LETTERS

Studying the Hungarian anti-smoking movement

Carter describes how tobacco companies infiltrate into tobacco control movements in order to damage their efforts. Industry documents on Hungary suggest similar intentions. The transnational tobacco corporations (TTCs) jumped into the new market and privatised the factories of the formerly state-owned Hungarian tobacco monopoly in the very first years of the transition from communism (1991–92). Using their sophisticated lobbying practices, the TTCs succeeded in transforming the regulatory framework of tobacco and easing marketing and trade restrictions on their products. As Philip Morris put it, they sought to protect “the legitimate interests of the company … against discriminatory unfair legislation and practices”.

The Hungarian anti-smoking movement was relatively inexperienced in neutralising the political and economic power of a wealthy and influential industry. Nonethe-

less, documents show the TTCs intended to protect “the legitimate interests of the company … against discriminatory unfair legislation and practices”.

The Hungarian anti-smoking movement was relatively inexperienced in neutralising the political and economic power of a wealthy and influential industry. Nonetheless, documents show the TTCs intended to protect “the legitimate interests of the company … against discriminatory unfair legislation and practices”.

In February 1993, Gabor Garamszegi, CA Manager of Philip Morris Hungary, received a request from the government at assessing the “social context of smoking in Hungary”. The submission came from the formerly state-owned Tobacco Institute (Dohánykutató és Mérlegelési Intézet, Kustavi-fő utca, Rt.), which had no previous experience in assessing the social and health issues in tobacco use. The plan states that “tobacco and smokers have become ostracised among the health-managed society” and its authors considered smoking nothing more than “a scapegoat for the deteriorating health condition of the population”.

The authors acknowledged that the tobacco control plan already had succeeded in putting tobacco control higher on the political agenda and gained power from the increasing involvement of its members into the international tobacco control efforts. This “challenge requires appropriate reactions from the tobacco industry”, with the document proposing that a panel of smoking volunteers be formed who could be “regularly questioned to learn the public opinion on social issues”. Members of these panels should be sent to collect information with the aim of learning more about the programmes of anti-tobacco organisations: “As a possible method it could be envisaged that members of the panels … also take part in these programs and pass on their experiences to the leaders of the panels.”

Another document also mentions the “tight monitoring of activities and plans of government and anti-smoking groups” as an important strategy to “maintain the social acceptability of smoking”, since the “growing anti-smoking sentiments … would damage the ability of the company in all business area to represent and defend company interests”.

More recently, British American Tobacco has engaged in launching a “social dialogue” with tobacco control advocates and government based agencies. This is another effort of TTCs to portray themselves as if they are changed, contrite, and reformed.

It appears that quitting “dropped off the personal agenda” for some New Zealand smokers in September 2001. It seems likely that at this time of increased media publicity of global security threats, the quitting plans of smokers were eclipsed by other concerns. For example, the psychological impact of these events appears to have been significant—at least for Americans). This was despite the fact that New Zealand is an island nation that is very far removed from international trouble spots. It was also despite the fact that international terrorism has historically posed only a tiny risk of death to the general public relative to that from smoking (which kills half of all smokers) daily.

This reduction in calls is of concern considering that the Quitline (especially in the context of providing subsidised nicotine replacement therapy (NRT)) appears to be very successful in supporting smokers. Preliminary data from one survey suggests a point prevalence quit rate at three months of 44%.

Other explanations for this sudden and sustained reduction in calls to the Quitline from 12 September seem unlikely. Nevertheless, this decline in new callers did occur in the context of a longer term decline in calls to the Quitline which had been occurring since a peak in November 2000. This peak was a result of callers becoming eligible to obtain vouchers for heavily subsidised NRT through the Quitline service.

One implication of this relationship between global security issues and Quitline calls is that publicity for Quitline services may be less cost effective at times of perceived international crisis. However, the continuance of at least 120 calls per day to the Quitline, during September and October 2001, indicates the strength of the desire to quit in the population of smokers that the Quitline has tapped into.

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Reference


Events of 11 September 2001 significantly reduced calls to the New Zealand Quitline

New Zealand has a national (free) telephone Quitline service that is promoted through regular mass media campaigns. Data are routinely collected on the over 100 callers per day. We used this data source to investigate the impact of the 11 September 2001 terrorist attacks in the USA on calls to this service.

