

Metadata of the article that will be visualized in Online

1	Article Title	The state of indoor air quality in Pakistan—a review	
2	Article Sub- Title		
3	Article Copyright - Year	Springer-Verlag 2010 (This will be the copyright line in the final PDF)	
4	Journal Name	Environmental Science and Pollution Research	
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29		Received	22 July 2009
30	Schedule	Revised	
31		Accepted	30 December 2009
32	Abstract	Background and purpose: In Pakistan, almost 70% of the population lives in rural areas. Ninety-four percent of households in rural areas and 58% in urban areas depend on biomass fuels (wood, dung, and agricultural waste). These solid fuels have poor combustion efficiency. Due to incomplete combustion of the biomass fuels, the resulting smoke contains a range of health-deteriorating	

substances that, at varying concentrations, can pose a serious threat to human health. Indoor air pollution accounts for 28,000 deaths a year and 40 million cases of acute respiratory illness. It places a significant economic burden on Pakistan with an annual cost of 1% of GDP. Despite the mounting evidence of an association between indoor air pollution and ill health, policy makers have paid little attention to it. This review analyzes the existing information on levels of indoor air pollution in Pakistan and suggests suitable intervention methods.

Methods: This review is focused on studies of indoor air pollution, due to biomass fuels, in Pakistan published in both scientific journals and by the Government and international organizations. In addition, the importance of environmental tobacco smoke as an indoor pollutant is highlighted.

Results: Unlike many other developing countries, there are no long-term studies on the levels of indoor air pollution. The limited studies that have been undertaken indicate that indoor air pollution should be a public health concern. High levels of particulate matter and carbon monoxide found have been reported, and generally, women and children are subject to the maximum exposure. There have been a few interventions, with improved stoves, in some areas since 1990. However, the effectiveness of these interventions has not been fully evaluated.

Conclusion: Indoor air pollution has a significant impact on the health of the population in Pakistan. The use of biomass fuel as an energy source is the biggest contributor to poor indoor air quality followed by smoking. In order to arrest the increasing levels of indoor pollution, there is a dire need to recognize it as a major health hazard and formulate a national policy to combat it. An integrated effort, with involvement of all stakeholders, could yield promising results. A countrywide public awareness campaign, on the association of indoor air pollution with ill health, followed by practical intervention would be an appropriate approach. Due to the current socioeconomic conditions in the country, development and adoption of improved cooking stoves for the population at large would be the most suitable choice. However, the potential of biogas as a fuel should be explored further, and modern fuels (natural gas and LPG) need to be accessible and economical. Smoking in closed public spaces should be banned, and knowledge of the effect of smoking on indoor air quality needs to be quantified.

33	Keywords separated by ' - '	Indoor air pollution - Biomass fuel - ETS - Pakistan
34	Foot note information	Responsible editor: Euripides Stephanou

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REVIEW ARTICLE

4 **The state of indoor air quality in Pakistan—a review**

5 **Ian Colbeck · Zaheer Ahmad Nasir · Zulfiqar Ali**

6 Received: 22 July 2009 / Accepted: 30 December 2009
7 © Springer-Verlag 2010

8

9 **Abstract**

10 *Background and purpose* In Pakistan, almost 70% of the
11 population lives in rural areas. Ninety-four percent of house-
12 holds in rural areas and 58% in urban areas depend on
13 biomass fuels (wood, dung, and agricultural waste). These
14 solid fuels have poor combustion efficiency. Due to incom-
15 plete combustion of the biomass fuels, the resulting smoke
16 contains a range of health-deteriorating substances that, at
17 varying concentrations, can pose a serious threat to human
18 health. Indoor air pollution accounts for 28,000 deaths a year
19 and 40 million cases of acute respiratory illness. It places a
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22 association between indoor air pollution and ill health, policy
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indoor air pollution should be a public health concern. High 34
levels of particulate matter and carbon monoxide ~~found~~ 35
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Keywords Indoor air pollution · Biomass fuel · ETS · 60
Pakistan 61

1 Introduction 62

Population exposure to various air pollutants is likely to be 63
higher in the indoor micro-environment than outdoors due 64

65 to the amount of time people spend indoors. Consequently, 105
 66 indoor air quality has drawn considerable attention in recent 106
 67 years. While indoors, people can be exposed to pollution 107
 68 from indoor sources as well as from outdoor sources that 108
 69 penetrate into the indoor environment. Worldwide, the major 109
 70 sources of indoor air pollution are combustion of solid fuels, 110
 71 tobacco smoking, outdoor air pollutants, emissions from 111
 72 construction materials and furnishings, and improper main- 112
 73 tenance of ventilation and air conditioning systems (WHO 113
 74 2006). Globally, there are noticeable differences in types 114
 75 and strengths of these sources, and they are closely linked to 115
 76 socioeconomic developments. In the developed world, the 116
 77 types, sources, concentrations of various indoor air pollu- 117
 78 tants, and their exposure profiles are significantly different 118
 79 from the developing world. 119

