

We are IntechOpen, the world's leading publisher of Open Access books Built by scientists, for scientists

6,900

Open access books available

186,000

International authors and editors

200M

Downloads

Our authors are among the

154

Countries delivered to

TOP 1%

most cited scientists

12.2%

Contributors from top 500 universities



WEB OF SCIENCE™

Selection of our books indexed in the Book Citation Index
in Web of Science™ Core Collection (BKCI)

Interested in publishing with us?
Contact book.department@intechopen.com

Numbers displayed above are based on latest data collected.
For more information visit www.intechopen.com



Bronchitis and Environment

Ayşe Emel Önal and Ahmet Abbasoğlu
Istanbul University, Istanbul Medical Faculty
Turkey

1. Introduction

Acute bronchitis is an inflammation of the big bronchi mucosa that develops and heals rapidly in fifteen days at the latest. Coughing that lasts more than five days is the cardinal symptom. Production of sputum and fever exists in cases with an infectious cause. Chronic bronchitis is defined having sputum production for three months or more, two years in a row. The prevailing complaint is dyspnea. Bronchitis occurs with the inhaling of the infectious agents or physicochemical agents via the airway. Environmental factors are effective in the development of bronchitis.

2. Etiology in bronchitis

2.1 Infectious causes

2.1.1 Bacteria

H Influenzae, S pneumonia, M catarrhalis account for 70% of all exacerbations and 85-95% of bacterial exacerbations. After those responsible Staphylococcus aureus, Pseudomonas aeruginosa, opportunist gram-negatives and mycoplasma pneumonia are the most frequent bacterial agents in order of frequency. (Ball, 1995; Boldy et al., 1990; Johnson et al., 1997; MacKay et al., 1996). Mycoplasma pneumoniae, Chlamydia pneumoniae rarely contribute to the causes of acute bronchitis (Wenzel & Fowler, 2006).

2.1.2 Viruses

Influenza/parainfluenza viruses, Respiratory syncytial virus, rhinoviruses and coronaviruses account for 30% of all acute infective exacerbations (Ball, 1995; Boldy et al., 1990; Jonsson et al., 1997; MacKay et al., 1996).

2.2 Chemical causes

Relationship between the consumption of domestic coal per acre in 1952 and the average annual death rates from bronchitis of males aged 45-64 years from 1950 to 1952, in 83 counties of England and Wales are one of the first studies that put emphasis on air pollution in developing bronchitis. In this study as the consumption of domestic coal per acre had increased, deaths from bronchitis also increased. (Daly C, 1954). Industrial pollution is a major precipitant in air pollution. Before the death incidents due to smogs that took place in 1950s and 1960s in London and Los Angeles, Reid and Fairbairn had previously defined the relationship between fog and work absenteeism due to bronchitis among London postmen during the 1940s. During the 1950s in Great Britain, it's been

showed that there is a correlation between the measurements of sulphur dioxide and deaths due to bronchitis in all the years for men that are over 45 and in some of the years also in women. (Pemberton & Goldberg, 1954). The basis of warming and pollutants from industry are particulate matter and sulphurdioxide. In Donora (Pennsylvania), London and New York, in 1940s, 50s and 60s episodes of severe air pollution resulted from sulfur dioxide and particulate matter (1996). Clean Air Act was created in 1971 in the United States six criteria air pollutant, ozone, particulate matter, sulfur dioxide, nitrogen dioxide, lead, and 189 units were identified toxic or hazardous air pollutant (Clean Air Act., 1971)..

The main components of particulate matter are sulfates, carbon materials, nitrates, trace elements and water. (Dockery & Pope, 1994) Of those pollutants Sulphur dioxide (SO₂) and respirable particulate material up to 10 microns (PM₁₀) in diameter are most frequently held responsible for the contamination and health effects. Therefore, in routine measurements they are considered first. According to NAAQS (National Ambient Air Quality Standards) standards and limit values for pollutants that affect health primarily are: Annual Arithmetic Mean for Sulfur Dioxide (SO₂) 0:03 ppm(80µg/m³), 24 hour limit is 0:14 ppm (365µg/m³), Suspended Particulate Matter (PM₁₀) limit value for the annual arithmetic average is 50 µg/m³, boundary value for 24 Hours is 150µg/m³ (Evyapan, 2010).