On Wednesday 12 September (11 September in New York was 12 September in New Zealand) there was a sudden decline in the number of new callers to the Quitline (only 137 callers relative to 237 on the previous day—a 42% reduction). Similarly, relative to the preceding Wednesday, the number of new callers was down by 41%.

The effect was felt for at least several weeks. There was an overall 35% drop in the total number of new callers per week, when comparing the five weeks before 11 September with the five weeks afterwards. Using a generalised linear model we found an interaction between a “September 11” effect and time (week) (p = 0.002). Details of the model and the graphed results are available on a website.

Big Mac index of cigarette affordability

As for any other commodity, demand for tobacco responds to price changes; when prices rise, demand for tobacco falls. Price increases encourage cessation; reduce average cigarette consumption among continuing smokers; and deter initiation. Tax increases are thus widely accepted as a key component of tobacco control policy.
In calling for increases in tobacco tax, tobacco control advocates often find it useful to compare cigarette prices internationally with those in their own country. To do this, they must somehow convert prices in other countries using a standard measure, most commonly the price in $US. Exchange rates, however, may be influenced by many factors including inflation differentials, monetary policy, balance of payments, and market expectations. Guindon et al proposes “purchasing power parity” (PPP) as a more appropriate measure for comparison. This theory argues that exchange rates are only at their “correct” levels when they are equal to the ratio of the two countries’ price level of a fixed basket of goods and services. Developing indices of PPP is a fairly time consuming exercise. The Economist’s Big Mac index, by contrast, provides a “quick and dirty” estimate of the extent to which various currencies may be under or over valued. McDonalds’ Big Mac hamburgers are produced to more or less the same recipe in 120 countries and can be regarded as identical for currency translation. The “Big Mac PPP” is defined as the exchange rate that would result in hamburgers costing the same in the USA as elsewhere. While Big Mac prices may not perfectly represent a total basket of goods and services—meat prices for instance might vary in different markets—the Big Mac PPP does appear to compare favourably with other more rigorous estimates of purchasing power.

To produce an update of Scollo’s Big Mac index of cigarette affordability we obtained Big Mac and cigarette prices in 30 countries. Big Mac prices were obtained from The Economist magazine and through phone calls to a further 11 McDonalds restaurants worldwide (Dublin, Brugge, Amsterdam, Rome, Barcelona, Lisbon, Vienna, Stockholm, Helsinki, Athens, and Luxembourg, 28–31 May 2002). We used cigarette price and tax levels compiled by the Canadian NSRA and ASH UK and exchange rates as at 31 May 2002. We then divided the (local currency) price of a Big Mac in each country with the (local currency) price of a single cigarette (fig 1). Cigarette prices in $US and tax levels in 30 countries have been tabulated (table 1). The number of cigarettes per Big Mac provides a slightly different picture of relative affordability of cigarettes than that provided by a simple conversion to $US. While by no means a perfect measure, the Big Mac index of cigarette affordability provides a reasonable estimation of relative affordability of cigarettes in the countries listed.

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References
In their study, the authors concluded that the inclusion of at least three studies of this nature is scientifically unjustifiable as it has been established for over a decade that merchant compliance programs alone do not reduce smoking rates. If these studies are done in isolation, they may appear to be significant, but when considered together, they do not provide evidence of a significant impact on smoking behavior.

The authors stress that the meta-analysis should not be interpreted as evidence of the effectiveness of youth access programs, but rather as a cautionary note that more rigorous research is needed to accurately evaluate the impact of these programs. They call for further studies to be conducted with a more comprehensive and rigorous methodology, including larger sample sizes, better control for confounding factors, and longer follow-up periods to fully understand the effects of youth access programs on smoking behavior.
Authors’ replies

Since DiFranza’s criticism of the editorial by Ling et al. concentrates mostly on criticism of the paper by Fichtenberg and Glantz, published in 1, we are writing in response to these criticisms separately. We recognise that this is unusual, since the standard procedure would have been for DiFranza to write to Pedri instead of writing here. The paper was published there. DiFranza, however, chose to write to Tobacco Control (based on a preprint we provided him as a courtesy), so we are responding here.

