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M78 Emotion Regulation Expectancies and Smoking Cessation Factors: An Ecological Momentary Assessment Study During a Practice Quit Attempt

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### Authors

Pang, Raina Wang, Shirlene Tucker, Chyna <u>et al.</u>

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| 7  | Emotion regulation expectancies and smoking cessation factors: a daily diary study of California  |
| 8  | adults who smoke cigarettes during a practice quit attempt  |
| 9  | Raina D. Pang <sup>a,b</sup> , Shirlene D Wang <sup>a</sup> , Chyna J. Tucker <sup>a,c</sup> , Lori Zadoorian <sup>a</sup> , Andrea H.  |
| 10   | Weinberger <sup>d,e</sup> , Lina D'Orazio <sup>f</sup> , Matthew G. Kirkpatrick <sup>a,b</sup>  |
| 11   |   |
| 12<br>13<br>14<br>15<br>16<br>17<br>18<br>19<br>20<br>21<br>22<br>23<br>24 | <ul> <li><sup>a</sup>Department of Population and Public Health Sciences, Keck School of Medicine, University of Southern California, 1845 N. Soto St., Los Angeles, CA 90032, USA</li> <li><sup>b</sup>Department of Psychology, University of Southern California, 3620 McClintock Ave., Los Angeles, CA 90089, USA</li> <li><sup>c</sup>Department of Social Welfare, University of California, Los Angeles, 3250 Public Affairs Building, Los Angeles, CA 90095, USA</li> <li><sup>d</sup>Department of Psychiatry and Behavioral Sciences, Ferkauf Graduate School of Psychology, Yeshiva University, 1165 Morris Park Ave. Rousso Building, Bronx, NY 10461, USA</li> <li><sup>e</sup>Department of Epidemiology and Population Health Albert Einstein College of Medicine, 1300 Morris Park Avenue, Bronx, NY 10461, USA</li> <li><sup>f</sup>Department of Neurology, University of Southern California, 1520 San Pablo St. Los Angeles, CA 90033, USA</li> </ul> |
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| 27   | Declarations of interest: none. Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to   |
| 28   | Raina D. Pang, 2001 N. Soto Street, Suite 312E, Los Angeles, CA 90032; Tel: 1-323-442-7251;   |
| 29   | Email: <u>rpang@usc.edu</u> .   |
|  |   |

#### 1 Abstract 2 SIGNIFICANCE: Cross-sectional studies have shown that greater cigarette smoking-related 3 emotion regulation expectancies were associated with retrospectively reported withdrawal during 4 prior quit attempts and greater barriers to cessation. Few studies have investigated the 5 relationship of within-person daily emotion regulation expectancies to factors related to initiating 6 and maintaining a brief quit attempt. METHODS: People living in California who smoked 7 cigarettes daily (n=220, 50% female; 48.5% white, 14.6% Hispanic, 16.7% Black or African 8 American, 9.6% Asian, 7.6% Multi-race, 3.0% other race; mean age=43.71 years old) completed 9 a practice quit attempt and 28-days of daily diary surveys. In the morning, participants reported 10 non-smoking and smoking emotion regulation expectancies based on the Affective Processing 11 Questionnaire, daily abstinence plan, abstinence self-efficacy, and cigarettes smoked. Successful 12 abstinence plans were calculated as days with an abstinence plan and no cigarettes smoked. 13 Multilevel models investigated whether within-person emotion regulation expectancies were 14 associated with abstinence plan, self-efficacy, and successful abstinence plan. **RESULTS:** 15 Greater within-person non-smoking emotion regulation expectancies were associated with 16 increased odds of having an abstinence plan, higher self-efficacy, and a successful abstinence 17 plan on a given day (ps<.05). Greater within-person smoking emotion regulation expectancies 18 were associated with lower odds of having an abstinence plan and lower self-efficacy (ps<.001) 19 but did not significantly associate with a successful abstinence plan. **CONCLUSIONS:** These 20 findings show that within-person levels of expectations in emotion regulation abilities may 21 contribute to factors relevant to initiating and achieving daily abstinence during a practice 22 attempt. 23