Children are more affected by air pollution than adults. Because 80% of alveoli forms postnatally and full development of the lungs continues until the age of six to eight. (Dietert RR et al, 2000; Plopper & Fonucchi, 2000).

Research linking air pollution with morbidity and mortality indicates the strongest effects on the very young and the elderly (Picciotto IH et al., 2007). In their study of 2010 Benrayeb and colleagues investigate the relationship between air pollution in France and individuals over 65 with bronchitis-like symptoms . In this study they found a 10% and a 23% increase in usual cough for a 10 µg/m³ increment in PM₁₀ and a 1 µg/m³ increment in SO₂ respectively, and a 23% increase in usual phlegm for a 1 µg/m³ increase in SO₂. A more pronounced effect of SO₂ and PM₁₀ was observed in women on cough and phlegm. (Bentayeb et al., 2010).

Especially exhaust fumes by vehicles are being held responsible of ambient air pollution more than industrialization, and warming up (Bates, 1995; Ana et al., 2000, ISDE, 2003). The WHO study in the three countries, investigated the effects on health of air pollution from traffic, PM₁₀ was found to be the most harmful pollutant. The chronic bronchitis incidence of whom are over 25 years attributed to total air pollution cases or days are 6 200 for Austria, 36700 for France, 4 200 for Switzerland. These patients under the age of 15 for bronchitis or days, are 47700, 450000, and 45400 respectively. Within These the cases or days attributed to the road traffic for over the age of 25 chronic bronchitis patients are 2700 for Austria, 20400 for France, 22000 for Switzerland, for bronchitis patients under age 15 are 20600, 250000, and 24100 respectively (ISDE,2003). Besides ambient air pollution quality of indoor air pollution (Kurmi et al., 2010, Galeone et al., 2008, Padhi&Padhy, 2008) and the cigarette smoke (Pirastu et al., 2009; Vial, 1986) are important environmental factors responsible for the formation of bronchitis. Biomass fuels that are used at homes (Ekici et al., 2005; Özbay et al., 2001; Kiraz et al., 2003; Akhtar et al., 2007), solid fuels (Kurmi et al., 2010, Galeone et al., 2008, Padhi&Padhy, 2008) that form these are counted for the chemical elements of the environment. In the meta-analysis that Kurmi had done, there were positive associations between the use of solid fuels and COPD and chronic bronchitis. Pooled estimates for different types of fuel show that exposure to wood smoke while performing

domestic work presents a greater risk of COPD (Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease) and chronic bronchitis than other fuels. In many areas of Africa, Central America, South-East Asia, and South Asia, more than 90% of rural homes use solid fuel as the primary cooking and/or heating fuel. Of these fuels the use of biomass and wood, coal causes chronic bronchitis more than charcoal (Kurmi et al., 2010). In the study of Padhi and Padhy, children whom biomass is used in their homes and suffering from respiratory tract infection are compared to children whom in the homes liquified petroleum gas (LPG) is used and have respiratory tract infections. Impaired lung function were more for users of biomass. (Padhi&Padhy,2008). The outcome of this study shows that the use of biomass as a cooking fuel produces high concentrations of CO, CO₂, NO, NO₂, SO₂ and SPM in the indoor environment in comparison to LPG. A questionnaire survey of children aged between 9 and 12 years in Turkey, which included spirometry, found that coal users had more day/night cough, and that those using wood-burning stoves had the lowest values of FVC, FEV, PEF_R, and FEF₂₅ (forced expiratory flow rate at 25 % of lung volume) (Güneser et al., 1994). In Turkey since the 1970s warming, industrialization and road traffic have caused outdoor air pollution. In 1970's in Ankara, in 1980's in İstanbul, especially with the 1973 oil crisis, when the use of lignite coal has increased air pollution has increased too. (Evyapan, 2010).