The premise of youth access programmes is that when compliance reaches a high enough level, it will reduce youth access to cigarettes and, therefore, youth smoking. The goal of our analysis was to see if, based on the available literature, there was a relation between merchant compliance and youth smoking. Whether or not the laws were being enforced at the time and, if so, in what manner, is irrelevant to this analysis. If youth access work because high merchant compliance leads to lower smoking, there should be an association between high merchant compliance rates and low youth smoking rates, regardless of what led to those rates of compliance. If an intervention designed to increase merchant compliance was successful, we should see high compliance rates and low smoking. If the intervention was not successful, because they did not include enforcement as DiFranza suggests, then we should see low compliance and low smoking. Both of these cases would contribute to our test of the hypothesis that increased merchant compliance was associated with reduced smoking. The data to test this are the association (fig 1A of Fichtenberg and Glantz). All youth access programmes measure merchant compliance through undercover sales attempts by underage youth, as was done in the Bagot study. If merchant compliance measured in this way is not an accurate reflection of youth access, then none of the studies of youth access work because high merchant compliance leads to lower smoking rates.

DiFranza says that we should not include studies from England because the legal age to purchase cigarettes is 16 years. We see no reason why youths aged 14–15 would not be affected by laws limiting purchase of cigarettes to those 16 and older. DiFranza objects to including data from Australia, because 46% of the students lived outside the enforcement area. As discussed above, whether or not active enforcement was included is irrelevant to our analysis of the association between merchant compliance with youth access laws and youth smoking prevalence. All that is important is that compliance and smoking was assessed in the same geographic area. In this case the authors point out that for the follow up survey, 46% of students in the intervention community—which was defined based on school location—did not live in the intervention area. They conclude that this would be a problem if these children bought cigarettes closer to home rather than to school. Since there was no residence information from the baseline survey it was not possible to limit the analysis to students living in the intervention area. Nevertheless, we chose to include the study in our analysis despite this limitation. It is important to note that the results of this study were consistent with the others.

There is no problem with combining studies of different design in a quantitative meta-analysis, as long as we are measuring the same outcome at the same end point. As was reported in the methods section of our paper, the quantitative meta-analysis only included controlled studies.

DiFranza objects to combining studies because the ages of the youths, and the methods used to test compliance, differed. While we agree that factors such as age and sex of the youths reported on merchant compliance, we did not expect this variability to mask the effect of youth access programmes, if they actually affected youth smoking rates. The small number (five) of controlled studies of youth access programmes which reported youth smoking made it impossible to stratify according to the age of the youths used in the compliance checks.

DiFranza objected to our evaluation of the change in youth smoking prevalence as a function of change in merchant compliance on the grounds that it was necessary to obtain the same level of compliance rates above 90% to have an effect on youth smoking prevalence. In addition to the fact that the data show no empirical evidence to support the hypothesis of such a threshold (fig 1A in Fichtenberg and Glantz), reproduced as fig 1 in Ling et al.), our basic premise is that if youth access programmes actually reduced youth smoking, higher compliance rates would be associated with lower youth smoking. We examined this hypothesis in two ways. First, we compared compliance and smoking rates in all communities for which both variables were measured at the same time (fig 1B). Whether or not active enforcement was used to increase merchant compliance was associated with youth smoking rates. All that is important is that compliance and smoking was assessed in the same geographic area. In this ecological analysis which does not take into account trends over time, we then examined the relation between changes in compliance and changes in smoking in case what mattered was whether there was a reduction in sales to youth rather than the absolute level of compliance at one time (fig 1B in Fichtenberg and Glantz). The data presented in fig 1A show that there is no threshold of effective- ness at 90% compliance. Smoking rates for communities with compliance above 90% vary between 19.4–32.5%, with a mean of 25.9%. In communities with compliance rates below 90%, smoking rates vary between 15.6–37.7% with a mean of 25.7%. There is no evidence of a threshold of effectiveness.

DiFranza suggested that we control for a wide variety of socioeconomic and demographic factors, because “When this type of analysis has been performed on a community and state level of analysis, reductions in youth smoking have been observed.” Given the small number of studies available, it was not possible to control for the effects of potential confounders such as other tobacco control policies, price of cigarettes, and socioeconomic status. Nonetheless, in our discussion we report the results of population based studies, including but not limited to, those referred to by DiFranza. Chaloupka and Pacula, in the study cited by DiFranza, do indeed find that statewide enactment and enforcement of youth access laws was associated with reduced youth smoking. However, in another analysis the same authors found that this effect was restricted to black teens. The study by Siegel et al. does indeed find that the prevalence of youth access laws was associated with decreased smoking initiation rates; however, they conclude that this decrease was not mediated by decreased access because youths reported no decrease in perceived access.

