

TABLE 29.—Relative risk of lung cancer for men, comparing cigar, pipe, and cigarette smokers with nonsmokers. A summary of retrospective studies

Author, reference	Number	Relative risk ratio and percentage of cases and controls by type of smoking					
		Nonsmoker	Cigar only	Pipe only	Total pipe and cigar	Cigarette only	Mixed
Levin, et al. (60):		Relative risk.....	1.0	0.7	0.8	2.1	
Cases.....	236	Percent cases.....	15	11	14	66	
Controls.....	481	Percent controls.....	22	23	25	44	
Schrek, et al. (81):		Relative risk.....	1.0	.6	.7	1.7	
Cases.....	82	Percent cases.....	15	4	5	61	
Controls.....	522	Percent controls.....	22	23	11	59	
Wynder and Graham (111):		Relative risk.....	1.0	5.1	3.6	15.7	
Cases.....	605	Percent cases.....	1	4	4	91	
Controls.....	780	Percent controls.....	15	8	12	65	
Doll and Hill (85):		Relative risk.....	1.0		5.1	9.6	
Cases.....	1,357	Percent cases.....	.5		4	74	
Controls.....	1,357	Percent controls.....	5		7	69	
Koulumies (56):		Relative risk.....	1.0		9.6	29.3	
Cases.....	812	Percent cases.....	.6		2	77	
Controls.....	300	Percent controls.....	18		6	76	
Sadowsky, et al. (77):		Relative risk.....	1.0	2.4	1.4	3.7	5.6
Cases.....	477	Percent cases.....	4	2	3	57	31
Controls.....	615	Percent controls.....	13	3	7	53	19

Wynder and Cornfield (110):		Relative risk.....	1.0	2.5	4.0	8.5	
Cases.....	63	Percent cases.....	4	13	6	77	
Controls.....	133	Percent controls.....	21	27	8	45	
Randig (74):		Relative risk.....	1.0	5.3	5.0	5.0	
Cases.....	415	Percent cases.....	1	21	11	67	
Controls.....	381	Percent controls.....	6	19	11	64	
Mills and Porter (65):		Relative risk.....	1.0		6.0	5.4	
Cases.....	444	Percent cases.....	7		37	55	
Controls.....	430	Percent controls.....	31		26	43	
Mills and Porter (66):		Relative risk.....	1.0		2.8	4.5	
Cases.....	484	Percent cases.....	8		13	78	
Controls.....	1,588	Percent controls.....	28		16	57	
Schwartz and Denoix (82):		Relative risk.....	1.0		4.7	13.5	
Cases.....	430	Percent cases.....	1		6	96	
Controls.....	430	Percent controls.....	11		14	78	
Stocks (89):		Relative risk.....	1.0		3.1	5.0	
Cases.....	2,101	Percent cases.....	2		9	80	
Controls.....	5,960	Percent controls.....	9		13	78	
Lombard and Snegireff (61):		Relative risk.....	1.0		1.7	8.1	
Cases.....	500	Percent cases.....	2		4	95	
Controls.....	1,839	Percent controls.....	10		15	75	
Permu (73):		Relative risk.....	1.0		4.2	9.2	11.1
Cases.....	1,477	Percent cases.....	7		4	77	13
Controls.....	713	Percent controls.....	39		5	50	7

TABLE 29.—Relative risk of lung cancer for men, comparing cigar, pipe, and cigarette smokers with nonsmokers. A summary of retrospective studies—Continued

Author, reference	Number	Relative risk ratio and percentage of cases and controls by type of smoking						
		Nonsmoker	Cigar only	Pipe only	Total pipe and cigar	Cigarette only	Mixed	
Wicken (106):		Relative risk.....	1.0			2.2	4.3	4.2
Cases.....	803	Percent cases.....	4			10	78	7
Controls.....	803	Percent controls.....	14			16	64	6
Abelin and Gsell (1):		Relative risk.....	1.0	30.7	21.8	39.9	31.0	24.7
Cases.....	118	Percent cases.....	2	28	7	58	25	24
Controls.....	524	Percent controls.....	35	19	6	31	17	10
Wynder, et al. (115):		Relative risk.....	1.0			2.0	12.4	
Cases.....	210	Percent cases.....	3			5	92	
Controls.....	420	Percent controls.....	21			15	47	

TABLE 30.—Changes in bronchial epithelium of male cigar, pipe, and cigarette smokers as compared to nonsmokers

Group	Number of subjects	Sections with epithellum	Percent sections with epithelial lesions	Percent 3 plus cell rows with cilia	Percent atypical cells present	Total sections	Percent hyperplasia and goblet cells in glands
1st set (none vs. pipe vs. cigarette—matched on 1:1 basis):							
Nonsmoker.....	20	985	21.7	11.2	2.6	1,031	10.3
Pipe only.....	20	924	65.5	38.1	37.0	979	35.9
Cigarette only.....	20	914	96.8	88.6	95.2	982	72.1
2d set (none vs. pipe vs. cigarette—matched on frequency basis):							
Nonsmoker.....	25	1,246	22.9	13.4	.7	1,277	11.5
Pipe only.....	25	1,164	68.7	38.7	38.2	1,247	37.9
Cigarette only.....	25	1,126	96.3	88.7	89.5	1,237	75.5
3d set (none vs. cigar vs. cigarette):							
Nonsmoker.....	35	1,706	27.4	12.7	.8	1,748	15.3
Cigar only.....	35	1,733	90.8	40.0	73.6	1,828	52.5
Cigarette only.....	35	1,526	99.0	92.7	97.8	1,693	80.2

Source: Auerbach et al. (8).

Tumorigenic Activity

The tumorigenic activity of tobacco smoke can be modified in both a quantitative and qualitative sense. Physical or chemical changes in tobacco that result in a reduction of total particulate matter upon combustion of a given quantity of tobacco may result in a reduction of carcinogenic potential. Such factors as tobacco selection, treatment, blending, cut, and additives may quantitatively alter tar production. Wrapper porosity and filtration may also affect tar production.

Quantitative changes in the tumorigenic activity of tobacco tar on a gram-for-gram basis can be produced by the selection and treatment of tobacco, the use of additives or tobacco sheets, or adjustments in the cut and packing density.

Combustion temperature can also produce quantitative changes in the particulate matter of tobacco smoke. Although high-temperature burning produces less particulate matter in the smoke, it appears that tumorigenic components occur in higher concentration when tobacco is pyrolyzed at temperatures higher than 700° centigrade (34).