Sulphurdioxide which forms as a result of the combustion of coal, petrol and fuel oil is the most common aetiology of bronchitis (Hapcioglu et al., 2006; Schwela, 2010). Sulphur dioxide increases the mucosal permeability of the trachea and bronchi, inhibits the ciliary movements and mucous transport (Güler&Cobanoglu, 1997). Water soluble gases, sulfur dioxide and ammonia are absorbed via bronchi, ozone and nitrogen gases which are relatively non-absorbable are effective on the alveolar region that is not covered with the mucosa (Güler&Cobanoglu, 1997). Large particles, 50 micrometers in diameter in the breathing air are usually struck with the nose and pharynx. Small particles of 10 micrometres can reach alveoli. The relation between PM₁₀ or PM_{2.5} exposure and acute health effects is linear at concentrations below 100 micrograms/m³ (Schwela, 2000). There are studies that didn't determine a (Patenden et al., 2006) correlation between nitrogen dioxide and bronchitis as well as that do (Schwela, 2010). A statistically significant relationship is confirmed between polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) that are greater than 2.5 microgram in diameter and the bronchitis observed in children between 3-4.5 years (Picciotto et al., 2007).

Acute and chronic bronchitis is observed often in the workers working in the fields exposed to dust and hazardous gases. Analysis of epidemiological data from the 1930s and 1940s confirmed the impression of a strong link between occupation and chronic bronchitis. In the 1950s and early 1960s, irreversible airflow limitation and emphysema, which are functional and pathological abnormalities associated with chronic bronchitis, were shown to be increased among mineworkers. The preventability of occupation related disease influence researchers about chronic bronchitis and environmental exposure (Trupin et al., 2003). In the study of Trupin et al. post occupational exposure significantly increased the likelihood of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, independent of the effects of smoking. One of five cases of COPD may be attributable to occupational exposures. In this study 42% of 189 subjects self reported vapours, gases, dusts or fumes. 29% of them exposed combustion by products, 23% inorganic dusts or fumes, 15% organic dusts. Job exposure matrix, exposure probability is 69% low, 24% intermediate, 6% high (Trupin et al., 2003). Some of the branch of industry-economic activity along with cigarette smoking that are held responsible for chronic bronchitis are fields that cause exposure to asbestos, cement, grain working, textile

industry (cotton, hemp, flax dust) and welding (irritant gases, metal fumes, dusts) (Benowitz & Hua, 2004). The most commonly held minerals responsible for chronic bronchitis are coal, oil mist, silica, synthetic vitreous fibers, portland cement and metals are osmium, vanadium, welding fumes (Balmes, 2004).

2.3 Physical causes

It is known that bronchitis has always been initiated with cold weather and high humidity (Fletcher et al., 1959). The units such as school and barracks where communal life are cause the agents to spread easily and let epidemics break out (Schima&Adachi, 2000; Chen et al., 1998; Aydogdu&Assan, 2005; Kak, 2007). The presence of an crowded environment, with close interaction between individuals, increases the risk of persons being exposed to various respiratory secretions and potentially infectious respiratory viruses (Kak, 2007). Bronchitis is related to seasons and change of air. In a study conducted in Ankara the lowness of the daily temperature and of the amount of precipitation increases the risk of wheezing (Yalçın, 2010). High humidity and air pressure, and low temperature (Hapcioglu et al., 2006) increases the incidence of bronchitis (Chen et al., 2008). In the study of Hapcioglu et al. when the meteorological and pollution parameters were evaluated by multiple variable stepwise regression analysis, it can be seen that the only variable that explains the COPD admissions is temperature (Other variables were pressure, humidity, SO₂, CO, NO, NO₂ and PM₁₀). Authors noted that seasonal variations exist for COPD admissions. They reported that they found admissions more in autumn, spring and winter when summer seasonal values are taken as reference (Hapcioglu et al., 2006). In the study of Chen et al. chronic bronchitis was mainly concentrated in August and September. They explained this situation with the sudden change from cold to hot during the use of air-condition. Weather change was an important factor, especially when temperature change rapidly, and the daily average temperature fell more than 3°C bronchitis occur (Chen et al., 2008). The important factor was the amplitude of the temperature change was small, but the temperature changed frequently. When the activity of cold and warm air is sudden or frequent, there is a greater incidence of disease. This occurred when hot and cold weather appeared alternately, but the fluctuation was under 3° C (Chen et al., 2008). It's been thought that the changes happening in the bronchi enable the viruses and bacteria to effect mucosa of the bronchi with relative ease.