24 Keywords: smoking, smoking abstinence, smoking quit attempt, emotion regulation

25 expectancies, daily diary, abstinence self-efficacy

#### **1 1.** Introduction

2 Cigarette use is considered a leading cause of preventable disease and death in the United 3 States (Sealock & Sharma, 2022). Thus, smoking cessation is a necessary step to decreasing the 4 prevalence of preventable fatal diseases and it is important to analyze contributing factors that 5 impact a person's ability to attempt smoking cessation and stay abstinent. Emotion regulation is 6 a factor that may be relevant to smoking cessation outcomes. Several cross-sectional studies have 7 shown an association between trait emotion dysregulation and greater problems with withdrawal 8 during past smoking cessation attempts as reported retrospectively (Johnson & McLeish, 2016; 9 Rogers et al., 2018; Zvolensky et al., 2019a, 2019b). Fewer studies have examined the 10 relationship between emotion regulation and cessation success during a quit attempt. One study 11 of treatment-seeking adults who smoke daily in a smoking cessation clinical trial found that 12 emotion dysregulation was associated with greater withdrawal symptoms reported on quit day 13 and a slower decline in withdrawal symptoms over twelve weeks (Rogers et al., 2019). Smoking 14 and non-smoking emotion regulation expectancies, or expectations related to regulating emotions 15 with the use of cigarettes (i.e., I am confident that smoking would improve my mood.) and 16 without the use of cigarettes (i.e., I am confident that I could do something other than smoke to 17 improve my mood.), may also play an important role in smoking cessation. Greater expectations 18 that smoking improves emotions have been found to associate with a decreased likelihood of 19 abstinence during a cessation attempt (Wetter et al., 1994). Another study found that lower non-20 smoking emotion regulation expectancies were associated with more smoking as indicated by 21 higher carbon monoxide levels following a laboratory stressor (Wetter et al., 1992). One study

5

did not find associations of average pre-quit day emotion regulation expectancies with smoking
 abstinence on quit day or 7-days post quit date (Spears et al., 2019).

3 Taken together, prior studies suggest a role of emotion regulation expectancies as a factor 4 relevant to smoking cessation outcomes. However, these studies have been largely cross-5 sectional, retrospective, and focused on between-person differences (i.e., individual differences 6 emotion regulation expectancies). It is unknown whether within-person levels of emotion 7 regulation expectancies (i.e., the deviation of a daily response from one's average response) 8 associate with factors relevant to daily decisions and ability to abstain from smoking. 9 The aim of this secondary analysis of daily diary data was to investigate associations of 10 non-smoking and smoking emotion regulation expectancies with abstinence plan, abstinence 11 self-efficacy, and successful abstinence (i.e., smoking 0 cigarettes on days with a plan to abstain 12 from smoking). We hypothesized that within-person non-smoking emotion regulation 13 expectancies would associate with a greater likelihood of an abstinence plan, higher abstinence

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15 days with higher-than-usual smoking emotion regulation expectancies would associate with a

self-efficacy, and a greater likelihood of a successful abstinence plan. We also hypothesized that

16 lower likelihood of an abstinence plan, lower abstinence self-efficacy, and a lower likelihood of a17 successful abstinence plan.

18 2. Method

**19** 2.1 Participants

20 The current report is a secondary analysis of a study investigating associations of21 elevated depression symptoms and smoking reinstatement among adults with daily smoking with

1 and without depression symptoms. To be eligible for the parent study, participants were between 2 21 and 70 years of age; self-reported regular cigarette smoking for at least one year; reported 3 currently smoking 5+ cigarettes/day; were able to complete study procedures; resided in the state 4 of California (United States); owned a smart device compatible with the LifeData app; and were 5 able to complete online surveys and attend sessions via videoconference or phone. Participants 6 were excluded for (1) meeting diagnostic criteria for lifetime bipolar disorder or current 7 posttraumatic stress disorder assessed by a research assistant via a structured clinical interview 8 (the Mini International Neuropsychiatric Interview; Sheehan et al., 1998); (2) pregnancy or intent 9 to get pregnant; or (3) incompatible schedule with data collection protocol (i.e., having a job that 10 required being awake overnight).