Cigars, pipes, and cigarettes are similar in that they are smoked orally and have a common site of introduction to the body. The tissues of the mouth, larynx, pharynx, and esophagus appear to receive approximately equal exposure to the smoke of these products. Inhalation causes smoke to be drawn deeply into the lungs and also allows for systemic absorption of certain constituents of tobacco smoke which then can be carried further to other organs.

Pipe tobacco and cigars vary from cigarettes in a number of characteristics that can produce both quantitative and qualitative changes in the total particulate matter produced by their combustion. Experimental evidence suggests that although there is some difference in the amount and quality of tar produced by cigars, this cannot account for the reduced mortality observed in cigar smokers compared to cigarette smokers.

Experimental Studies

Several experimental investigations have been conducted to examine the relative tumorigenic activity of tobacco smoke condensates obtained from cigarettes, cigars, and pipes. Most of these studies were standardized in an attempt to make the results of the cigar and pipe experiments more directly comparable with the cigarette data and most used the shaved skin of mice for the application of tar. Tars from cigars, pipes, and cigarettes were usually applied on an equal weight basis so that qualitative differences in the tars could be determined. In several experiments, the nicotine was extracted from the pipe and cigar condensates in an attempt to reduce the acute toxic effects that resulted in animals from the high concentrations of nicotine frequently found in these products.

Wynder and Wright (117) examined the differences in tumorigenic activity of pipe and cigarette condensates. Tars were obtained by the smoking of a popular brand of king-size cigarettes and the same cigarette tobacco smoked in 12 standard-grade briar bowl pipes. Both the cigarettes and pipes were puffed three times a minute with a 2-second puff and a 35-ml. volume. Both the cigarettes and pipes attained similar maximum combustion zone temperatures; however, the use of cigarette tobacco in the pipe resulted in a combustion chamber temperature that averaged about 150° centigrade higher than temperatures achieved when pipe tobacco was used. Chemical fractionation was accomplished and equal concentrations of the neutral fraction were applied in three weekly applications to the shaved skin of CAF₁ and Swiss mice. The results indicate that neutral tar obtained from cigarette tobacco smoked in pipes is more active than that obtained in the usual manner from cigarettes. About twice as many cancers were obtained in both the CAF₁ and the Swiss mice, and the latent period was about 2 months shorter.

Extending these data, Croninger, et al. (20) examined the biologic activity of tars obtained from cigars, pipes, and cigarettes. Each form of tobacco was smoked as it was manufactured in a manner to simulate human smoking or to maintain tobacco combustion. The whole tar was applied in dilutions of one-to-one and one-to-two with acetone to the shaved backs of female CAF₁ and female Swiss mice using three applications each week for the life-span of the animal. The nicotine was extracted from the pipe and cigar condensates to reduce the acute toxicity of the solutions. The Swiss mice, pipe, cigar, and cigarette tars produced both benign and malignant tumors. The incidence rates of malignant tumors given as percents were: 44, 41, and 37, respectively. These results suggested a somewhat higher degree of carcinogenic activity for cigar and pipe tars than for cigarette tar.

Similar results were reported by Kensler (53) who applied condensates obtained from cigars and cigarettes to the shaved skin of mice. The incidence of papillomas produced by cigar smoke concentrate was no different from that of the cigarette smoke condensate. Similarly, there was no difference between cigar and cigarette smoke condensates when carcinoma incidences were compared.

Homburger, et al. (45) prepared tars from cigar, pipe, and cigarette tobaccos that were smoked in the form of cigarettes. In this way, all tobaccos were smoked in an identical manner and uniform combustion temperatures were achieved. Because of this standardization, differences in tumor yield could be attributed to tobacco blend and not the manner in which the tars were prepared. The whole tars were diluted one-to-one with acetone and applied to the shaved skin of CAF₁ mice three times a week for the lifespan of the test animal. Skin cancers were produced more quickly with pipe and cigar smoke condensates than with cigarette smoke condensates. This suggests that the smoking

of pipe and cigar tobaccos in the form of cigarettes does not alter the condensates to any significant degree.

Davies and Day (22) prepared tars from small cigars especially manufactured from a composite blend of cigar tobacco representing small cigar brands smoked in the United Kingdom, cigarettes especially manufactured from the same tobacco used for the cigars described above, and plain cigarettes especially manufactured from a composite blend of flue-cured tobacco representing the major plain cigarette brands smoked in the United Kingdom. The whole tar was diluted to four concentration levels and applied to the shaved backs of female albino mice for their lifespan using four dosing regimens. A statistically significant increase in mouse skin carcinogenicity was shown with the cigar smoke condensate compared with the tars obtained from either flue-cured or cigar tobacco cigarettes. These results are consistent with those of the previously reported investigations.

The effect of curing on carcinogenicity was examined by Roe, et al. (76). Bright tobacco grown in Mexico was either flue-cured or air-cured and bulk fermented. Both flue-cured and air-cured tobaccos were made into cigarettes standardized for draw resistance and were smoked under similar conditions. Condensates from these cigarettes were applied to mouse skin three times each week in an acetone solution. The development of skin tumors was higher in mice treated with the flue-cured condensate than in mice treated with the air-cured condensate ($P < 0.01$). The difference may have been due to the use of equal weights of condensate rather than the use of extracts from an equal number of cigarettes. The air-cured cigarettes produced a greater weight of condensate than did the flue-cured cigarettes. A chemical analysis of the two tobaccos and two condensates revealed only small differences in composition. Evidently air curing of Bright tobacco in the method used is not associated with a loss of reducing sugars.

A more detailed analysis of these experimental studies is presented in table 31.

These experimental data suggest that cigar and pipe tobacco condensates have a carcinogenic potential that is comparable to cigarette condensates. This is supported by human epidemiological data for those sites exposed equally to the smoke of cigars, pipes, and cigarettes. The partially alkaline smoke derived from pipes and cigars is generally not inhaled, and as a result there appears to be a lower level of exposure of the lungs and other systems to the harmful properties of pipe and cigar smoke than occurs with cigarette smoking. It is anticipated that modifications in pipe tobacco or cigars which would result in a product that was more readily inhalable would eventually result in elevated mortality from cancer of the lung, bronchitis and emphysema, arteriosclerotic cardiovascular diseases, and the other conditions which have been clearly associated with cigarette smoking.

TABLE 31.—*Tumorigenic activity of cigar, pipe, and cigarette smoke condensates in skin painting experiments on animals*

[Key: A=Method, B=Frequency, C=Duration, D=Material.]