3. Epidemiology

When looked at the relationship of bronchitis with age, small airway inflammation are observed more often in kids 6 months to 4 years old, acute bronchitis are more often in children and adolescents, whereas chronic bronchitis prevalence increases with age in adults and elderly (Chen et al., 2008). In the study of Picciotto, the overall rates for lower respiratory illness, bronchitis, and croup in children under 2 years of age were 83, 55 and 27 per 1000 child-months, respectively (or expressed equivalently, 8.3%, 5.5%, and 2.7% per month (Picciotto, 2007). Bronchitis rates in this age group were also higher in children of mothers with lower education, and children from homes with adults who smoke, or homes in which coal was used for heating or cooking. Current or recent breast-feeding was protective, as was older maternal age. In a study conducted in China, 5.9% of patients who has chronic bronchitis and asthma are between the age of 51-55, 16.2 % are seen in age 71 to 75 (Chen et al., 2008). In a study done in Boston the prevalence of chronic bronchitis is 4.5%

(Bhattacharyya, 2009). In Istanbul among the children whose mean age is 13 the bronchitis (acute and chronic) frequency is found to be 6.5% in the health problems they are aware of (Onal et al., 2009). In Nigeria school-age children reported over 10% for prevalence of bronchitis (Ana GR et al., 2009). Bronchitis is more common in young children, especially under the first age (Chen et al., 2008); The frequency increases with age after middle age, children and the elderly more easily had bronchitis (Prieto, 2007). In the study established with postal workers, in London, in 1959, Fletcher and his colleagues were found cough and sputum more in men than in women. Symptoms increase with age in men. Ventilatory capacity was significantly impaired in the men. The authors suggest these results are related to more cigarette smoking (Fletcher, 1959).

4. Diagnosis

The clinical symptoms of bronchitis are coughing, expectoration and fever with an infectious aetiology. In acute bronchitis coughing will go on for more than five days and recovers in two weeks. Bronchitis which takes longer than 3 months for two consecutive years are called chronic bronchitis (Fletcher et al., 1959, Kilburn, 1998). Coughing and expectoration are seldom seen in chronic bronchitis. Dyspnea is the most important symptom and wheezing the most important sign. Ever since Badham (1808) first introduced the word bronchitis to medical literature it has been customary to include dyspnoea together with cough and expectoration as an essential symptom of bronchitis. Oswald (1958) describes two types of disability of bronchitis; breathlessness and exacerbations of infection; the presence of either of which justifies the diagnosis. Pemberton (1956) and Ogilvie and Newell (1957) accepted cough and sputum as evidence of bronchitis in earliest phase. To admit the diagnosis of bronchitis all those who have persistent cough and sputum is essential from the point of view of preventive medicine (Fletcher et al., 1959). Today, some clinicians considered that making a diagnosis of bronchitis based on defined criteria for chronic sputum production is easy, but has limited clinical value (Clausen, 1990). For the differential diagnosis the chest radiograph is necessary. The studies continue about the place of high-resolution computed tomography in the diagnosis (Gupta et al., 2009). The respiratory functions are disturbed in patients. The measurements made by spirometer (difficult to conduct in children younger than 6 years old). Forced vital capacity (FVC), forced expiratory volume (FEV) and peak expiratory flow rate (PEFR) shows reversible decrease (Padhi & Padhy, 2008; Schwela, 2010). Evidence of airflow obstruction forced expiratory volume in one second (FEV1) less than 80% of the predicted value, and FEV1/FVC less than 70%, with an increase of less than 10% in FEV1 after inhalation of a β -agonist aerosol indicate COPD (Zalacain et al., 1999).

5. Treatment

The treatment of acute bronchitis is symptomatic. Nonsteroid antiinflammatory drugs and nasal decongestants are recommended. In the clinical studies conducted during the treatment of acute bronchitis the antibiotics are ineffective. In the case of bronchitis which produces sputum antibiotic treatment is appropriate to be administered according to the culture-antibiogram result. H. Influenzae infections give better response to amoxicillin and ciprofloxacin, while erythromycin, azithromycin and amoxicillin are more effective in *S. Pneumoniae* infections (Ball, 1995). Humidifying treatment hastens the recovery of the

illness. Short and long acting bronchodilators (beta-2 agonists) are effective in chronic bronchitis. The epidemiologic studies conducted found out that there is a correlation with the air pollution (especially suspended particulate matter PM10-PM2.5) and the use of bronchodilator drugs (Schwela, 2000).