80 In developing countries, population explosion along with 120
 81 widespread industrialization coupled with urbanization has 121
 82 resulted in dense urban centers with poor air quality. In 122
 83 addition to the poor ambient air quality, people in developing 123
 84 countries can be exposed to high concentrations of indoor air 124
 85 pollution due to the use of biomass fuels as an energy 125
 86 resource. Worldwide, more than three billion people, largely 126
 87 in developing countries, rely on biomass fuels (wood, dung, 127
 88 and crop residues) for domestic energy needs (WHO 2007a). 128
 89 These solid fuels have traditionally been burnt with poor 129
 90 combustion efficiency under poorly ventilated conditions in 130
 91 devices such as earthen or metal stoves. As a result, levels of 131
 92 indoor air pollution are higher than those outdoors. Due to 132
 93 incomplete combustion, the resulting smoke contains a range 133
 94 of health-deteriorating substances that, at varying concen- 134
 95 trations, can pose a serious threat to human health. The 135
 96 pollutants emitted include carbon monoxide, nitrogen dioxide, 136
 97 particulate matter, transition metals, fluorine, polycyclic 137
 98 aromatic hydrocarbons, volatile organic compounds such as 138
 99 benzene and formaldehyde, and free radicals (Fullerton et al. 139
 100 2009; Kang et al. 2009; Zhang and Smith 2007; Naeher et al. 140
 101 2007; Sinha et al. 2006; Mudway et al. 2005; HEI 2004; Tsai 141
 102 et al. 2003; Zhang et al. 1999; Cooper 1980). Wood smoke 142
 103 has also been reported to be probably carcinogenic (Straif et 143
 104 al. 2006; Hosgood et al. 2007). 144

105 Women and their small children are at increased risk due 106
 107 to the amount of time spent close to the stove in the 108
 109 kitchen. Indoor air pollution is responsible for more than 110
 111 1.6 million annual deaths and 2.7% of global burden of 112
 113 diseases (WHO 2006). Indoor air pollution, from solid fuel 114
 115 use, is the tenth largest threat to public health (WHO 116
 117 2007). Hence, exposure to indoor air pollution from the 118
 119 combustion of biofuels is a significant public health hazard 120
 121 predominately affecting the poor in both rural and urban 122
 123 communities in developing countries. There is strong 124
 125 evidence that smoke from biofuels can cause acute lower 126
 127 respiratory infection in childhood (Fullerton et al. 2008; 128
 129 WHO 2006; Smith et al. 2000, 2004; Ezzati and Kammen 130
 131 2001). Table 1 represents the health effects and strength of 132
 133 evidence due to the use of biomass fuels in developing 134
 135 countries. 136

137 Furthermore, a recent report on the national burden of 138
 139 diseases from indoor air pollution by the World Health 139
 140 Organization (2007) confirms the linkage between indoor 141
 142 air pollution due to solid fuels and different diseases, 143
 144 including acute and chronic respiratory diseases, tuberculosis, 144
 145 asthma, and cardiovascular disease and prenatal health 145
 146 outcomes. 146

147 Many papers have been published on indoor air quality 148
 149 in developing countries: Malawi (Fullerton et al. 2009), 149
 150 Mexico (Zuk et al. 2007), Philippines (Saksena et al. 2007), 151
 152 China (Fischer and Koshland 2007; Mestl et al. 2007), 152
 153 Zimbabwe (Rumchev et al. 2007), Bangladesh (Dasgupta et 153
 154 al. 2006), India (Balakrishnan et al. 2002, 2004), Costa 154
 155 Rica (Park and Lee 2003), Bolivia (Albalak et al. 1999), 155
 156 and Kenya (Boleij et al. 1989). A number of studies on 156
 157 reducing indoor air pollution have been published (WHO 157
 158 2008; Smith et al. 2006; Practical Action 2004). The 158
 159 interventions fall broadly into three categories: producing 159
 160 less smoke; removing smoke from the indoor environment; 160
 161 and by reducing exposure to smoke. 161