Author, reference	Animal	Activity	Treatment	Number	Percent	
					Papillomas	Carcinomas
Wynder and Wright (117).	CAF ₁ and Swiss mice.	A. Painting shaved skin.	CAF ₁ :			
		B. 3 times a week.	Pipe (cigarette tobacco).....	30	60	20
		C. Lifespan (24 months).	Cigarette.....	30	30	3
		D. Neutral fraction tar from cigarettes and cigarette tobacco smoked in pipes.	Swiss:			
			Pipe (cigarette tobacco).....	30	63	50
			Cigarette.....	30	63	33
Croninger, et al. (20).	Female Swiss mice.	A. Painting shaved skin.	Cigar, nicotine free (1:1).....	46	65	41
		B. 3 times a week.	Pipe, nicotine free (1:1).....	45	71	44
		C. Lifespan.	Cigar (1:2).....	78	33	18
		D. Whole tar diluted in acetone.	Pipe, nicotine free (1:2).....	89	30	16
			Cigarette (1:1).....	86	47	37
		Acetone controls.....	23	0	0	
Kensler (53)...	Swiss mice.....	A. Painting shaved skin.	Cigar tar (J) 100 mg. per week..	100	42	41
		B. 3 times a week.	Cigarette tar (G) 100 mg. per week.	100	40	28
		C. Lifespan.				
		D. Whole tar diluted in acetone.	Cigarette tar (E) 100 mg. per week.	100	34	34

TABLE 31.—*Tumorigenic activity of cigar, pipe, and cigarette smoke condensates in skin painting experiments on animals—Continued*

[Key: A = Method, B = Frequency, C = Duration, D = Material.]

Author, reference	Animal	Activity	Treatment	Number	Percent	
					Papillomas	Carcinomas
Homburger, et al. (45).	CAF ₁ mice.....	A. Painting shaved skin.	Cigar tobacco cigarettes ¹ 65 mg. per week.	100	37.5	19
		B. 2 to 3 times a week.	Pipe tobacco cigarettes ¹ 64 mg. per week.	100	23	20
		C. Lifespan (2 years).	Cigarettes ¹ 62 mg. per week.....	100	15	23
		D. Whole tar diluted 50 per cent in acetone.	Acetone controls.....	100	0	0
Davies and Day (22).	Female albino mice.	A. Painting shaved skin.	Cigars, small 83 mm. long 150 per week.	144	44	27
		B. Varied.	Cigar tobacco cigarettes 150 per week.	72	32	14
		C. 116 weeks.	Cigarettes 150 per week.....	144	28	13
		D. Whole tar in 150 mg. acetone.				
Roe, et al. (76).	Female Swiss mice.	A. Painting shaved skin.	Flue-cured Bright tobacco 180 mg. per week.	400	52	30
		B. 3 times a week.	Air-cured Bright tobacco 180 mg. per week.	400	68	23
		C. Lifespan.	Acetone controls 0.75 cc. per week.	400	1.3	0.5
		D. Whole tar diluted in acetone.				

¹ Cigar, pipe, and cigarette tobacco smoked as cigarettes at similar combustion temperatures.

CARDIOVASCULAR DISEASES

The majority of deaths in the United States each year are due to cardiovascular diseases. Cigarette smoking has been identified as a major risk factor for the development of coronary heart disease (CHD). However, pipe and cigar smokers experience only a small increase in mortality from coronary heart disease above the rates of nonsmokers. Cigarette smokers have higher death rates from cerebrovascular disease than nonsmokers, whereas pipe and cigar smokers have cerebrovascular death rates that are only slightly above the rates of nonsmokers. Table 32 summarizes the major prospective epidemiological investigations that examined the association of smoking in various forms and total cardiovascular diseases, coronary heart disease, and cerebrovascular disease. Doll and Hill (28), Best (9), and Kahn (50) examined dose-response relationships for pipe and cigar smokers and reported a slight increase in mortality from coronary heart disease with an increase in the number of cigars or pipefuls smoked.

Other prospective epidemiological studies have also examined the relationship of smoking in various forms to coronary heart disease and related risk factors. Jenkins, et al. (49) in the Western Collaborative Group Study of coronary heart disease, reported an incidence of coronary heart disease in men aged 50 to 59 who were pipe and cigar smokers that was intermediate between the rates seen in cigarette smokers and nonsmokers. No increase in incidence of coronary heart disease was seen among the pipe and cigar smokers in the younger age groups. Shapiro, et al. (85), in a study of the health insurance plan (HIP) population, reported incidence rates for myocardial infarction, angina pectoris, and possible MI, in pipe and cigar smokers that were similar to the incidence rates seen in cigarette smokers. These rates were considerably higher than those of nonsmokers. Data from the pooling project (47) suggested that the incidence of CHD deaths, sudden death, and the first major coronary event in pipe and cigar smokers was intermediate between the incidence experienced by cigarette smokers and nonsmokers. In contrast to these studies, Doyle, et al. (30) reported no increase in CHD deaths, myocardial infarction, or angina pectoris in pipe and cigar smokers over the rates of nonsmokers in the Framingham study.

The retrospective studies of Mills and Porter (64), Villiger and Heyden-Stucky (104), Schimmler, et al. (80), and Hood, et al. (46) contained data suggesting that pipe and cigar smokers experience mortality rates from coronary heart disease that are essentially similar to those experienced by cigarette smokers. The retrospective study of Spain and Nathan (86) reported lower rates of coronary heart disease in all smoking categories than were found in nonsmokers.

Van Buchem (103) and Dawber, et al. (23) examined serum cholesterol levels in groups of individuals classified according to smoking

habits. In these two studies, pipe and cigar smokers had serum cholesterol levels that were nearly identical with the levels found in nonsmokers.

Tibblin (91) and Dawber, et al. (23) investigated the effect of smoking on blood pressure. The proportion of smokers decreased in groups with higher blood pressures, although this was not as dramatic for pipe and cigar smokers as it was for cigarette smokers.

In an experimental study using anesthetized dogs, Kershbaum and Bellet (54, 55) examined the effects of inhaled and noninhaled cigarette, cigar, and pipe smoke on serum free fatty acid levels and urinary catecholamine and nicotine excretion. In this study, inhalation of tobacco smoke from all these sources resulted in similar increases in serum free fatty acids and in catecholamine and nicotine excretion.