#### 11 2.2 Procedure

12 Following a preliminary phone screen assessing eligibility, participants attended a remote 13 baseline session that included informed consent, baseline measures, and a psychiatric interview. 14 Eligible participants were trained on Ecological Momentary Assessment (EMA) protocols and 15 completed 28-days of EMA with a practice quit attempt scheduled approximately one week 16 following study enrollment. Throughout EMA, participants were asked to complete smoking 17 event-contingent prompts for every cigarette they smoked and signal-contingent prompts 18 following some cigarettes (minimum 6 hours between post-cigarette prompts), three prompts at 19 pseudo-random times of the day, one prompt in the morning, and one prompt in the evening. 20 Participants received a minimum of 5 prompts per day, and the total number of prompts per day 21 depended on the number of cigarettes smoked each day. Emotion regulation expectancies and

| 1  | self-efficacy were only assessed in the morning and abstinence plan and smoking abstinence       |
|----|--|
| 2  | were assessed at the day level. The current daily diary analyses used measures from the morning  |
| 3  | survey only; results from EMA prompts will be reported separately. Participants were contacted   |
| 4  | approximately twice per week to review study compliance (i.e., the number of surveys that were   |
| 5  | completed) and were paid at the end of every week they were enrolled in the study. Participants  |
| 6  | could earn up to \$315 in the study. All procedures were approved by the University of Southern  |
| 7  | California Institutional Review Board.   |
| 8  | 2.3 Baseline Measures  |
| 9  | The author-constructed Personal History Questionnaire and Smoking History                        |
| 10 | Questionnaire assessed demographics (e.g., age, race/ethnicity, sex) and smoking history (e.g.,  |
| 11 | cigarettes per day, age started smoking), respectively. The 6-item Fagerström Test for Cigarette |
| 12 | Dependence (FTCD) assessed cigarette dependence severity (Fagerström, 2003, 2012). The           |
| 13 | Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale (CES-D) was used to measure depression         |
| 14 | symptoms (Radloff, 1977).  |
| 15 | 2.4 Daily Diary Measures   |
| 16 | Two questions based on the Affective Processing Questionnaire (Wetter et al., 1992)              |
| 17 | assessed non-smoking emotion regulation expectancies ("I am confident that I could do            |
| 18 | something other than smoke to improve my mood") and smoking emotion regulation                   |
| 19 | expectancies ("I am confident that smoking would improve my mood") on a rage slider from 1       |

- 20 (Not at all confident) to 6 (Extremely confident). These items have been used in another smoking
- 21 cessation EMA study (Spears et al., 2019). The interclass correlation (ICC) was .47 and .51 for

non-smoking emotion regulation expectancies and smoking emotion regulation expectancies,
 respectively.

3 Abstinence plan was assessed by asking participants, "Do you have any plans to guit or cut 4 down on smoking today?". Responses included "No, I plan to smoke today"; "Yes, I plan to cut 5 down today"; "Yes, I plan to not smoke today". For the analyses, we created a binary variable 6 indicating an abstinence plan (i.e., "Yes, I plan to not smoke today") compared to a plan to 7 smoke or reduce smoking. Abstinence self-efficacy was assessed by the question, "How confident 8 are you that you will be able to not smoke today?". 9 Smoking behavior the day before was assessed by asking, "How many cigarettes did you 10 smoke yesterday?". We created a dichotomized *abstinence* variable of abstaining (0 cigarettes 11 smoked) or not abstaining (1+ cigarettes smoked). To assess successful abstinence, we created a 12 variable that characterized whether participants abstained from smoking on days they reported a 13 plan to abstain. To encompass the full day following an abstinence plan, abstinence plan was 14 lagged to day t-1, such that abstinence plan and abstinence variables represented the same day. 15 2.5 Data Analysis 16 Preliminary data analyses assessed daily diary survey compliance (i.e., the number of 17 surveys that were completed) and patterns of missing data. Primary aims were evaluated using 18 multilevel linear models (abstinence self-efficacy) and multilevel logistic regressions (abstinence

19 plan, successful abstinence plan). Non-smoking and smoking emotion regulation expectancies

20 were partitioned into between- (i.e., mean across all completed responses, grand mean centered)

21 and within-person (i.e., that day's response in relation to that person's average response)

1 variables. First, we tested whether emotion regulation expectancies were associated with 2 abstinence plan and abstinence self-efficacy using all responses. Next, we ran models 3 investigating whether emotion regulation expectancies associated with successful abstinence 4 (i.e., cigarette abstinence on days with an abstinence plan). Non-smoking and smoking emotion 5 regulation expectancies were run in one model and all models controlled for between-person 6 non-smoking and smoking emotion regulation expectancies, sex, age, cigarette dependence, and 7 depression symptoms. Analyses were conducted in SPSS (Version 28) and missing data were 8 handled under missing at random assumptions.

