Research Update: Incentives and Relapse Prevention

Pregnancy Challenge Group

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Dr Caitlin Notley
Senior Lecturer in Mental Health
Norwich Medical School











Latest evidence on **Incentives for** smoking cessation

Caitlin Notley, Sarah Gentry, Jonathan Livingstone-Banks, Linda Bauld, Rafael Perera, Jamie Hartmann-Boyce

Conclusions changed

View authors' declarations of interest

Trusted evidence. Informed decisions. Better health.







Background: incentives in pregnancy

- Incentive based programmes have been used to encourage positive health behaviour change, but are controversial:
- Public acceptability?
- Commissioning?
- Time limited effectiveness?
- Pregnant women who smoke are a high risk priority group (incentives more acceptable?)
- Possible mechanisms of action (theory of behaviour change):
- Operant conditioning
- Delay discounting





Background – the last Cochrane review

- Cahill et al, 2015
- Incentives found to be effective for smoking cessation in mixed populations, and in trials recruiting pregnant women
- The odds ratio (OR) for quitting with incentives at longest follow-up (six months or more) compared with controls was 1.42 (95% confidence interval (CI) 1.19 to 1.69; 17 trials, [20 comparisons], 7715 participants)
- Only three studies demonstrated significantly higher quit rates for the incentives group than for the control group at or beyond the six-month assessment:
- "Incentives appear to boost cessation rates while they are in place"





Objectives

To determine the long-term effect of incentives and contingency management programmes for smoking cessation.

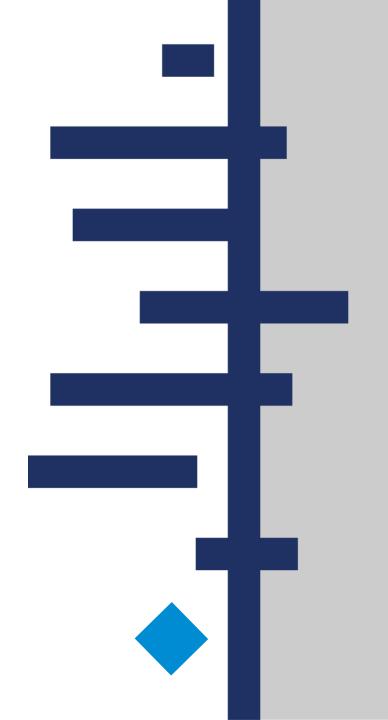
- Do incentives reduce the prevalence of smoking at longest follow-up?
- 2. What is the optimal amount and type of incentives that might be offered to impact on cessation outcomes?
- 3. What are the cost implications of incentives, to employers and to the community?
- 4. How great is the risk of disbenefits arising from the use of incentives, e.g. false claims, ineligible applicants?





Selection criteria

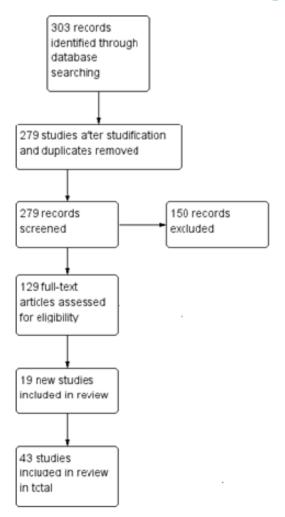
- Studies: RCTs or cluster RCTs
- Participants: Adult smokers
- Interventions: Incentive schemes to reward participants for validated cessation and abstinence
- <u>Controls:</u> Usual care or other smoking cessation interventions
- Outcomes: Long term smoking cessation (6 months or more), self reported or biochemically validated
- Pregnancy outcomes: long term smoking cessation to at least the end of pregnancy and at longest follow up postpartum







PRISMA flow diagram

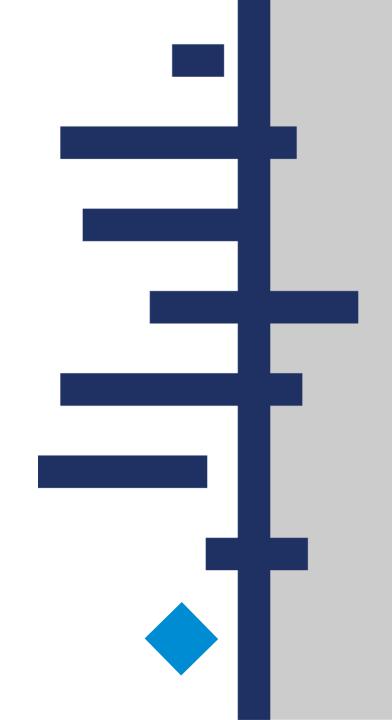






Results – summary of studies included

- 33 mixed-population studies (>21,600 participants). 16 of these studies were new in this review update.
- 10 studies involving pregnant women (n=2571 participants. 1 new study for this review update).
- Studies were set in varying locations, including community settings, clinics or health centres, workplaces, and outpatient drug clinics.
- Twenty-four of the trials were run in the USA, two in Thailand and one in the Phillipines. The rest were European.