TABLE 32.—Mortality ratios for cardiovascular deaths in male cigar and pipe smokers. A summary of prospective epidemiological studies

Author, reference	Category	Type of smoking				
		Non-smoker	Cigar only	Pipe only	Total pipe and cigar	Mixed
Hammond and Horn (40).	Cardiovascular total.	1.00	1.26	1.07	1.57	
	Coronary	1.00	1.28	1.03	1.70	
	Cerebrovascular	1.00	1.31	1.23	1.30	
Doll and Hill (26, 27).	Cardiovascular total.	1.00			0.99	1.26
	Coronary	1.00			.94	1.23
	Cerebrovascular	1.00			.95	1.13
Best (9)	Cardiovascular total.	1.00	1.14	.95	1.52	
	Coronary	1.00	.99	1.00	1.60	
	Cerebrovascular	1.00	1.28	.85	.83	
Hammond ¹ (38).	Cardiovascular total.	1.00			1.06	1.90
	Coronary	1.00	1.35	1.19	1.84	1.58
	Cerebrovascular	1.00			1.09	1.41
Kahn (60)	Cardiovascular total.	1.00	1.05	1.06	1.05	1.75
	Coronary	1.00	1.04	1.08	1.05	1.74
	Cerebrovascular	1.00	1.08	1.09	1.06	1.52

¹ Mortality ratios for ages 55 to 64 only are presented.

CHRONIC OBSTRUCTIVE PULMONARY DISEASE (COPD)

Chronic bronchitis and pulmonary emphysema account for most of the morbidity and mortality from chronic respiratory disease in the United States. Cigarette smokers have higher death rates from these

diseases and have more pulmonary symptoms and impaired pulmonary function than nonsmokers. Cigarette smokers also have more frequent and more severe respiratory infections than nonsmokers. The relationship between smoking pipes and cigars and these diseases is summarized in this chapter. The major prospective epidemiological studies are summarized in table 33.

In a retrospective study of 1,189 males and matched controls in Northern Ireland, Wicken (106) investigated smoking in various forms and mortality from bronchitis. The relative risk ratios compared to nonsmokers for mortality from chronic bronchitis were 1.98 for all smokers, 1.55 for pipe and cigar smokers, 2.25 for cigarette smokers, and 1.49 for mixed smokers.

From a review of these prospective and retrospective studies, it appears that pipe and cigar smokers experience mortality rates from bronchitis and emphysema that are higher than the rates of nonsmokers. Although these mortality rates approach those of cigarette smokers, in most instances they are intermediate between the rates of cigarette smokers and nonsmokers.

Pipe and cigar smokers have significantly more respiratory symptoms and illnesses than nonsmokers. Those studies which contain data on pipe and cigar smoking as related to respiratory symptoms are summarized in table 34.

Only a few studies have examined pulmonary function in pipe and cigar smokers. There appears to be little difference in pulmonary function values for pipe and cigar smokers as compared to nonsmokers (table 35).

Naeye (67) conducted an autopsy study on 322 Appalachian coal workers who were classified according to the type of coal mined and tobacco usage. Emphysema was slightly greater in cigarette smokers, as were anatomic evidences of chronic bronchitis and bronchiolitis. Those changes found in pipe and cigar smokers were intermediate between those of cigarette smoking miners and nonsmoking miners.

Changes in pulmonary histology in relation to smoking habits and age were examined by Auerbach, et al. (8). Fibrosis, alveolar rupture, thickening of the walls of small arteries, and thickening of the walls of the pulmonary arterioles were found to be highly related to the smoking habits of the 1,340 male subjects examined. The 91 pipe and cigar smokers over the age of 60 were found to have somewhat more alveolar rupture than the men of the same age distribution who never smoked regularly. However, pipe and cigar smokers as a group had far less rupture than cigarette smokers. The same relations as described above were found for fibrosis, thickening of the walls of the arterioles and small arteries, and padlike attachments to the alveolar septums.

Tobacco smoke has been shown experimentally to have a ciliostatic effect on the respiratory epithelium. The interval between puffs, the

amount of volatile and particulate compounds in the smoke, and the exposure volume have been shown to influence the toxic effect of tobacco smoke. Dalhamn and Rylander (21) exposed the upper trachea of anesthetized cats to the smoke of cigarettes and cigars, observing the effect on ciliary activity through an incident-light microscope. A chemical analysis of the gas and particulate phases revealed that the cigar smoke was more alkaline and, in general, contained higher concentrations of isoprene, acetone, acetonitrile, toluene, and total particulate matter compared to cigarette smoke. The average number of puffs required to arrest ciliary activity was found to be 73 for the cigarette smoke and 114 for the cigar smoke. The difference is statistically significant ($P < 0.01$). Of the two smokes, the smoke with the highest concentration of volatile compounds was found to be the least ciliostatic. This suggests that the degree of ciliotoxicity of a smoke is not necessarily correlated to the level of one or several of the substances found in the smoke.

Passey, et al. (70, 71, 72) studied the effect of smoke from flue-cured cigarette tobacco cigarettes and air-cured cigar tobacco cigarettes on the respiratory system of rats. In two separate but similar experiments, a total of 48 animals were exposed to English cigarette tobacco smoke, 48 were exposed to air-cured cigar tobacco smoke, and 12 were exposed to an air-cured Burley tobacco smoke. The rats in groups were exposed to the specific smoke in a smoke-filled cabinet. Animals exposed to the smoke from air-cured tobaccos remained healthy throughout the experiments, even at high levels of smoke exposure. The three deaths that occurred within this group were from nonrespiratory causes. In both experiments, the rats exposed to cigarette tobacco smoke began to die within 1 or 2 months, and in each experiment most of the animals died within a week or two of the first deaths. At autopsy the rats exposed to flue-cured tobacco smoke on gross examination were found to have greatly enlarged lungs, the trachea was often full of mucus, and there was evidence of pneumonia. On microscopic examination it was found that the trachea and bronchi contained purulent cellular exudates, evidence of metaplastic changes, an absence of cilia, and goblet cell hyperplasia. Typically, the cause of death was a lobar or bronchopneumonia. The author concluded that, "the smokes of flue-cured tobaccos are more dangerous to man and to animals than those of air-cured tobaccos."

Unfortunately, few details were published concerning the method used to expose the animals to the different types of smoke. The frequency and duration of exposure were not specified, and the extent of actual inhalation of smoke by the different groups of rats was either not determined or not reported. It is also difficult to determine the effect of smoke exposure on the frequency and severity of respiratory infections when animals are exposed to smoke in groups where common exposure occurs. The rat strain used was not identified, but it was noted that animals appeared to suffer from an endemic rat bronchiectasis. It is not known to what extent epidemics of respiratory infections occurred among these animals. Because of these difficulties, no firm conclusion can be drawn concerning the effect of smoking flue-cured or air-cured tobaccos on the incidence of respiratory infections in rats.

