MD. Exposure to environmental tobacco smoke: association with personal characteristics and self reported health conditions. *J Epidemiol Community Health* 2001;**55**:721-8.
- 10. Yamada S, Koizumi A, Iso H, Wada Y, Watanabe Y, Date C, *et al.* Risk factors for fatal subarachnoid hemorrhage the Japan Collaborative Cohort Study. *Stroke* 2003;**34**:2781-7.
- 11. Anderson CS, Feigin V, Bennett D, Lin R-B, Hankey G, Jamrozik K. Active and passive smoking and the risk of subarachnoid hemorrhage an international population-based case-control study. *Stroke* 2004;**35**:633-7.
- 12. Iribarren C, Darbinian J, Klatsky AL, Friedman GD. Cohort study of exposure to environmental tobacco smoke and risk of first ischemic stroke and transient ischemic attack. *Neuroepidemiology* 2004;**23**:38-44.
- 13. Whincup PH, Gilg JA, Emberson JR, Jarvis MJ, Feyerabend C, Bryant A, *et al.* Passive smoking and risk of coronary heart disease and stroke: prospective study with cotinine measurement. *BMJ* 2004;**329**:200-4.

- 14. McGhee SM, Ho SY, Schooling M, Ho LM, Thomas GN, Hedley AJ, *et al.* Mortality associated with passive smoking in Hong Kong. *BMJ* 2005;**330**:287-8.
- 15. Qureshi AI, Suri MFK, Kirmani JF, Divani AA. Cigarette smoking among spouses. Another risk factor for stroke in women. *Stroke* 2005;**36**:e74-e76.
- 16. Zhang X, Shu XO, Yang G, Li HL, Xiang YB, Gao Y-T, *et al.* Association of passive smoking by husbands with prevalence of stroke among Chinese women nonsmokers. *Am J Epidemiol* 2005;**161**:213-8.
- 17. Wen W, Shu XO, Gao Y-T, Yang G, Li Q, Li H, *et al*. Environmental tobacco smoke and mortality in Chinese women who have never smoked: prospective cohort study. *BMJ* 2006;**333**:376-9.
- 18. Hill SE, Blakely T, Kawachi I, Woodward A. Mortality among lifelong nonsmokers exposed to secondhand smoke at home: cohort data and sensitivity analyses. *Am J Epidemiol* 2007;**165**:530-40.
- 19. Lee PN, Forey BA. *Epidemiological evidence on environmental tobacco smoke and stroke a review with meta-analyses*. Sutton, Surrey: P N Lee Statistics and Computing Ltd; 2005. www.pnlee.co.uk/reflist.htm [Download LEE2005T]
- 20. Lee PN, Forey BA. Environmental tobacco smoke exposure and risk of stroke in nonsmokers: a review with meta-analysis. *J Stroke Cerebrovasc Dis* 2006;**15**:190-201.
- 21. Jamrozik K. Estimate of deaths attributable to passive smoking among UK adults: database analysis. *BMJ* 2005;**330**:812-5.
- 22. Molgaard CA, Bartok A, Peddecord KM, Rothrock J. The association between cerebrovascular disease and smoking: a case-control study. *Neuroepidemiology* 1986;**5**:88-94.
- 23. Greenland S, Longnecker MP. Methods for trend estimation from summarized dose-response data, with applications to meta-analysis. *Am J Epidemiol* 1992;**135**:1301-9.
- 24. Fry JS, Lee PN. Revisiting the association between environmental tobacco smoke exposure and lung cancer risk. I. The dose-response relationship with amount and duration of smoking by the husband. *Indoor Built Environ* 2000;**9**:303-16.
- 25. Hamling JS, Lee PN, Weitkunat R, Ambühl M. Facilitating meta-analyses by deriving relative effect and precision estimates for alternative comparisons from a set of estimates presented by exposure level or disease category. *Stat Med* 2007; doi:10.1002/sim.3013 (published 3 August 2007)
- 26. Fleiss JL, Gross AJ. Meta-analysis in epidemiology, with special reference to studies of the association between exposure to environmental tobacco smoke and lung cancer: a critique. *J Clin Epidemiol* 1991;**44**:127-39.