Results of placebo-controlled trials of efficacy of antibiotic therapy in acute exacerbations of chronic bronchitis show that in defined exacerbations, the patients benefit significantly from antibiotic therapy. Patients who had exacerbations characterized by increases in dyspnea, sputum production, and sputum purulence. In 1987 Anthonisen and coworkers either demonstrate that in the group of patients who take amoxicillin, co-trimoxazole or doxycycline the clinical success is %68, otherwise in the placebo group clinical success was %55. In Allegras' study, the clinical success of patients who take co-amoxiclavine was %86, otherwise in placebo group was %50 (Ball, 1995).

6. Prevention

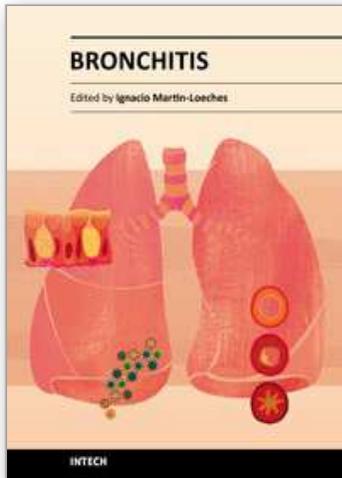
Quitting smoking, staying out of foggy, dusty, smudge environment is important for prevention and treatment. Quitting smoking is possible with pharmacological treatment such as bupropion HCL and varenicline. Nicotine replacement therapy is possible with nicotine tape, nicotine gum and nicotine sublingual tablet. Measures against occupational exposure should be taken if necessary. Having a flu vaccination once a year and having the vaccinations in the routine vaccination program of children and elderly (such as pneumococcus and H. influenzae vaccination) is important in prevention of bronchitis.

7. References

- Ball P, Epidemiology and Treatment of chronic bronchitis and its exacerbations, *Chest*,108:2:Suppl:S43-52, 1995.
- Boldy DA, Skimore SJ, Ayres JG, Acute bronchitis in the community : Clinical features, infective factors, changes in pulmonary function and bronchial reactivity to histamine, *Respir Med* 84:377, 1990.
- Jonsson JS, Sigurdsson JA, Kristinsson KG et al., Acute bronchitis in adults. How close do we come to its aetiology in general practice? *Scand J Health Care*, 15:156, 1997.
- MacKay DN, Treatment of acute bronchitis in adults without underlying lung disease, *J Gen Intern Med*, 11:557, 1996.
- Wenzel RP, Fowler AA, III. Clinical practice, Acute bronchitis, *N Eng J Med*, 355:2125, 2006.
- Daly C, Air pollution and bronchitis, *British Medical Journal*, sept 18, 687-688, 1954.
- Pemberton J, Goldberg C, Air pollution and bronchitis, *British Medical Journal*,4:568-570, 1954.
- No author listed, Health effects of outdoor air pollution. Committee of the Environmental and Occupational Health Assembly of the American Thoracic Society, *Am J Crit Med*, 153(1):3-50, 1996.
- Clean Air Act. 33 United States Code Sec.1241 Et Esq., 1971 *Astım Allerji İmmunoloji* 2005;3(2):77-85.
http://www.aai.org.tr/managete/UploadedFiles/%202005-02/77_85.pdf
23.11.2010
- Dockery DW, Pope III CA. Acute respiratory effects of particulate air pollution. *Annual Review of Public Health* 1994 ; 15 : 107 - 132 .
<http://www.annualreviews.org/doi/pdf/10.1146/annurev.pu.15.050194.000543>