TABLE 33.—Mortality ratios for chronic obstructive pulmonary deaths in male cigar and pipe smokers. A summary of prospective epidemiological studies

Author, reference	Category	Type of smoking				
		Non-smoker	Cigar only	Pipe only	Total pipe and cigarette	Mixed
Hammond and Horn (40).	COPD total	1.00	1.29	1.77	2.85	
	Emphysema					
	Bronchitis					
Doll and Hill (26, 27).	COPD total					
	Emphysema					
	Bronchitis	1.00			4.00	6.67
Best (9)	COPD total					
	Emphysema	1.00	3.33	.75	5.85	
	Bronchitis	1.00	3.57	2.11	11.42	
Hammond (38)	COPD total					
	Emphysema	1.00			1.37	6.55
	Bronchitis					
Kahn (50)	COPD total	1.00	.79	2.36	.99	10.08
	Emphysema	1.00	1.24	2.13	1.31	14.17
	Bronchitis	1.00	1.17	1.28	1.17	4.49

¹ Only mortality ratios for ages 55 to 64 are presented.

TABLE 34.—Prevalence of respiratory symptoms and illness by type of smoking

Author, reference	Number and type of population	Illness	Percent prevalence			
			Non-smoker	Total pipe and cigar	Cigarette only	Mixed
Boake (10)...	Parents of 59 families.	Cough.....	32	32	48
		Sputum production.	24	15	20
		Chest illness.....	5	4	5
Edwards, et al. (35).	1,737 male outpatients.	Chronic bronchitis.	17	19	31	14
Ashford, et al. (4).	4,014 male workers in 3 Scottish collieries.	Bronchitis.....	10	35	21	37
		Pneumoconiosis....	11	34	14	2
Bower (11)...	95 male bank employees.	Cough.....	0	0	29
		Sputum production.	8	15	33
		Wheeze.....	8	31	33
		Chest illness.....	15	54	40
Wynder, et al. (114).	315 male patients in New York and 315 male patients in California.	Cough (New York).	14	33	56	51
		Cough (California).	22	30	67	66
		Influenza (New York).	11	21	24
		Influenza (California).	28	24	31
		Chest illness (New York).	9	10	12
		Chest illness (California).	7	6	11
Densen, et al. (24).	5,287 male postal and 7,213 male transit workers in New York City.	Persistent cough..	7	11	25
		Persistent sputum production.	11	16	26
		Dyspnea.....	16	19	26
		Wheeze.....	14	21	32
		Chest illness.....	13	16	18
Cederlof, et al. (18).	4,379 twin pairs, all U.S. veterans.	Cough.....	4	7	17
		Prolonged cough...	2	4	11
		Bronchitis.....	2	3	10
Rimington (76).	41,729 male volunteers.	Chronic bronchitis.	5	9	17

TABLE 34.—Prevalence of respiratory symptoms and illness by type of smoking—Continued

Author, reference	Number and type of population	Illness	Percent prevalence			
			Non-smoker	Total pipe and cigar	Cigarette only	Mixed
Comstock, et al. (19).	670 male telephone employees.	Persistent cough..	10	16	41	-----
		Persistent sputum.	13	20	42	-----
		Dyspnea.....	33	39	44	-----
		Chest illness in past 3 years.	14	18	20	-----
Lefcoe and Wonnacott (69).	310 male physicians in London, Ontario.	Chronic respiratory disease.	9	18	44	-----
		Chronic bronchitis.	1	12	34	-----
		Obstructive lung disease.	1	3	4	-----
		Asthma.....	7	3	6	-----
		Rhonchi.....	0	3	9	-----

¹ Figures for pipe only.

TABLE 35.—Pulmonary function values for cigar and pipe smokers as compared to nonsmokers

Author, reference	Number and type of population	Function	Type of smoking			
			Non-smoker	Total pipe and cigar	Cigarette only	Mixed
Ashford, et al. (4).	4,014 male workers in 3 Scottish collieries.	FEV _{1.0}	3.39	¹ 2.59	3.14	2.62
Goldsmith, et al. (57).	3,311 active or retired longshoremen.	Puffmeter.....	313.63	299.26	303.44	-----
		FEV _{1.0}	2.99	2.80	2.91	-----
		TVC.....	3.87	3.68	3.88	-----
Comstock, et al. (19).	670 male telephone employees.	FEV _{1.0}	3.12	3.26	2.82	-----
Lefcoe and Wonnacott (69).	310 male physicians in London, Ontario.	FEV _{1.0}	3.39	3.17	3.11	-----
		MMFR liters per second.	4.09	4.17	3.64	-----

¹ Figures for pipe only.

GASTROINTESTINAL DISORDERS

Cigarette smokers have an increased prevalence of peptic ulcer disease and a greater peptic ulcer mortality ratio than is found in nonsmokers. These relationships are stronger for gastric ulcer than for duodenal ulcer. Cigarette smoking appears to reduce the effectiveness of standard peptic ulcer treatment regimens and slows the rate of ulcer healing. Cigar and pipe smokers experience higher death rates from peptic ulcer disease than nonsmokers. These rates are higher for gastric ulcers than for duodenal ulcers but are somewhat less than those rates experienced by cigarette smokers. Table 31 presents the mortality ratios for ulcer disease in cigar and pipe smokers as reported in the prospective epidemiological studies.

Retrospective or cross-sectional studies by Trowell (95), Allibone and Flint (2), Doll, et al. (29), and Edwards, et al. (33) contain data on ulcer disease in pipe smokers as well as cigarette smokers. No association was found between pipe smoking and ulcer disease in these investigations.

TABLE 36.—*Mortality ratios for peptic ulcer disease in male cigar and pipe smokers. Summary of prospective studies*

Author, reference	Illness	Type of smoking					Mixed
		Non-smoker	Cigar only	Pipe only	Total pipe and cigar	Cigarette only	
Hammond and Horn (40).	Duodenal ulcer.....	1. 00	0. 25	1. 67	2. 16
Doll and Hill (26, 27).	Gastric ulcer.....	1. 00	4. 00	7. 00	5. 30
Hammond (38).	Gastric ulcer.....	1. 00	2. 04	2. 95
	Duodenal ulcer.....	1. 00 92	2. 86
Kahn (50).	Gastric ulcer.....	1. 00	2. 90	2. 84	2. 48	4. 13
	Duodenal ulcer.....	1. 00	1. 58	1. 59	1. 39	2. 98

Little Cigars

In the past year, several new brands of little cigars (weighing 3 pounds or less per 1,000) have appeared on the national market. These cigarette-sized products are manufactured, packaged, advertised, and sold in a manner similar to cigarettes. Little cigars enjoy several legal advantages over cigarettes: They have access to television advertising; they are taxed by the Federal Government and by most States, at much lower rates than cigarettes, resulting in a significant price advantage;

and they do not carry the warning label required on cigarette packages and in cigarette advertising. A market appears to be developing for these products, as there has recently been a sharp increase in the shipment of little cigars destined for domestic consumption (table 37).