162 It is evident that there is very little published literature 162
 163 available regarding indoor air pollution in Pakistan. As 163
 164 Pakistan is a predominantly rural society where biomass 164
 165 fuel is the major source for cooking and heating, there is an 165

t1.1 **Table 1** Health effects of use of solid household fuels in developing countries

t1.2	Disease	Population affected	Relative risk (95% confidence interval)	Strength of evidence
t1.3	Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease	Females >15 years	3.2 (2.3, 4.8)	Strong
t1.4		Males >15 years	1.8 (1.0, 3.2)	Intermediate
t1.5	Acute lower respiratory infections	Children <5 years	2.3 (1.9, 2.7)	Strong
t1.6	Lung cancer (coal only)	Women >15 years	1.9 (1.1, 3.5)	Strong
t1.7		Men >15 years	1.5 (1.0, 2.5)	Intermediate
t1.8	Blindness (cataracts)	Females >15 years	1.3–1.6	Intermediate
t1.9	Tuberculosis	Females >15 years	1.5–3.0	Intermediate

Source (Smith et al. 2004)

145 urgent need to review and synthesize the information on the
 146 current levels of indoor air pollutants and interventions to
 147 improve indoor air quality within the country.

148 This review is predominately focused on the studies of
 149 indoor air pollution due to biomass fuels in Pakistan
 150 published in the scientific literature. The various efforts to
 151 improve indoor air quality are presented and recommenda-
 152 tions put forward for future interventions to combat indoor
 153 air pollution.

154 **2 Indoor air pollution and Pakistan**

155 Pakistan is a mainly rural society with almost 70% of the
 156 population living in rural areas, and a vast proportion of these
 157 rely on biomass fuel for their energy needs. The use of
 158 biomass fuel in traditional three stone stoves (made of clay
 159 and husk) produces enormous quantities of smoke. The
 160 average household size is estimated at 6.8 persons. As 38% of
 161 households consist of a single room with a kitchen; these
 162 households have a greater concentration of indoor air
 163 pollution which leads to high exposure. The Pakistan
 164 Household Energy Strategy Study revealed that biomass
 165 fuels account for 86% of total household energy consumption
 166 in Pakistan (Archar 1993) (Fig. 1). In rural areas, 94% of
 167 households depend on biomass fuel, and in urban areas, the
 168 figure is 58%. The fuel is used for cooking (82.1%), water
 169 heating (9.8%), and domestic heating (7.3%) (Archar 1993).

170 The health indicators of Pakistan are disappointing. Over
 171 the last 60 years, although there have been some improve-
 172 ments in the health status of the population, key health
 173 indicators still lag behind other regional countries. Maternal
 174 mortality rate has declined from 800 per 100,000 live births in
 175 1978 to the presently reported figure of 350, and the infant
 176 mortality rate has declined from the 142 per 1,000 live births
 177 in 1970 to 74.6 in 2006. Diarrheal diseases and acute
 178 respiratory infections (ARI) dominate the child mortality rate

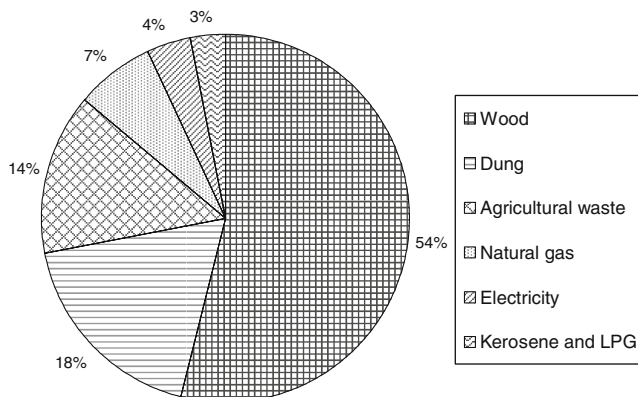


Fig. 1 Household energy use by fuel type in Pakistan (%). Data from Archar (1993)

spectrum in Pakistan. Mortality due to infectious diseases
 such as diarrhea and vaccine-preventable diseases has
 reduced over the last decades. However, improvements have
 not occurred in other areas such as ARI (Nishtar 2007). A
 2004 survey has shown that 34% and 28% children less than
 5 years old had developed symptoms of ARI and diarrhea,
 respectively, in the preceding 2 weeks of the study (Multiple
 Indicators Cluster Surveys of Pakistan 2001–2004).

According to Pakistan Strategic Country Environmental
 Assessment by the World Bank (World Bank 2006), indoor
 air pollution accounts for 28,000 deaths per year and
 40 million cases of acute respiratory illness. Indoor air
 pollution is a significant economic burden in Pakistan and
 annually costs 1% of GDP. Table 2 presents the estimated
 annual health impacts in terms of annual cases and disability
 adjusted life years (DALYs). Up to 1,376,000 DALYs are
 lost each year due to indoor air pollution of which 82% is
 from mortality and 18% from morbidity.