In the first part of our analysis (fig 1A), we compared compliance and smoking in all communities for which there was information. Since we were only trying to determine if there is a relation- ship between compliance and smoking, we did not make a distinction between control and intervention communities, or between baseline and follow up data. As DiFranza points out, this type of analysis does not take into account temporal trends or other potential confound- ers. In order to take these into account we performed a quantitative meta-analysis using only controlled studies (n = 5). This analysis yielded a pooled effect of a 1.5% decrease in youth prevalence (95% confidence interval 6% decrease to 3% increase).

Tutt cited a paper by his group1 that was not included in our meta-analysis because it was not listed in Medline or cited in any of the other papers we located. Adding his results to those we report, however, does not affect the conclusions of our analysis. Whether or not active enforcement was used to increase merchant compliance and 30 day teen smoking prevalence including these data is 0.042 (p = 0.799) compared with 0.116 (p = 0.486) reported in fig 1A of our paper. However, the correlation between merchant compliance and change in youth smoking is –0.163 (p = 0.504) compared with 0.294 (p = 0.237) without it. Thus, including the data from Tutt et al. actually strengthens the conclusions in our paper.

It is time for enthusiasts of youth access interventions to recognise that while these interventions may have seemed like a good idea, they do not actually achieve their goal of reducing youth smoking. All that happens is that youth obtain their cigarettes from other sources.2

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www.tobaccocontrol.com
Health messages on smoking and breastfeeding in maternity hospitals of Eastern Europe

Smoking, particularly antenatal smoking by the mother, has been consistently shown in many studies to be associated with increased risk for sudden infant death syndrome (SIDS). After the prone sleep position, smoking is the next most important modifiable risk factor for SIDS. Smoking not only undermines the health, development, and survival of the child, but of the mother and other family members, too. A survey of maternity hospitals in Eastern European countries was undertaken in 1999 to collect information on practices associated with increased risk of SIDS. We report here a comparison of smoking and breastfeeding practices of these hospitals.

The collaborative network of the World Health Organization in Eastern Europe (CCCE/NI) identified country coordinators in 22 Eastern European countries and data were received from 489 hospitals in 20 countries. The study instrument, in either English or Russian, sought information on whether hospitals gave written information to parents and/or had a written policy on various practices including smoking and breastfeeding. Data entry and statistical analysis was undertaken with Epi-info software (Version 6.04c, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Atlanta, Georgia, USA). There were more hospitals providing written information to parents about breastfeeding (72%) than about smoking effects (20%). Likewise, there were more hospitals with a written policy on breastfeeding (61%) than on smoking (12%). This difference was consistent across countries.

In contrast to the success of SIDS prevention campaigns advising babies that should not sleep prone, it has been much more difficult to motivate parents to stop smoking. UNICEF and WHO have launched the “The Baby Friendly Hospital Initiative” where hospitals are encouraged to adopt 10 evidenced based steps to promote breastfeeding. One of these steps is to have a written hospital breastfeeding policy. Our data may suggest that the success of this initiative, in that 72% of maternity units had written information on breastfeeding available for parents and 61% had a written policy. In contrast, our data suggest that only 20% of units had written information available on smoking and only 12% of hospitals had written policy (table 1). Given that maternal smoking undermines breastfeeding through increased risk of early weaning, reduced milk supply, reduced prolactin concentrations, and low fat concentrations in milk from smoking mothers, a tobacco strategy is likely to enhance breastfeeding outcomes as well as many other health benefits to babies. The “Tobacco Free Initiative” is one of WHO’s current priority programmes.

Table 1 Written information given to parents and written hospital policy on smoking and breastfeeding for 489 hospitals in 20 countries in Eastern Europe

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Smoking</th>
<th>Breastfeeding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Albania</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Armenia</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belarus</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BH Sarajevo</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BH Republic Srpska</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estonia</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kazakhstan</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latvia</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lithuania</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Macedonia, FyR</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moldova</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Romania</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>22</td>
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<tr>
<td>Russian Fed (Baren)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovak Republic</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>Slovenia</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkmenistan</td>
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</tr>
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<td>Ukraine</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uzbekistan</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