- Tekbaş ÖF. Air pollution and its' health effect, in *Environmental Health*, GATA Basımevi, p:153-165, Ankara, 2010.
- Dietert RR, Etzel RA, Chen D et al. Workshop to identify critical windows of exposure for children's health: Immune and respiratory systems work group summary, *Environ Health Perspect*, 108:Supp 3:483-490, 2000.
- Plopper CG, Fonucchi MV, Do urban environmental pollutants exacerbate childhood lung diseases? *Environ Health Perspect*, 108:252-253, 2000.
- Picciotto IH, Baker RJ, Yap PS, Dostal M, Joad JP, Lipsett M, Greenfield T, Herr CEW, Benes I, Shumway RH, Pinkerton KE, Sram R, Early childhood lower respiratory illness and air pollution, *Environ Health Perspect*, 115(10):1510-1518, 2007.
- Bentayeb M, Hemler C, Raheison C, et al. Bronchitis-like symptoms and proximity air pollution in French elderly, *Respiratory Medicine*, 104:880-888, 2010.
- Bates DV, The effects of air pollution on children, *Environ Health Perspect*. 103 Supp 6:49-53, 1995.
- Ana GR, Shendell DG, Odesi TA, Sridhar MK, Identification and initial characterization of prominent air pollution sources and respiratory health at secondary schools in Ibadan, Nigeria, *J Asthma*, 46(7):670-676, 2009.
- ISDE, International Society of Doctors for the Environment, Ed: Silberschmidt G, Translation : Şahin Ü, Transportation, Environment, Health, ÇİHD, İTO, p:18, 2003.
- Kurmi OP, Semple S, Simkhada P, Smithy WCS, Ayres JG, COPD and chronic bronchitis risk of indoor air pollution from solid fuel: a systematic review and meta-analysis, *Thorax*, 65:221-228, 2010.
- Galeone C, Pelucchi C, La Vecchia C, Negri E, Bosetti C, Hu J, Indoor air pollution from solid fuel use, chronic lung diseases and lung cancer in Harbin, Northeast China, *Eur J Cancer Prev*. 17(5):473-478, 2008.
- Padhi BK, Padhy PK, Domestic fuels, indoor air pollution, and children's health, *Ann N Y Acad Sci*, 1140:209-217, 2008.
- Pirastu R, Bellu C, Greco P, Pelosi U, Pistelli R, Accetta G, Biggeri A, Indoor exposure to environmental tobacco smoke and dampness: respiratory symptoms in Sardinian children-DRIAS study, *Environ Res* 109(1):59-65, 2009.
- Vial WC. Cigarette smoking and lung disease, *Am J Med Sci*, 291(2):130-142, 1986.
- Bates DV, The effects of air pollution on children, *Environ Health Perspect*. 103 Suppl 6:49-53, 1995.
- Ekici A, Ekici M, Kurtipek E et al, Obstructive airway diseases in women exposed to biomass smoke, *Environ Res*. Sep;99(1):93-8, 2005.
- Ozbay B, Uzun K, Arslan H et al, Functional and radiological impairment in women highly exposed to indoor biomass fuels, *Respirology*, 6(3):255-258, 2001.
- Kiraz N, Kart L, Demir R et al, Chronic pulmonary disease in rural women exposed to biomass fumes, *Clin Invest Med*, 26:243-248, 2003.
- Akhtar T, Ulah Z, Khan MH et al, Chronic bronchitis in women using solid biomass fuel in rural Peshawar, Pakistan, *Chest*, 132(5):1472-1475, 2007.
- Güneser SA, Atıcı A, Alpaslan N, Cinaz P, Effects of indoor environmental factors on respiratory systems of children, *J. Trop. Pediatr*. 40:14-16, 1994.
- Evyapan F. Air pollution in Turkey, and health effect on respiratory system, www.toraks.org.tr/pdf/hava_kir_semp/hava_kirliligi.pdf
- Hapcioglu B, İşsever H, Koçyiğit E, Dişçi R, Vatansever S, Özdilli K, The effect of air pollution and meteorological parameters on chronic obstructive pulmonary disease at an Istanbul hospital. *Indoor and Built Environment*, 15:2:147-153, 2006.