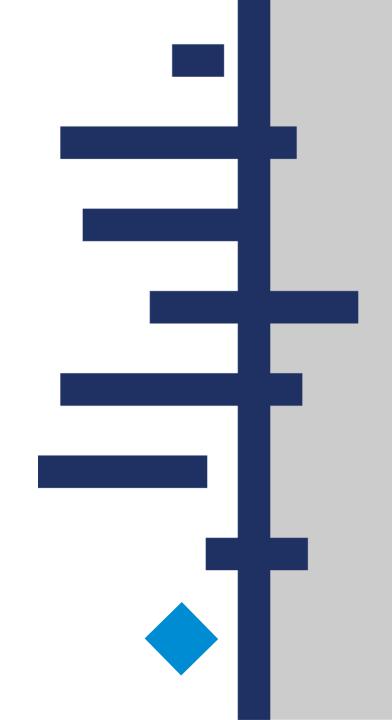






Main results – incentives used

- Most used cash incentives (n=16) or voucher incentives (n=7) (e.g. shopping vouchers, grocery vouchers)
- 2 used self-deposits
- Others used some combination of the above, or the above combined with competition entry.







Main results - effectiveness

Pooled relative risk (RR) for quitting with incentives at longest follow-up (six months or more) compared with controls was 1.49 (95% CI 1.28 to 1.73; 31 RCTs, adjusted N = 20,097; I² = 33%).

Substance misuse subgroup - Results suggested a favourable benefit of incentives for smoking cessation at longest follow-up (no significant subgroup difference (P = 0.38; I2 = 0%; RR in substance abuse subgroup 1.24, 95% CI 0.81 to 1.89; 8 studies; N = 1055; I2 = 0%; Analysis 1.2.1).

Taken together, nine trials in pregnant smokers (eight conducted in the USA and one in the UK) delivered an RR at longest follow-up (up to 24 weeks post-partum) of 2.38, 95% CI 1.54 to 3.69; 9 RCTs; N = 2273; I2 = 41%) in favour of incentives.





Analysis 2.1

Open in figure viewer

Download as PowerPoint

Review: Incentives for smoking cessation Comparison: 2 Incentives in pregnant women Outcome: 1 Smoking cessation at longest follow-up

Study or subgroup	Incentives n/N	No incentives n/N	Risk Ratio M-H,Random,95% Cl	Weight	Risk Ratio M-H,Random,95% Cl	
Baker 2018	74/505	47/509	-	27.8 %	1.59 [1.12, 2.24]	
Donatelle 2000a	22/103	6/102	-	14.6 %	3.63 [1.54, 8.58]	
Donatelle 2000b	13/67	7/60	+-	14.8 %	1.66 [0.71, 3.89]	
Harris 2015	1/7	3/10		4.0 %	0.48 [0.06, 3.69]	
Heil 2008	3/37	1/40	- - - - - - - - - - 	3.5 %	3.24 [0.35, 29.82]	
Higgins 2014	7/40	3/39	-	8.7 %	2.28 [0.63, 8.17]	
Ondersma 2012	7/48	1/23		4.1 %	3.35 [0.44, 25.68]	
Tappin 2015a (1)	47/306	12/303	-	20.2 %	3.88 [2.10, 7.16]	
Tuten 2012	13/42	0/32		2.3 %	20.72 [1.28, 336.01]	
Total (95% CI) Fotal events: 187 (Incendeterogeneity: Tau ² = 0 Test for overall effect: Z	.15; Chi² = 13.61, df = 3.89 (P = 0.00010	= 8 (P = 0.09); I ² =41	%	100.0 %	2.38 [1.54, 3.69]	
Test for subgroup differe		0.00 ours no incentives	5 0.1 1 10 Favours incer	200		

(1) 12 months post-TQD

Comparison 2 Incentives in pregnant women, Outcome 1 Smoking cessation at longest follow-up.