BH, Bosnia Herzegovina; FYR, Former Yugoslav Republic.
I applaud the efforts of Balbach and colleagues' to determine systematically what differences, if any, there are likely to be between searches conducted on tobacco industry documents websites and searches conducted at the Minnesota Depository of tobacco documents. However, I think one additional consideration is quite important for documents researchers: the fact that at the Minnesota Depository, it is possible to peruse visually through scroll-down menus the actual list of words or terms by which documents are indexed, using an interface that, to the best of my knowledge, is to date available only at the depository. This enables identification of interesting search terms that might not otherwise occur to a researcher. Both the 4A index terms and the 4B index terms are included. While the indexes themselves may be available for searching elsewhere, the interfaces available do not permit this type of direct visual examination—searching is dependent on having a search term in mind. Given the industry's well-known use of code names, acronyms, etc. for various projects, I believe that this remains an additional reason why visits to the depository can still be helpful for researchers.

Reference


Filter vent blocking

In their recent article Kozlowski and O’Connor criticise a 1997 review on cigarette filter ventilation blocking and claim it is in error because it (1) relies on saliva based estimates, (2) does not consider degree of ventilation, (3) does not address brand-to-brand variation, and (4) omits certain tobacco industry studies. We disagree and stand by our conclusions.

In their criticisms Kozlowski and O’Connor refer only to the 1997 review presented at a conference and not a peer reviewed article published in early 2001. In the latter review, Dr Baker and I considered measurement techniques, effects of vent blocking on machine smoke yields, effects of vent blocking on human smoke yields, and simultaneous determination of vent blocking and smoke yields. We concluded that vent blocking among smokers has only a relatively minor effect on human smoke yields compared to other smoking behaviour factors. The large effects observed with smoking machines are misleading because people do not smoke like machines.

Concerning the allegation that we erred because of our reliance on saliva based estimates, the fact is that we discussed the published and limited use of all techniques used to estimate the extent of vent blocking. We reported that four studies by Kozlowski and colleagues, using the “tar” stain technique, indicate that 50–99% of the 14 to 158 filters examined in each study showed some degree of vent blocking. Two other studies,

using the same technique but each based on over 3000 filters, indicate that 21–30% of the filter vents examined were blocked, and most were only partially blocked. These latter studies are in reasonable agreement with large studies conducted by industry scientists using the saliva stain technique, which indicate that up to 24% of filters examined were blocked by lips, and again, most only partially. Direct video observation indicates finger blocking is negligible, since most smokers release their fingers from the cigarette as they take a puff, but it would be virtually impossible to determine from the video whether smokers’ lips had covered the vents.

We devoted a whole section of our 2001 review to considering the degree of filter ventilation across a number of cigarette brands (cf. allegations 2 and 3). Reassuringly, some of the latest results from Kozlowski et al. and industry scientists are in reasonable agreement, despite the very different experimental techniques used.

Kozlowski and O’Connor state that “one notable omission” from the 1997 review is the 1982 study of a 1 mg “tar” cigarette smoked under various puffing conditions (allegation 4). In fact, data from that study are plotted in Fig. 8 of the 1997 review. We attribute the results to RP Ferris, the project leader, rather than T Hirji, the author of the memo, but it is the same study. They quote the smoke yields from the study but fail to notice that the data are the same ones in our review.

Likewise, Kozlowski and O’Connor say that we ignored pertinent Swiss and Canadian studies, but data summaries are included in our 1997 review. Our 2001 review quotes both studies and assesses their dependence on insertion depth on “tar” yield (that is, degree of ventilation). Kozlowski and O’Connor concentrate on the less detailed unpublished Swiss data but virtually ignore similar trends pointed out in the more comprehensive data published by Baker et al.

Kozlowski and O’Connor correctly state that we did not mention a 1977 study by Creighton. They quote from this report that “[no] subject was seen to cover the ventilation holes with clear adhesive tape”. They fail to mention, however, that the “subjects” in this study were R&D scientists evaluating two competitors’ filter ventilated cigarettes. Such ad libitum experimentation with the innovative (for 1977) filter design is exactly what one would expect of industry scientists. This experimentation is irrelevant to the behaviour of consumers, and there is nothing more in the report about vent blocking. We considered this report of no relevance to our reviews.

Kozlowski and O’Connor state that we have “ignored the extensive machine smoking studies by Rickert and colleagues on Canadian cigarettes”. We cite this study and discuss smoking machine data at length. Rickert et al. used only one ventilation blocking condition (50%) and the studies we chose to consider used multiple vent blocking conditions.