The World Health Organization (2007) has assessed the
 burden of disease from indoor air pollution at the national
 level (Table 3). In 11 countries (Afghanistan, Angola,
 Bangladesh, Burkina Faso, China, the Democratic Republic
 of the Congo, Ethiopia, India, Nigeria, Pakistan, and the
 United Republic of Tanzania), indoor air pollution is to
 blame for a total of 1.2 million deaths a year. ~~Globally,
 reliance on solid fuels is one of the 10 most important
 threats to public health.~~ For Pakistan, the number of deaths
 due to pneumonia and other acute lower respiratory
 infections among children under 5 years of age was
 estimated to be 51,760, the number of deaths due to
 chronic obstructive pulmonary disease 18,980, the total
 number of deaths attributable to solid fuel use 70,700 and
 the percentage of national burden of disease attributable to
 solid fuel use 4.6%. Their estimate for DALYs attributable
 to solid fuel use was 2,057,400; nearly 50% higher than
 that of the World Bank.

3 Studies on indoor air pollution

Compared to other developing countries, few measure-
 ments have been published on indoor air quality in Pakistan
 with the first measurements only reported in 2001 (Jabeen
 et al. 2001). Dust samples from nine selected houses in
 Gugranwala were analyzed for heavy metals (Pb, Cd, Zn,
 Cu). The majority of the dust indoors originated outdoors
 with the Pb indoor/outdoor ratio varying from 0.35–0.97. In
 well-ventilated houses, this ratio was close to 1 while in
 houses with poor ventilation, it was much less. Similar
 trends were observed for all the metals.

Siddiqui et al. (2005a) reported that mothers using wood
 as fuel give birth to children with reduced weight compared
 to those who used natural gas. The mean daily levels of CO

Table 2 Estimated annual health impacts due to indoor air pollution in terms of annual cases and disability adjusted life years

	Estimated annual cases		Estimated annual DALYs		% of total DALYs
	Low	High	Low	High	
Acute respiratory illness					
Children (under 5)—increased mortality	21,933	31,060	745,718	1,056,029	77
Children (under 5)—increased morbidity	29,508,800	41,788,200	48,690	68,951	5
Females (age 30 and older)—increased morbidity	10,754,600	15,229,800	75,282	106,609	8
Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease					
Adult females—increased mortality	7,408	11,433	44,450	68,600	5
Adult females—increased morbidity	21,850	33,721	49,163	75,873	5

Data from (World Bank 2006)

for wood use and natural gas were 24 and 5 ppm while the levels of PM_{2.5} were 12 and 0.25 mg/m³, respectively. However, during cooking periods in the kitchens using biofuel, a sharp rise in concentration of CO (150 ppm) and PM_{2.5} (300 mg/m³) was seen. Siddiqui et al. (2005b) also compared self-reported eye and respiratory symptoms among the women using wood and natural gas. The results confirmed that wood users had a higher frequency of eye congestion, nasal congestion, throat-related symptoms, and cough than natural gas users. Furthermore, an interactive effect of age with wood use was reported as acute eye symptoms were found more common among those younger than 28 years old. Overall, this study reported a significant association of wood use with eye and respiratory symptoms.

A study by Akhtar et al. (2007) revealed a strong association between biomass smoke and chronic bronchitis in women in the rural area of Peshawar. This study was carried out with 1,426 female test patients using various types of biomass fuels and 1,131 female control subjects using liquefied petroleum gas as an energy source. These findings clearly reflect the risks of biomass fuel usage. Nonetheless, no measurements of air quality were made during the study, and only interviews were conducted with the participants.

Colbeck et al. (2008) reported the results of an investigation on indoor air quality at rural and urban areas of Pakistan. Measurements were made of particulate mass (PM₁₀, PM_{2.5}, and PM₁), number concentration and bioaerosols in different

Table 3 Burden of disease due to indoor and outdoor air pollution for various countries

	Population (000)	Indoor Air Pollution		Outdoor Air Pollution	
		Population using solid fuel (%)	Deaths per year	Annual PM ₁₀ (µg/m ³)	Deaths per year
Bangladesh	143,809	89	46,000	157	8,200
Cambodia	13,810	>95	1,600	51	200
China	1,302,307	80	380,700	80	275,600
India	1,049,550	82	407,100	84	120,600
Indonesia	217,131	72	15,300	114	28,800
Malaysia	23,965	<5	<100	28	500
Myanmar	48,852	>95	14,700	75	3,900
Nepal	24,609	81	7,500	161	700
Pakistan	149,911	81	70,700	165	28,700
Philippines	78,580	45	6,900	34	3,900
Republic of Korea	47,430	<5	—	43	6,800
Singapore	4,183	<5	—	48	1,000
Sri Lanka	18,910	67	3,100	93	1,000
Thailand	62,193	72	4,600	77	2,800
Vietnam	80,278	70	10,600	66	6,300
Asia			971,200		517,700
World	6,213,869	52	1,497,000	61	865,000