9 3. Results

### 10 3.1 Survey completion and demographics

11 Of the 225 participants found eligible at baseline and enrolled, four participants were 12 excluded from the analyses due to completing a different version of the smoking intention 13 question and one participant was excluded for not completing any morning daily diary surveys. 14 The final analytic sample was 220. Participants completed an average of 25.60 days (SD = 4.77) 15 of prompts and responded to 5,172 (84% surveys completed) morning prompts. Completion of 16 morning prompts was not significantly correlated with sex, cigarette dependence, depression 17 symptoms, non-smoking emotion regulation expectancies, or smoking emotion regulation 18 expectancies (ps>.05). Completion of surveys was significantly associated with age (r=.19, 19 p=.005). Sample demographics and baseline smoking characteristics are shown in Table 1. 20 Participants reported an abstinence plan on 31.7% of days and were successful (i.e., did not 21 smoke any cigarettes) on 74.8% of days they set an abstinence plan.

#### 1 3.2 Non-smoking emotion regulation expectancies

Higher within-person non-smoking emotion regulation expectancies were associated with
increased odds of having an abstinence plan (OR [95%CI]=1.35 [1.27-1.44]; Table 2) and greater
abstinence self-efficacy (estimate=0.66, p<.00; Table 2). Within-person non-smoking emotion</li>
regulation expectancies were associated with increased odds of successful abstinence (OR
[95%CI]=1.18 [1.04-1.33]; Table 2).

### 7 3.3 Smoking emotion regulation expectancies

8 Within-person smoking emotion regulation expectancies were associated with lower odds
9 of having an abstinence plan (OR [95%CI]=0.82 [0.77-0.88]; Table 2) and lower self-efficacy
10 (estimate=-0.20, p<.001; Table 2). There was not a significant association between within-person</li>
11 smoking emotion regulation expectancies and successful abstinence (OR [95%CI]=1.10[0.9612 1.25]; Table 2).

#### 13 4. Discussion

14 Consistent with our hypotheses, we found that within-person non-smoking emotion 15 regulation expectancies were associated with greater odds of an abstinence plan, greater 16 abstinence self-efficacy, and greater odds of remaining abstinent on days with an abstinence plan 17 (i.e., successful abstinence plan). These findings align with prior work showing that general 18 emotion regulation abilities may play a role in one's ability to have a successful smoking 19 cessation attempt (Johnson & McLeish, 2016; Rogers et al., 2018; Zvolensky et al., 2019a, 20 2019b). This study extends prior work by showing that after controlling for between-person 21 levels of non-smoking emotion regulation expectancies, within-person non-smoking emotion

regulation expectancies are associated with setting a plan to abstain from smoking, having
 confidence in the plan to not smoke, and successfully carrying out a plan to abstain from
 smoking. This finding is important because it suggests that treatments that improve an
 individual's confidence in regulating their emotions without smoking may increase the likelihood
 that one may set and carry out an abstinence plan.

6 We found support for hypotheses that within-person smoking emotion regulation 7 expectancies were associated with setting an abstinence plan and confidence in remaining 8 abstinent but did not find a significant association between within-person smoking emotion 9 regulation expectancies with successful abstinence plan. Prior research has found that 10 expectations that smoking helps relieve negative emotions associate with worse smoking 11 cessation success (Wetter et al., 1994), and the current findings suggest that day-level smoking-12 related emotion regulation expectancies may decrease the intention and confidence in abstaining 13 from smoking that day. Yet, on days with an abstinence plan there was no significant effect of 14 smoking emotion regulation expectancies with smoking abstinence. These findings suggest that 15 overall expectations for emotion regulation capacity may play a greater role in successfully 16 carrying out a plan to abstain from smoking than expectations that smoking regulates emotions. 17 This finding is consistent with Wetter et al. (1992) who found non-smoking emotion regulation 18 was associated with more cigarette smoking as measured by greater expired carbon monoxide 19 levels following a stressor.