Finally, Kozlowski and O’Connor also refer to Philip Morris reports not covered in our reviews. In fact, we did know of their existence until recently. The topics of those memos are comprehensively covered by similar studies in our reviews, and adding nothing new.

Kozlowski and O’Connor lament the fact that they cannot find on the internet some industry studies used in our reviews. Not all tobacco companies are obliged to post their internal documents on the internet. Also, as they mention, the internet databases are constantly updated and some documents may not be posted at the time of a given search.

Kozlowski and O’Connor criticise our 1997 ‘review’ because we did not refer to certain unpublished industry studies. Yet when we sent our updated review for publication in Psychopharmacology the manuscript was rejected on the advice of the reviewer who said it was too dependent on unpublished industry studies (and whose comments read, coincidentally, very much like the Kozlowski and O’Connor article). It is therefore interesting that over 60% of Kozlowski’s and O’Connor’s references are unpublished industry documents. Many of these are short memos written for internal use, not complete research papers by those not involved can lead to misleading conclusions, such as the discrepancy in attribution noted with Ferris and Hirji. It is very difficult to place these documents in proper context, and, in some cases, to try to do so nearly 50 years after they were written.

Authors’ reply

Lewis takes us to task for criticising an article published in 1997 by noting that we ignore new points they made in a paper published.
unknown to us, in an industry sponsored journal. We learned of this publication a year after our paper was accepted for publication.

Lewis implies that we had reviewed an earlier submission of their paper to Psychopharmacology. We did review this draft, but were not privy to its fate. Journal rules and professional ethics require that the information in their submitted paper be treated as confidential, and we did not mention or make use of any of this confidential data in our articles. That Lewis and Baker publish a revised paper that was informed by our thinking and suggestions on the topic should hardly be an occasion for criticising our discussion of a work that had not been informed by our advice.

Our paper appeared in a special journal issue dealing with available industry documents. Ideally, review articles should derive from published, peer reviewed research. Failing that, public availability (as on the internet) of the primary reports should be expected. But when industry scientists (here from RJ Reynolds and British American Tobacco) characterise internal reports—that may not be or ever become available on the web—the opportunity for independent evaluation of findings may be lacking. Presumably, industry scientists have the ability to bring primary source internal research to peer reviewed publication. For non-industry scientists, in contrast, industry documents on the web are likely all that is available. In other words, we are limited to discuss those findings that are open to public view, while they are in a position to characterise studies to which independent scientists have no access. It would be best if all studies used to support or refute findings were available to all interested parties, preferably through peer reviewed publication.

Figure 8 in their 1997 paper, which they attribute to Ferris, is related to data that we attribute to Hirji. Compared to the Hirji version, their fig 8 contains both more data (another blocking condition) and at the same time significantly less data (for example, no mention of data from a 75 ml puff in 1 second every 25 seconds, that produces from a nominal 1 mg total particulate matter (TPM) cigarette a TPM yield of 15 mg with no blocking and 23 mg TPM with a 50% block.) The Hirji report mentions by name the individuals who did the work, and Ferris is not mentioned.

Lewis writes that Creighton used industry scientists (as was noted in the version we have) who could be expected to conduct “ad lib experimentation” with the then innovative filter design. One of these scientists/ad hoc experimenters dropped out of the study after a day because of “an unpleasant taste in the mouth, persistent irritation and lack of satisfaction” (page 5). Why Creighton did not report that he received testimony from his colleagues that abuses were happening, rather than having to “observe” or write that “one subject was seen to cover up the ventilation holes” with tape, is interesting.

Lewis engages us particularly on the issue of vent blocking—a theme we think is less important overall than taste and puff volume, and probably only important for less common heavily ventilated cigarettes. (We never say the saliva based measures of blocking are worthless, just much less sensitive.) In their recent paper, they go into some puff volume data, but for them, interestingly, the blocked vent results (smaller puffs, fewer puffs) are caused by under-puffing on blocked cigarettes rather than over-puffing on unblocked cigarettes. Their rhetoric encourages us to see a self protecting smoker, rather a compensating smoker. Nice try!

The data in their more recent paper also support the position that filter ventilation is a defective and dangerous design that contributes to the misleading nature of standardised testing of cigarettes.

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