Source (WHO 2007a, b)

257 micro-environments. PM_{10} concentrations up to $8,555 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$
 258 were observed inside kitchens where biofuels were burnt.
 259 Cleaning and smoking was also identified as a major source
 260 of indoor particulate pollution, and concentrations more than
 261 $2,000 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ were recorded in the living room during these
 262 activities. An extension of above work was carried out, and
 263 number concentrations were reported from rural and urban
 264 households (Colbeck and Nasir 2008a). The values of the
 265 number concentration in living rooms at Lahore were in the
 266 range $14,000\text{--}181,000 \text{ cm}^{-3}$. While at rural sites, a maximum
 267 concentration of $156,000 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ was obtained. On the other
 268 hand, the highest number of concentrations was recorded
 269 from the urban kitchens using natural gas ($246,000 \text{ cm}^{-3}$) as
 270 compared to rural kitchen using biomass fuel ($220,000 \text{ cm}^{-3}$)
 271 and natural gas ($226,000 \text{ cm}^{-3}$).

272 In another study on bioaerosols, Colbeck and Nasir
 273 (2008b) examined 42 houses in urban and rural areas of
 274 Pakistan. The air samples were taken with an Anderson six-
 275 stage viable particle sampler, loaded with Malt Extract
 276 Agar, MacConkey Agar, and Trypticase Soy Agar. In
 277 Lahore, the highest total bacteria ($13,900 \text{ CFU}/\text{m}^3$) and
 278 fungal ($5,300 \text{ CFU}/\text{m}^3$) concentrations were found among
 279 houses in slums. However, the outdoor levels were
 280 generally higher than those indoors. The highest outdoor
 281 concentration of total bacteria and fungi was $20,700$ and
 282 $3,300 \text{ CFU}/\text{m}^3$, respectively. On the other hand, in rural
 283 sites, the maximum concentration of total bacteria and fungi
 284 was $29,200$ and $32,800 \text{ CFU}/\text{m}^3$. The indoor levels of
 285 bioaerosols were higher than those outdoors in all of the
 286 samples, probably due to indoor cattle sheds and excessive
 287 use of wood as construction materials. Similarly, the upper
 288 concentration of Gram-negative bacteria was higher in rural
 289 houses than in urban areas. Most of the total bacterial
 290 aerosols were present in the size range 2.1 to $7 \mu\text{m}$ while the
 291 highest concentration of Gram-negative bacteria occurred
 292 between 0.65 and $1.1 \mu\text{m}$. The maximum percentage of
 293 fungal aerosol was present between 1.1 and $3.3 \mu\text{m}$.

294 Khudadad and Shah (2008) conducted a baseline study
 295 in 63 households in the Ishkoman Valley, northern Pakistan.
 296 The mean indoor concentration of $PM_{2.5}$ was $7,380 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$
 297 with a maximum of up to $206,000 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ during cooking
 298 hours. Outdoors, the mean concentration of $PM_{2.5}$ was
 299 $80 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ with a maximum of $258 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$.

300 The levels of carbon monoxide and $PM_{2.5}$ in kitchens
 301 using wood or natural gas as a cooking fuel were reported
 302 by Siddiqui et al. (2009). The 8-h average CO concentra-
 303 tion for wood users was $29.4 \pm 16.2 \text{ ppm}$ while natural gas
 304 produced only $7.5 \pm 4.4 \text{ ppm}$. The mean $PM_{2.5}$ concentra-
 305 tion for wood was $2.74 \pm 2.1 \text{ mg}/\text{m}^3$ compared to $0.38 \pm$
 306 $0.39 \text{ mg}/\text{m}^3$ for natural gas kitchens.

307 Recently, Colbeck et al. (2009) reported the results of a
 308 study carried out on indoor/outdoor particulate pollution in
 309 rural and urban residential environments. In the kitchens of

rural areas using biomass fuel, the 24-h average indoor
 concentration of PM_{10} , $PM_{2.5}$, and PM_1 was $1,581 \pm 2,003$,
 $1,169 \pm 1,489$, and $913 \pm 992 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, respectively. In rural
 living rooms, for the same time period and particle size, the
 concentrations were 953 ± 641 , 603 ± 421 , and $548 \pm 400 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$,
 respectively. On the other hand, in the urban living room, the
 24-h average indoor mass concentrations for the same size
 fractions were 533 ± 641 , 402 ± 641 , and $362 \pm 641 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$,
 respectively. Cooking, cleaning, and smoking were identified
 as the principal contributors to high indoor levels of
 particulate matter.