- 27. Egger M, Davey Smith G, Schneider M, Minder C. Bias in meta-analysis detected by a simple, graphical test. *BMJ* 1997;**315**:629-34.
- 28. Lee PN. Environmental tobacco smoke and mortality. A detailed review of epidemiological evidence relating environmental tobacco smoke to the risk of cancer, heart disease and other causes of death in adults who have never smoked. Basel: Karger; 1992.
- 29. Lee PN, Forey BA, Fry JS. Revisiting the association between environmental tobacco smoke exposure and lung cancer risk. III. Adjustment for the biasing effect of misclassification of smoking habits. *Indoor Built Environ* 2001:**10**:384-98.
- 30. Lee PN, Fry JS, Forey BA. Revisiting the association between environmental tobacco smoke exposure and lung cancer risk. V. Overall conclusions. *Indoor Built Environ* 2002:**11**:59-82.
- 31. National Cancer Institute. Shopland DR, Zeise L, Dunn A, editors. *Health effects of exposure to environmental tobacco smoke. The report of the California Environmental Protection Agency*. Bethesda, MD: US Department of Health and Human Services, National Institutes of Health, National Cancer Institute; 1999. (Smoking and Tobacco Control. Monograph No. 10.) NIH Pub. No. 99-4645. http://cancercontrol.cancer.gov/tcrb/monographs/10/index.html
- 32. International Agency for Research on Cancer. *Tobacco smoke and involuntary smoking*, Volume 83. Lyon, France: IARC; 2004. (IARC Monographs on the evaluation of carcinogenic risks to humans.)
- 33. LeVois ME, Layard MW. Publication bias in the environmental tobacco smoke/coronary heart disease epidemiologic literature. *Regul Toxicol Pharmacol* 1995;**21**:184-91.
- 34. Steenland K, Thun M, Lally C, Heath C, Jr. Environmental tobacco smoke and coronary heart disease in the American Cancer Society CPS-II cohort. *Circulation* 1996;**94**:622-8.
- 35. Hirayama T. Lung cancer in Japan: effects of nutrition and passive smoking. In: Mizell M, Correa P, editors. *Lung cancer: causes and prevention, Proceedings of the International Lung Cancer Update Conference, New Orleans, Louisiana, March 3-5, 1983*. Deerfield Beach, Florida: Verlag Chemie International, Inc, 1984;175-95.
- 36. Howard G, Burke GL, Szklo M, Tell GS, Eckfeldt J, Evans G, *et al.* Active and passive smoking are associated with increased carotid artery wall thickness: the atherosclerosis risk in communities study. *Arch Intern Med* 1994;**154**:1277-82.
- 37. Lin XX, Wang JH, Yang CL *et al*. Re: Case-control study on female smokers and cardiovascular disease. *Chin J Prev Control Chronic Non-commun Dis* 1994;**2**:153-4.

- 38. Wang J, Lin XX, Yang CL *et al*. A case-control study of relationship between smoking and stroke. *Chin J Public Health* 1994;**13**:15-7.
- 39. Diez-Roux AV, Nieto FJ, Comstock GW, Howard G, Szklo M. The relationship of active and passive smoking to carotid atherosclerosis 12-14 years later. *Prev Med* 1995;**24**:48-55.
- 40. Kiechl S, Werner P, Egger G, Oberhollenzer F, Mayr M, Xu Q, *et al.* Active and passive smoking, chronic infections, and the risk of carotid atherosclerosis prospective results from the Bruneck Study. *Stroke* 2002;**33**:2170-6.
- 41. Ying GY, Li NX, Ren XH, Liu DP. Quantitative assessment of risks on cerebral vascular diseases in urban residents in Sichuan. *Chinese Journal of Epidemiology* 2003;**24**:1141-5.
- 42. Ivan A, Azoicai D, Stefanache F, Manole A, Hodorog D, Trifan M, *et al*. Prospective epidemiologic and clinical observations on the prevalence of risk factors for stroke, performed on 374 inpatients, during the period of June 2001-June 2004. *Rev Med Chir Soc Med Nat Iasi* 2004;**108**:561-5.
- 43. Miura K, Nakagawa H, Toyoshima H, Kodama K, Nagai M, Morikawa Y, *et al*. Environmental factors and risk of idiopathic dilated cardiomyopathy: a multi-hospital case-control study in Japan. *Circ J* 2004;**68**:1011-7.
- 44. Prescott-Clarke P, Primatesta P, editors. *Health survey for England '96. Volume 1: Findings. Volume 2: Methodology & documentation.* London: The Stationery Office; 1998. (Health Survey for England.) Series HS No. 6.
- 45. Erens B, Primatesta P, editors. *Health survey for England. Cardiovascular disease '98. Volume 1: Findings. Volume 2: Methodology & documentation.*London: The Stationery Office; 1999. (Health Survey for England.) Series HS No. 8.
- 46. Prior G, Deverill C, Malbut K, Primatesta P. Bajekal M, Primatesta P, Prior G, editors. *Health survey for England 2001. Methodology and documentation*. London: TSO (The Stationery Office); 2003. (Health Survey for England.) Series HS No. 11.