This study needs to be interpreted in the context of its limitations. This study focused on apractice smoking cessation attempt and did not enroll people specifically intending to quit

1 smoking. As such, findings may not generalize to people who smoke and are actively trying to 2 quit smoking. The majority of people in the US who smoke report they want to quit smoking 3 (Babb et al., 2017), but less than one third report using evidence-based cessation methods (Babb 4 et al., 2017). As such, it is important to study individuals who smoke who may not be ready for 5 long-term smoking cessation. This study also focused on day-level abstinence plans, self-6 efficacy, and ability to stay abstinent. While this limits the generalizability of the findings to 7 long-term smoking cessation, there are several reasons why studying brief quit attempts are 8 important. Individuals contemplating smoking cessation make more 24-hour quit attempts in 9 comparison to individuals not contemplating smoking cessation (DiClemente et al., 1991) and 10 enhancing intention to quit in individuals who are not ready to attempt long-term abstinence is 11 considered an important feature of several smoking interventions (Fiore et al., 2008). Taken 12 together, findings from this study importantly show that day-level non-smoking and smoking 13 emotion regulation expectancies play an important role in intention to abstain from smoking. 14 Furthermore, non-smoking emotion regulation expectancies were uniquely associated with 15 successfully abstaining from smoking when one had an abstinence plan.

16

#### 17 Author disclosures

#### **18** Role of funding source

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or preparation of the manuscript.

### **1** Conflict of Interest

2 No conflict declared.

### **3** Author's contribution

4 RDP generated the initial idea for the analysis reported in the manuscript, conducted data

5 analysis, and wrote the original draft of the manuscript. SDW conducted data analysis and

- 6 provided critical review and commentary. LZ, CJT, AHW, LMD, and MGK provided critical
- 7 review and commentary. All authors approved the final manuscript.

#### Table 1. Sample demographics and smoking characteristics

|   | M or N | SD or % |
|---|--------|---------|
| Demographics <sup>a</sup>                     |        |         |
| Age (years)                                   | 43.71  | 12.64   |
| Depression Symptoms <sup>b</sup>              | 20.31  | 12.48   |
| Female sex                                    | 110    | 50.0%   |
| Race/Ethnicity                                |        |         |
| White   | 96     | 48.5%   |
| Hispanic, any race                            | 29     | 14.6%   |
| Black or African American                     | 33     | 16.7%   |
| Asian   | 19     | 9.6%    |
| Multi-race                                    | 15     | 7.6%    |
| Other   | 6      | 3.0%    |
| Baseline Smoking Characteristics <sup>a</sup> |        |         |
| Cigarettes per day                            | 12.70  | 7.49    |
| Cigarette Dependence <sup>c</sup>             | 4.70   | 2.17    |
| Daily Diary                                   |        |         |
| non-smoking emotion regulation expectancies   | 3.62   | 1.47    |
| smoking emotion regulation expectancies       | 2.99   | 1.49    |

Note. <sup>a</sup>n's ranged from 198-220 due to patterns of missing data. <sup>b</sup>Depression symptoms was measured using the Center for Epidemiological Studies Depression (CES-D) with higher scores indicating greater depression symptoms. <sup>c</sup>Cigarette dependence was assessed using the Fagerström Test of Cigarette Dependence (FTCD) with higher scores indicating higher cigarette dependence.

|  |                 |      | Abstinence    | Self- | Successful  |    |
|--|-----------------|------|---------------|-------|-------------|----|
|  | Abstinence Plan |      | Efficacy      |       | Abstinence  |    |
|  | OR [95% CI]     | р    | Estimate (SE) | р     | OR [95% CI] | р  |
|  | 0.50 [0.03,     |      |               |       | 2.63 [0.15, | .5 |
| Intercept                                  | 9.45]           | .64  | 2.88 (0.08)   | <.001 | 46.51]      | 1  |
| Non-Smoking Emotion Regulation             | 1.35 [1.27,     | <.00 |               |       | 1.18 [1.04, | .0 |
| Expectancies-WP                            | 1.44]           | 1    | 0.66 (0.06)   | <.001 | 1.33]       | 1  |
|  | 0.82 [0.77,     | <.00 |               |       | 1.10 [0.96, | .1 |
| Smoking Emotion Regulation Expectancies-WP | 0.88]           | 1    | -0.20(0.06)   | .001  | 1.25]       | 7  |

1 Table 2. Models of emotion regulation expectancies associations with smoking-cessation-related factors.

2 Key: CI, confidence interval; OR, odds ratios; SE, standard error, WP, within-person

3 Note. All models controlled for between-person non-smoking emotion regulation expectancies, between-person smoking

4 emotion regulation expectancies, sex, age, cigarette dependence, and depression symptoms. Successful Abstinence was defined

5 as abstaining from smoking on days with an abstinence plan.

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