It is important to estimate the potential public health impact of these little cigars. An adequate epidemiological evaluation of the effect of little cigar smoking on health could take 10 or 15 years and is probably an impractical consideration; however, a review of the epidemiological, autopsy, and experimental data concerning the health consequences of cigarette, pipe, and cigar smoking summarized in this and previous reports is helpful in considering the potential impact on health of smoking little cigars. An analysis of the chemical constituents suggests that both cigarettes and cigars contain similar compounds in similar concentrations. Two exceptions are reducing sugars, which are not found in quantity in the fermented tobaccos commonly used in cigars, and the pH of the inhaled smoke. The pH of the smoke from U.S. commercial cigarettes is below 6.2 from the first to the last puff, whereas the smoke from the last half of a cigar may reach as high as pH 8 to 9. With increasing pH, nicotine is increasingly present in the smoke as the free base. Skin painting experiments in mice indicate that tumor yields with cigar or pipe "tars" are nearly identical with those obtained with cigarettes "tars". In addition, the epidemiological data suggest that depth of inhalation probably accounts for the fact that cigarettes are so much more harmful than cigars and pipes in contributing to the development of lung cancer, coronary heart disease, and nonneoplastic respiratory disease. For such diseases as cancer of the oral cavity, larynx, and esophagus, where smoke from cigars, pipes, and cigarettes is available to the target organ at comparable levels, the mortality ratios are very similar for all three forms of tobacco use. Several factors, including "tar," nicotine, and the pH of the smoke, probably operate to influence inhalation patterns of smokers. The relative contribution of individual factors to the inhalability of a tobacco product has not been determined.

Smoking those brands of little cigars which can be inhaled by a significant portion of the population in a manner similar to the present use of cigarettes would probably result in an increased risk of developing those pulmonary and cardiovascular diseases which have been associated with cigarette smoking. On the other hand, smoking those little cigars which are used like most large cigars whereby the smoke is rarely inhaled would probably result in lower rates of those pulmonary and cardiovascular diseases than would be found among cigarette smokers.

Only a limited analysis is available comparing the chemical compounds found in little cigars, cigarettes, and large cigars. The FTC analyzed the tar and nicotine content of all the little cigars (34) and cigarettes (97) currently available on the market. Little cigars have

generally a higher "tar" and nicotine level than cigarettes, although considerable overlap results in some little cigar brands having "tar" and nicotine levels comparable to those of some brands of cigarettes (figs. 4 and 5). Hoffmann and Wynder (44) recently compared three brands of little cigars with an unfiltered cigarette, a filtered cigarette, and a large cigar. They measured a number of smoke constituents, including: "tar," nicotine, carbon monoxide, carbon dioxide, reducing sugars, hydrogen cyanide, acetaldehyde, acrolein, pyridines, phenols, benz(a)anthracene, and benzo(a)pyrene (table 32). Cigarette A was the Kentucky reference cigarette, cigarette B was a popular brand of filter cigarette. Cigar A was an 85 mm. little cigar, cigar B was an 85 mm. little cigar, cigar C was a 95 mm. small cigar, and cigar D was a 112 mm. popular brand of medium sized cigar.

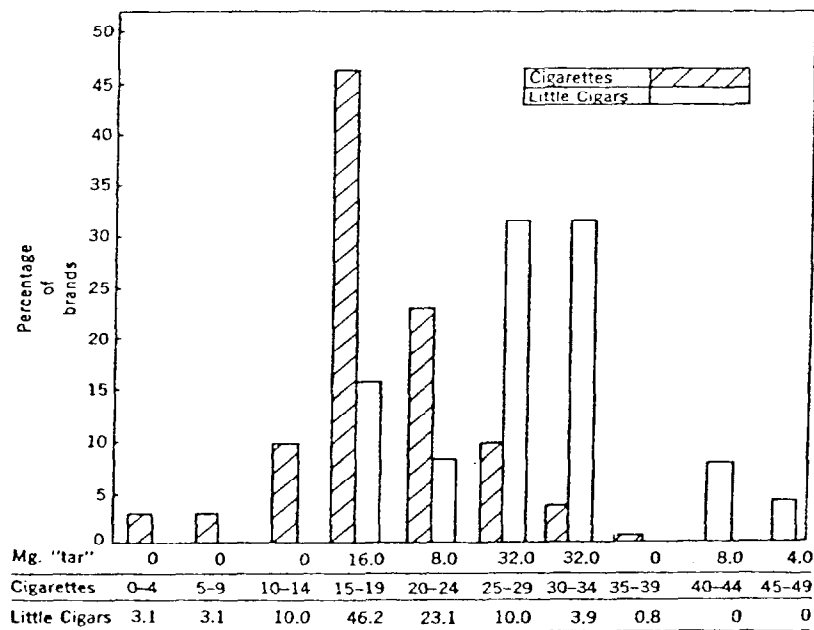
The smoke pH was analyzed puff by puff (table 39). Cigarette smoke was found to be acidic (pH less than 7) for the entire cigarette. The smoke from little cigars became alkaline only in the last puff or two, whereas about the last 40 percent of the puffs from the larger cigar were alkaline. Although the pH of the total condensate obtained from cigarettes is usually acidic and the total condensate obtained from cigars is usually alkaline, the above data indicate that smoke pH of tobacco products changes during the combustion process. Smoke from large cigars may be acidic during the first portion of the smoke and not become alkaline until the last half of the cigar is smoked.

Brunnemann and Hoffmann (15), using the same techniques described above, examined the effect of 60 leaf constituents on smoke pH. For several varieties of cigarette tobacco, they found a high correlation between the total alkaloid and nitrogen content and smoke pH. Stalk position also affected smoke pH. Tobacco leaves near the top of the plant, which contain high levels of tar and nicotine, yielded a smoke with a much higher pH than leaves lower on the plant. At present it is not known to what extent these factors influence the pH of the smoke of tobaccos commonly used in cigars or how these kinds of pH changes influence the inhalability of tobacco smoke.

The inhalation of smoke, however, appears to be the most important factor determining the impact a cigar will have on overall health. Those physical and chemical characteristics of a tobacco product which most influence inhalation of tobacco smoke have not been accurately determined. Nevertheless, it appears likely that the smoke of some brands of cigars may be compatible with inhalation by a significant portion of the smoking population, since: (a) Little cigars have tar and nicotine levels which, in some brands, are similar to the levels found in cigarettes, and (b) the pH of the smoke of some little cigar brands is acidic for the major portion of the little cigar and becomes alkaline only in the last puff or two.