The levels of particulate matter and CO reported in the
 above studies are many times higher than those in the
 developed world. Indoor levels of $PM_{2.5}$, measured within
 the framework of the European EXPOLIS study, in Athens
 (Greece), Basel (Switzerland), Helsinki (Finland), and
 Prague (Czech Republic) showed that mean indoor con-
 centrations in these European cities were 35.6 ± 29.4 , $21 \pm$
 16.7 , 9.5 ± 6.1 , and $34.4 \pm 28.7 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, respectively (Götschi
 et al. 2002). In UK, Wigzell et al. (2000) found that 48-h
 mean concentration of $PM_{2.5}$ in the kitchens ranged from
 5 to $77 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ with a mean of $18 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. Recently,
 Mohammadyan and Ashmore (2005) reported that the geo-
 metric mean indoor concentration of $PM_{2.5}$ was $19 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$
 with higher values in winter ($46 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) than in summer
 ($13.4 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$). During the RIOPA study in three different
 areas of USA (Elizabeth NJ, Houston TX, and Los Angeles
 County CA) Meng et al. (2005) reported that median indoor
 $PM_{2.5}$ was $14.4 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$.

The available information on the current situation of indoor
 air pollution, though sparse, clearly reflects the severity of
 indoor air pollution in Pakistan. In general, the scope of
 human health has been neglected despite the National
 Environmental Policy (2005–2015) having as one of its goals
 the establishment and enforcements of standards for ambient
 and indoor air quality (National Environment Policy of
 Pakistan 2005).

4 Interventions to control indoor air pollution

Initial efforts to introduce more fuel efficient stoves in some
 areas of the country commenced over 20 years ago. Before
 1988, only 2,500 improved cook stoves were constructed in
 Pakistan. The Fuel Efficient Cooking Technologies project
 resulted in the production and dissemination of some
 40,000 stoves in 1990 (Sarhandi 1997). A later program,
 on fuel-saving technologies, provided incentives to NGOs
 and community-based organizations for its implementation
 (Anwer 2001). The benefits of using the improved stoves,
 in terms of reduced smoke levels, were reported by Saleem
 (1997) and Ahmad and Nazir (1997) from northern areas
 of Pakistan and Peshawar. Saleem (1997) reported the

360 introduction of the improved stoves resulted in a fall
 361 respiratory and eye diseases. Moreover, these improved
 362 stoves reduced the workload of women and pressure on the
 363 natural forests due to savings in biomass fuel consumption.
 364 However, these stoves were not considered economical for
 365 poor families. Ahmad and Nazir (1997) concluded that the
 366 stoves were far better in terms of heating capacity, wood
 367 saving, cooking efficiency, and smoke reduction as com-
 368 pared to their traditional counterparts.

369 Most interventions have focused on northern areas of
 370 Pakistan due to the degradation of natural resources.
 371 Deforestation as a result of wood use for construction and
 372 fuel has resulted in land degradation and soil destabilization
 373 which, in turn, has led to diminished economic prospects
 374 for the local population. The Building and Construction
 375 Improvement Program (BACIP), established in 1997, has
 376 installed over 17,000 energy-efficient and living condition
 377 improvement products in various households, benefiting
 378 nearly 70,000 people across 125 villages. These include fuel-
 379 efficient “smoke-free” cooking stoves with chimneys, as
 380 well as wall and floor insulation, and roof hatch windows to
 381 reduce dust particles and improve indoor heating (Sedky and
 382 Hussain 2001).

383 Of special note is the use, by BACIP, of women from local
 384 villages to disseminate its products. Demonstration models
 385 are used in a few homes so that the villagers can directly
 386 witness the benefits and learn about appropriate use. By
 387 utilizing women residents, to provide input into the design
 388 and decision-making processes, it gives them a greater voice
 389 and enhanced status in the community. Crucial to the success
 390 of the program is the use of simple technologies and local
 391 materials. Sustainability is enhanced due to the products’
 392 low cost (around \$30 a stove) and local production. It is
 393 estimated that this program has reduced in-house smoke and
 394 other air pollutants by over 80%. Approximately 300,000
 395 trees have been saved with a reduction in average household
 396 fuel wood expenditure of 50%. A 50% decrease in
 397 incidences of acute respiratory infection, pneumonia, and
 398 other illnesses has been predicted.

399 In 2003, a BACIP, with support from local government,
 400 was commenced in Sindh province in South Pakistan. A
 401 similar participatory research and implementation process
 402 to that in the North has allowed for easy replication, and
 403 new products have been designed that match cultural and
 404 climatic requirements.