- Güler Ç, Çobanoğlu Z, Chemicals and the Environment, T. C., Ministry of Health, Public Health Project Coordinator, Environmental Health Basic Source Serie, Ankara, 1997.
- Patenden S, Hoek G, Braun-Fahrlander C, Forastiere F, Kosheleva A, Neuberger M, Fletcher T, NO₂ and children's respiratory symptoms in the PATY study, *Occup Environ Med*, 63(12):828-835, 2006.
- Trupin L, Earnest G, San Pedro M et al., The occupational burden of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, *Eur Respir J*, 22:462-469, 2003.
- Benowitz NL, Hua F, Smoking & Occupational Health, in *Occupational & Environmental Medicine*, Ed:Ladou J, fourth edition, Mc Graw Hill Medical, New York, 2004, p;715.
- Balmes JR, Occupational Lung Diseases, in *Occupational & Environmental Medicine*, Ed:Ladou J, fourth edition, Mc Graw Hill Medical, New York, p;330, 2004.
- Fletcher CM, Elmes PC, Fairbairn AS, Wood CH, The significance of respiratory symptoms and the diagnosis of chronic bronchitis in a working population, *British Medical Journal*, 29:257-266, 1959.
- Shima M, Adachi M, Effect of outdoor and indoor nitrogen dioxide on respiratory symptoms in schoolchildren, *Int J Epidemiol*. 29(5):862-70, 2000.
- Chen PC, Lai YM, Wang JD et al. Adverse effect of air pollution on respiratory health of primary school children in Taiwan, *Environ Health Perspect*. 106(6):331-5, 1998.
- Aydoğdu H, Assan A: Monitoring of Fungi and Bacteria in the Indoor Air of Primary Schools in Edirne City, Turkey: *Indoor and Built Environment*: 14:5:411-425, 2005.
- Kak V, Infections in confined spaces: Cruise ships, military barracks, and college dormitories, *Infectious Disease Clinics of North America*, 21:3:773-784, 2007.
- Yalçın P, Applications of environmental medicine in social pediatrics, 3th Congress of Environmental Medicine, Proceedings Book, p: 157, 23-25 June 2010.
- Chen X, Cao Q, Liu C, Xu C, Research on meteorological conditions and their related diseases in Hefei, China, *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*, 1140:86-90, 2008.
- Bhattacharyya N, Does annual temperature influence the prevalence of otolaryngologic respiratory diseases? *Laryngoscope*, 119(10):1882-1886, 2009.
- Onal AE, Erbil S, Gürtekin B, Ayvaz Ö, Özel S, Cevizci S, Güngör G, Perception of Self Health Among primary school students and their knowledge of health matters, *Nobel Medicus*, 5:2:24-28, 2009.
- Prieto C MJ, Mancilla F P, Astudillo O P et al, Excess respiratory diseases in children and elderly people in a community of Santiago with high particulate air pollution. *Rev Med Chil*. 2007 Feb;135(2):221-228. www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17406741
- Kilburn KH, Pulmonary Responses to Gases and Particles, in *Public Health & Preventive Medicine*, Ed: Wallace RB, Doebbeling BN, fourteenth edition, Appleton&Lange, Stamford, p:581-586, 1998.
- Clausen JL, The diagnosis of emphysema, chronic bronchitis, and asthma, *Clin Chest Med*., 11(3):405-416, 1990.
- Gupta PP, Yadav R, Verma M et al, High-resolution computed tomography features in patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, *Singapore Med*, 50(2):193-200, 2009.
- Zalacain R, Sobradillo V, Amiliba J et al, Predisposing factors to bacterial colonization in chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, *Eur Respir J*, 13:343-348, 1999.
- Schwela D, Air pollution and health in urban areas, *Rev Environ Health*, 15(1-2):13-42, 2000.



Bronchitis

Edited by Dr. Ignacio Martín-Loeches

ISBN 978-953-307-889-2

Hard cover, 190 pages

Publisher InTech

Published online 23, August, 2011

Published in print edition August, 2011

Lung parenchyma has been extensively investigated. Nevertheless, the study of bronchial small airways is much less common. In addition, bronchitis represents, in some occasions, an intermediate process that easily explains the damage in the lung parenchyma. The main target of this book is to provide a bronchial small airways original research from different experts in the field.

How to reference

In order to correctly reference this scholarly work, feel free to copy and paste the following:

Ayse Emel Onal and Ahmet Abbasoglu (2011). Bronchitis and Environment, Bronchitis, Dr. Ignacio Martín-Loeches (Ed.), ISBN: 978-953-307-889-2, InTech, Available from:

<http://www.intechopen.com/books/bronchitis/bronchitis-and-environment>

INTECH
open science | open minds

InTech Europe

University Campus STeP Ri
Slavka Krautzeka 83/A
51000 Rijeka, Croatia
Phone: +385 (51) 770 447
Fax: +385 (51) 686 166
www.intechopen.com

InTech China

Unit 405, Office Block, Hotel Equatorial Shanghai
No.65, Yan An Road (West), Shanghai, 200040, China
中国上海市延安西路65号上海国际贵都大饭店办公楼405单元
Phone: +86-21-62489820
Fax: +86-21-62489821

© 2011 The Author(s). Licensee IntechOpen. This chapter is distributed under the terms of the [Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike-3.0 License](#), which permits use, distribution and reproduction for non-commercial purposes, provided the original is properly cited and derivative works building on this content are distributed under the same license.

IntechOpen

IntechOpen