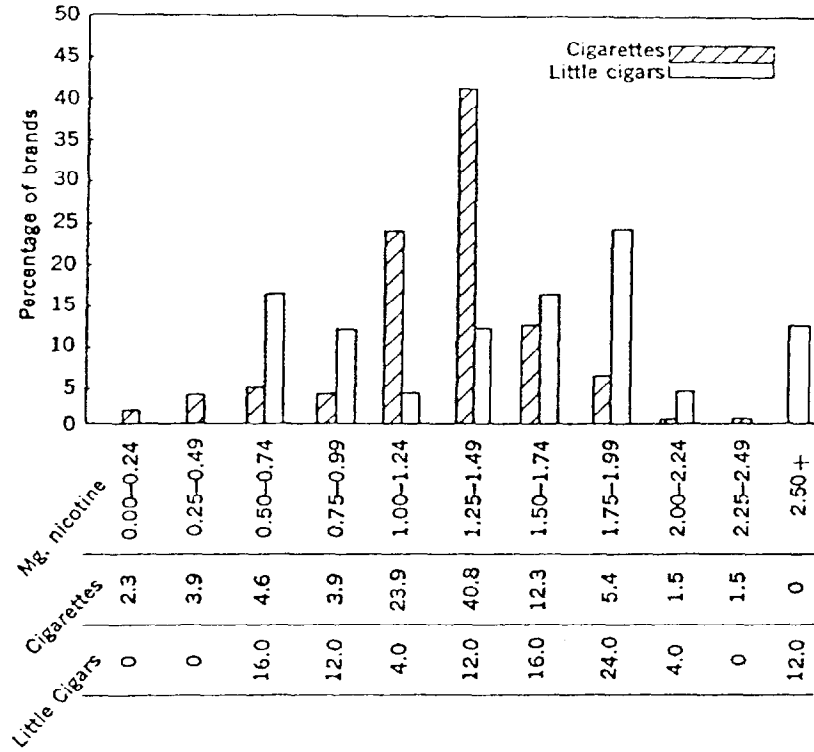
It is reasonable to conclude that smoking little cigars may result in health effects similar to those associated with smoking cigarettes if little cigars are smoked in amounts and with patterns of inhalation similar to those used by cigarette smokers, for the reasons cited above, and these additional reasons: (a) In those little cigars for which preliminary data are available, the concentrations of carbon monoxide, hydrogen cyanide, acetaldehyde, acrolein, pyridine, phenol, and polycyclic hydrocarbon levels are comparable to those found in cigarettes; (b) cigarette smokers who switch to cigars appear to be more likely to inhale cigar smoke than cigar smokers who have always smoked cigars (14); and (c) cigarette smokers who switch to little cigars may be inclined to use them as they did cigarettes because of the physical similarities between the little cigars and cigarettes, including their size and shape, the number in a package, the burning rate, and the time it takes to smoke them.

Figure 4.—Percent distribution of 130 brands of cigarettes and 25 brands of little cigars by "tar" content.



SOURCE: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (97) and Federal Trade Commission (34).

Figure 5.—Percent distribution of 130 brands of cigarettes and 25 brands of little cigars by nicotine content.



SOURCE: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (97) and Federal Trade Commission (34).

TABLE 37.—*Shipment of small and large cigars destined for domestic consumption (1970, 1971, 1972)*

Year	1970	1971	1972
Small cigars			
January.....	58,328,520	85,753,780	123,477,550
February.....	63,431,580	72,092,205	179,817,839
March.....	85,881,860	46,542,800	198,165,593
April.....	101,613,500	59,059,920	125,335,740
May.....	81,093,180	93,237,473	159,334,565
June.....	82,471,120	94,560,140	180,582,243
Subtotal.....	472,819,760	451,246,318	966,713,530
July.....	62,143,140	70,332,500	127,713,320
August.....	68,220,365	127,709,310	670,936,869
September.....	79,101,045	95,027,340	422,534,705
October.....	90,752,880	109,567,900	708,116,830
November.....	64,290,600	106,666,107	551,326,888
December.....	63,806,010	123,809,553	485,587,014
Subtotal.....	428,314,040	633,112,710	2,966,215,626
Yearly total.....	901,133,800	1,084,359,028	3,932,929,156
Large cigars			
January.....	581,742,001	573,039,120	534,565,488
February.....	595,249,522	586,810,844	562,414,577
March.....	629,977,375	665,998,099	654,827,796
April.....	652,800,200	655,850,213	554,242,048
May.....	748,040,796	670,064,933	719,489,529
June.....	644,539,031	692,436,529	578,501,068
Subtotal.....	3,852,348,925	3,844,199,738	3,604,040,506
July.....	647,397,547	619,838,386	520,873,339
August.....	673,082,971	662,970,148	682,331,630
September.....	721,561,449	680,476,418	594,843,957
October.....	797,601,253	679,420,968	693,150,668
November.....	696,526,464	742,948,802	650,746,540
December.....	596,244,159	516,879,415	437,429,996
Subtotal.....	4,132,413,843	3,902,534,137	3,579,356,130
Yearly total.....	8,084,762,768	7,746,733,875	7,183,396,636

Source: U.S. Department of the Treasury (101).

TABLE 38.—Selected compounds in mainstream smoke

Smoke compound	Cigarette A (nonfilter)	Cigarette B (filter)	Little cigar A	Little cigar B	Small cigar C
"Tar", milligram per cigarette...	36.1	20.3	17.4	31.8	40.6
Nicotine, milligram per cigarette..	2.7	1.4	.6	1.8	3.1
Carbon monoxide, volume per- cent.....	4.6	4.5	5.3	11.1	7.7
Carbon dioxide, volume percent..	9.4	9.6	8.5	13.2	12.7
Reducing sugars, percent of tobacco weight.....	9.3	7.9	1.5	2.9	2.7
Hydrogen cyanide, microgram per cigarette.....	536.0	361.0	381.0	697.0	1,029.0
Acetaldehyde, microgram per cigarette.....	770.0	774.0	630.0	1,238.0	1,150.0
Acrolein, microgram per cigar- ette.....	105.0	71.0	41.0	54.0	66.0
Total pyridines, micrograms per cigarette.....	82.8	27.3	58.0	85.3	80.3
Phenol, microgram per cigarette..	124.2	33.0	35.1	63.4	94.1
Benz(a)anthracene, nanogram per cigarette.....	74.0	31.0	34.0	25.0	39.0
Benzo(a)pyrene, nanogram per cigarette.....	47.0	20.0	18.0	22.0	30.0

Source: Hoffmann, D., Wynder, E. L. (44).