405 In order to estimate the acceptability, social, and health
 406 impacts of improved stoves a cross sectional study was
 407 conducted by Khushk et al. (2005) between households
 408 using smoke-free stoves and traditional stoves during April
 409 to May 2002. Smoke-free stoves were regarded as having a
 410 beneficial impact on health by most of the women. The
 411 results of multivariate analysis showed that symptoms of
 412 dry cough, sneezing, and tears while cooking were less

common in women using the smoke-free stoves than those 413
 using traditional stoves. The mean concentration of CO in 414
 smoke-free kitchens was 15.4 ± 3.4 compared to $28.5 \pm$ 415
 5.7 ppm with traditional stoves. 416

417 Apart from improved cooking stoves, the Government of
 Pakistan started a comprehensive biogas program in 1974 418
 and had commissioned 4,550 plants by 1990. The program 419
 was developed in three phases. Initially, the government 420
 installed 100 units, and in the second phase, the cost was 421
 shared between the Government and beneficiaries. In third 422
 phase, only beneficiaries bore the cost. Nevertheless, due to 423
 withdrawal of Government financial support the program 424
 did not progress (Anwer 2001). Although these pilot projects 425
 showed promising results, they were at a small scale and 426
 lacked the coordination among all the stakeholders. 427

428 The WHO Department of Child and Adolescent Health
 and Development review of the household energy usage 429
 concluded that indoor air pollution had not been recognized 430
 as a hazard and that very little intervention was being 431
 carried out in Pakistan (WHO 2005). Based on this review, 432
 a seminar was held to increase awareness of indoor air 433
 pollution due to biomass fuels and its effect on children’s 434
 health (WHO 2006). There were presentations on a variety of 435
 issues including possible local initiatives such as fuel efficient 436
 stoves and the promotion of liquefied petroleum gas. 437

438 Details of intervention studies in other countries are
 widely available (e.g., WHO 2008; Granderson et al. 2009; 439
 Practical Action 2004; McCracken et al. 2007). While it is 440
 not feasible to develop a harmonized protocol to meet the 441
 needs of every project and location, much can be learned 442
 from evaluating the reasons for the success or failure of 443
 the various interventions (WHO 2008). It is clear that a 444
 participatory approach works well with communities. This 445
 involves household discussions about the health risks of 446
 indoor air pollution, and working with them to find solutions 447
 which not only reduce smoke but also simultaneously 448
 enhance the comfort and quality of their lives. 449

450 What is lacking in Pakistan is a baseline assessment of
 pollution and exposure, fuel use, and house structure. 451
 Although cook stove emissions contain a wide range of 452
 pollutants, it is generally agreed that particulate matter and 453
 carbon monoxide should be monitored as they are the 454
 pollutants considered most damaging to health (WHO 455
 2008). Dissemination of the results to the local community 456
 can help towards attitudinal change and positive behavioral 457
 changes. However, changing cooking behaviors are unlikely 458
 to bring about reductions without other interventions; they 459
 are important supporting measures. Where cleaner fuels such 460
 as gas are introduced, NO₂ is likely to become more 461
 important as a pollutant in kitchens. Little research has been 462
 directed towards kitchen design and behavior change 463
 although these could offer significant improvements. For 464
 example, having the stove at waist height would reduce the 465

466 need to lean over the fire and hence reduce direct exposure
467 to smoke.

468 **5 Environmental tobacco smoke**

469 Alongside the use of biomass fuels, environmental tobacco
470 smoke (ETS) is another significant indoor air pollutant and
471 major public health problem in Pakistan. Smoking in
472 confined spaces (house, office, transport) is a common
473 practice. There is significant evidence that ETS is an
474 important source of fine particulate and responsible for an
475 increase in indoor fine particulate in the range 10–45 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$
476 (Nazaroff and Klepeis 2003). There is a scarcity on studies
477 on the levels of indoor pollution due to ETS in Pakistan.
478 Ahmad et al. (2005) reported the results of a nationwide
479 cross-sectional household survey to estimate the prevalence
480 of, and identify factors associated with, smoking in
481 Pakistan. Overall, the prevalence of smoking was 15.2%
482 with 28.6% among men and 3.4% among women. The
483 highest prevalence was reported in men aged 40–49 years
484 (40.9%). One out of every two to three middle-aged men in
485 Pakistan smoke cigarettes. Other studies have considered
486 the prevalence of smoking in different social groups,
487 occupations, and locations in Pakistan. For comparison, in
488 India, the prevalence of smoking was 15.6% with 28.5%
489 among men and 2.1% among women (Jindal et al. 2006); in
490 Bangladesh, the corresponding figures are 55% and 17%,
491 respectively (WHO 2003).