TABLE 39.—The pH of the mainstream smoke of selected tobacco products

[Numbers in parentheses indicate number of last puff.]

Average pH	Cigarette A (nonfilter)	Cigarette B (filter)	Little cigar A	Little cigar B	Small cigar C	Cigar D
3d puff.....	6.19	6.15	6.44	6.55	6.53	6.47
5th puff.....	6.14	6.12	6.34	6.46	6.49	-----
7th puff.....	6.09	6.01	7.03	6.51	6.56	-----
9th puff.....	6.02	5.83	-----	6.98	6.59	6.27
13th puff....	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	6.39
18th puff....	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	6.41
23d puff....	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	6.81
28th puff....	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	7.22
33d puff....	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	7.53
38th puff....	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	7.78
Last puff....	5.96(11)	5.76(10)	7.73 (8)	7.25(10)	7.11(11)	7.96(43)

Source: Hoffmann, D., Wynder, E. L. (44).

Conclusions

Pipe and cigar smokers in the United States as a group experience overall mortality rates that are slightly higher than those of nonsmokers, but these rates are substantially lower than those of cigarette smokers. This appears to be due to the fact that the total exposure to smoke that a pipe or cigar smoker receives from these products is relatively low. The typical cigar smoker smokes fewer than five cigars a day and the typical pipe smoker smokes less than 20 pipefuls a day. Most pipe and cigar smokers report that they do not inhale the smoke. Those who do inhale, inhale infrequently and only slightly. As a result, the harmful effects of cigar and pipe smoking appear to be largely limited to increased death rates from cancer at those sites which are exposed to the smoke of these products. Mortality rates from cancer of the oral cavity, intrinsic and extrinsic larynx, pharynx, and esophagus are approximately equal in users of cigars, pipes, and cigarettes. Inhalation is evidently not necessary to expose these sites to tobacco smoke. Although these are serious forms of cancer, they account for only about 5 percent of the cancer mortality among men.

Coronary heart disease, lung cancer, emphysema, chronic bronchitis, cancer of the pancreas, and cancer of the urinary bladder are diseases which are clearly associated with cigarette smoking, but for cigar and pipe smokers death rates from these diseases are not greatly elevated above the rates of nonsmokers. These diseases seem to depend on moderate to deep inhalation to bring the smoke into direct contact with the tissue at risk or to allow certain constituents, such as carbon monoxide, to be systematically absorbed through the lungs or to affect the temporal patterns of absorption of other constituents such as nicotine that can be absorbed either through the oral mucosa or through the lungs. Evidence from countries where smokers tend to consume more cigars and inhale them to a greater degree than in the United States indicates that rates of lung cancer become elevated to levels approaching those of cigarette smokers.

Available data on the chemical constituents of cigar, pipe, and cigarette smoke suggest that there are marked similarities in the composition of these products. Pipe and cigar smoke, however, tends to be more alkaline than cigarette smoke, and fermented tobaccos commonly used in pipes and cigars contain less reducing sugars than the rapidly dried varieties commonly used in cigarettes.

Experimental evidence suggests that little difference exists between the tumorigenic activities of tars obtained from cigar or cigarette

tobaccos. Malignant skin tumors appear somewhat more rapidly and in larger numbers in animals whose skin has been painted with cigar tars than in those animals painted with cigarette tars.

One must conclude that some risk exists from smoking cigars and pipes as they are currently used in the United States, but for most diseases this is small compared to the risk of smoking cigarettes as they are commonly used. Nevertheless, changes in patterns of usage that would bring about increased exposure either through increased individual use of cigars and pipes or increased inhalation of pipe and cigar smoke have the potential of producing risks not unlike those now incurred by cigarette smokers. Mechanical or chemical modifications of pipe tobacco and cigars that would result in a smoke more compatible with inhalation could have this effect.

Pipe and Cigar References

- (1) ABELIN, T., GSELL, O. T. Relative risk of pulmonary cancer in cigar and pipe smokers. *Cancer* 20(8) : 1288-1296, August 1967.
- (2) ALLIBONE, A., FLINT, F. J. Bronchitis, aspirin, smoking, and other factors in the aetiology of peptic ulcer. *Lancet* 2: 179-182, July 26, 1958.
- (3) ARMITAGE, A. K., TURNER, D. M. Absorption of nicotine in cigarette and cigar smoke through the oral mucosa. *Nature* 226(5252) : 1231-1232, June 27, 1970.
- (4) ASHFORD, J. R., BROWN, S., DUFFIELD, D. P., SMITH, C. S., FAY, J. W. J. The relation between smoking habits and physique, respiratory symptoms, ventilatory function, and radiological pneumoconiosis amongst coal workers at three Scottish collieries. *British Journal of Preventive and Social Medicine* 15: 106-117, 1961.
- (5) AUERBACH, O., HAMMOND, E. C., GARFINKEL, L. Histologic changes in the larynx in relation to smoking habits. *Cancer* 25(1) : 92-104, January 1970.
- (6) AUERBACH, O., STOUT, A. P., HAMMOND, E. C., GARFINKEL, L. Changes in bronchial epithelium in relation to sex, age, residence, smoking and pneumonia. *New England Journal of Medicine* 267(3) : 111-119, July 19, 1962.
- (7) AUERBACH, O., STOUT, A. P., HAMMOND, E. C., GARFINKEL, L. Histologic changes in esophagus in relation to smoking habits. *Archives of Environmental Health* 11(1) : 4-15, July 1965.
- (8) AUERBACH, O., STOUT, A. P., HAMMOND, E. C., GARFINKEL, L. Smoking habits and age in relation to pulmonary changes. Rupture of alveolar septums, fibrosis and thickening of walls of small arteries and arterioles. *New England Journal of Medicine* 269(20) : 1045-1054, Nov. 14, 1963.
- (9) BEST, E. W. R. A Canadian Study of Smoking and Health. Ottawa, Department of National Health and Welfare, 1966. 137 pp.
- (10) BOAKE, W. C. A study of illness in a group of Cleveland families. XVIII. Tobacco smoking and respiratory infections. *New England Journal of Medicine* 259(26) : 1245-1249, Dec. 25, 1958.
- (11) BOWER, G. Respiratory symptoms and ventilatory function in 172 adults employed in a bank. *American Review of Respiratory Diseases* 83: 684-689, 1961.