492 Various studies have documented the prevalence, knowl-
493 edge, and practices regarding smoking among adults
494 (Merchant et al. 1998; Khuwaja and Kadir 2004; Nisar
495 et al. 2005, 2007; Ali et al. 2006, 2008; Ganatra et al. 2007;
496 Maher and Devji 2002; Alam et al. 2008); house physicians
497 and doctors (Pirvani and Rizvi 2004); school, college, and
498 university students (Rozi et al. 2005, 2007; Jawaid et al.
499 2008); medical students (Khan et al. 2005; Mubeen et al.
500 2008); and in air-conditioned coaches (Mal et al. 2001).
501 Most of the studies have revealed that smoking is a major
502 problem especially in younger age groups. Illiteracy and
503 lack of awareness about the health hazards has been shown
504 to be important factors; nevertheless, studies on medical
505 students revealed that the frequency of smoking among
506 young doctors was higher than the overall prevalence of
507 smoking in Pakistan (Pirvani and Rizvi 2004). Although
508 these studies were not aimed at the investigation of indoor
509 air pollution due to ETS, they revealed the increasing
510 prevalence of smoking in all segments of society. As
511 smoking in indoor environments is very common, ETS
512 makes a significant contribution to indoor air pollution in
513 the country. Recently, a study by Colbeck et al. (2008)
514 reported an hourly concentration of PM_{10} more than
515 2,000 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ during smoking in living rooms in Pakistan.

In this case, the room was occupied by up to five smokers. 516
For comparison in western houses, smoking has been 517
reported to increase indoor $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations by 25 to 518
45 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (McCormack et al. 2008; Breyse et al. 2005; 519
Wallace 1996; Wallace et al. 2003). The current situation 520
calls for an urgent need for health promotion and anti- 521
tobacco education in combating the epidemic of smoking in 522
Pakistan. In 2002, Pakistan introduced the Prohibition of 523
Smoking and Protection of Non Smokers Health Ordinance 524
which instigated a ban on smoking in closed places, health 525
facilities, educational facilities, and on public transporta- 526
tion. However, the legislation is not implemented, and in 527
2008, the Government issued guidelines for the creation of 528
designated smoking areas. 529

530 **6 Conclusions**

Indoor air pollution has received little attention in Pakistan 531
because of lack of awareness among the population and 532
policy makers regarding the association of indoor air 533
pollution and ill health. The available information depicts 534
high levels of indoor air pollution due to the use of biomass 535
fuels and indoor smoking. Women and children are the 536
most exposed proportion of the population due to amount 537
of time spent near the stove or as passive smokers in the 538
indoor environment. Poor indoor air quality, due to biomass 539
fuel usage, needs urgent interventions, and it should be 540
locally acceptable and viable. In particular, it should be 541
economical and consider the role of women in the rural 542
energy system and factors responsible for fuel choice 543
decisions. In the first instance, a public awareness cam- 544
paign regarding the health effects of indoor air pollution 545
should be instigated followed by suitable community-based 546
interventions. Schools and basic health units, along with a 547
general media campaign, can provide an avenue to spread 548
the knowledge of indoor air pollution due to biomass fuel 549
usage and indoor smoking across the country. 550

Due to the current socioeconomic conditions in the 551
country, development and adoption of improved cooking 552
stoves for the population at large would be the most 553
suitable choice. Elsewhere, this type of intervention has 554
already shown a reduction in risk factors and improvement 555
in health. In a study on a randomized trial of improved 556
wood burning stoves in Guatemala, Smith et al. (2006) 557
reported a reduction in infant pneumonia upon switching 558
from open fire stoves to improved stoves. Furthermore, a 559
significant drop in women's blood pressure was also 560
recorded (McCracken et al. 2005). In addition to improved 561
stoves, there is potential for using biogas as a rural energy 562
source. There is a need for an integrated approach and the 563
financial support by the Government, and the involvement 564
of various community-based organizations is vital for the 565

566 success. The work carried out by various governmental
 567 organizations (The National Institute of Silicon Technology,
 568 Pakistan Council of Scientific and Industrial Research,
 569 Pakistan Council of Appropriate Technology) on renewable
 570 energy resources needs consideration and marketing.
 571 Moreover, access to modern cooking fuels (natural gas,
 572 LPG) should be enhanced. With reference to environmental
 573 tobacco smoke, strict legislation on smoking in confined
 574 public places should be implemented. General public
 575 awareness about role of indoor smoking in the deterioration
 576 of indoor air quality and hazardous health effects of
 577 smoking along with practical support to quit should be
 578 provided at basic health units in the country. There is a dire
 579 need to conduct studies, not only to establish the effects of
 580 interventions but also on the levels of various indoor air
 581 pollutants in both rural and urban areas. Addressing women
 582 and children's indoor health and comfort-related issues
 583 generates commercial, environmental, and socioeconomic
 584 benefits.

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Q1. References (Smith and Liu 1994; Smith and Mehta 2003) were not cited in text. Please provide citations.

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