Results – pregnancy

Unable to ascertain whether the size of the rewards made a difference to outcomes, due to a paucity of relevant data.

Three trials addressed the question of whether contingent rewards were more effective than non-contingent fixed payments (Heil 2008; Higgins 2014; Tuten 2012). All three trials favoured conditional over non-conditional payments, with a RR of 3.33, 95% CI 0.97 to 11.38; 3 RCTs; N = 225; I2 = 18%; Analysis 2.3.

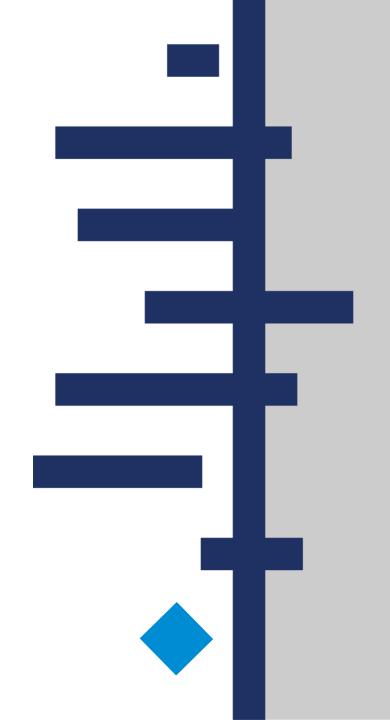
No reported harms or disbenefits. Tappin (2015) reported some limited evidence of 'gaming'





Incentive amount

- Although not always clearly reported, the total financial amount of incentives varied considerably between trials, from zero (self-deposits), to a range of between \$45 USD and \$1185.
- There was no clear direction of effect between trials offering low or high total amounts of incentives, nor those encouraging redeemable self deposits.

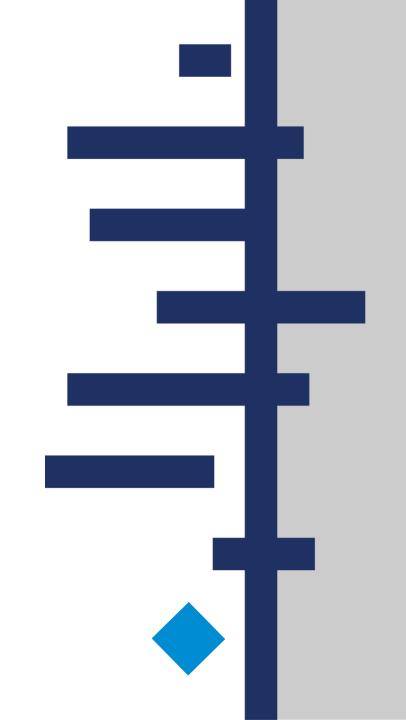






Duration of incentives

We conducted a sensitivity analysis to explore the effect of incentives offered continuously, up until the long term follow up point, compared with studies where longest follow-up was beyond the end of the incentive period.







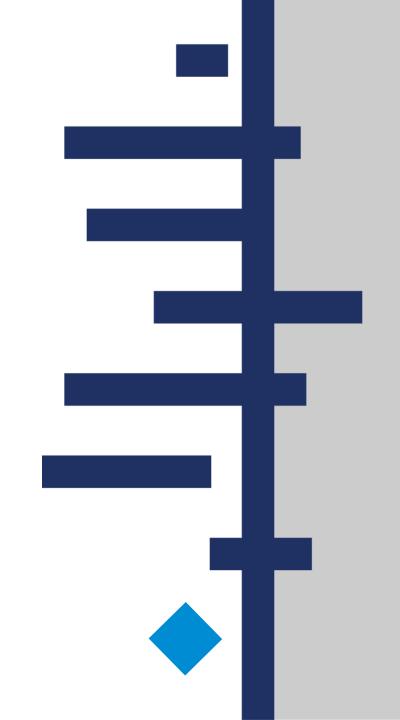
	Incenti	ives	No incer	itives		Risk Ratio	Risk Ratio					
Study or Subgroup	Events	Total	Events	Total	Weight	M-H, Random, 95% CI	M-H, Random, 95% CI					
2.1.1 Incentives provided at longest follow-up												
Drummond 2014	3	50	1	50	0.4%	3.00 [0.32, 27.87]						
Fraser 2017	205	948	131	952	10.4%	1.57 [1.29, 1.92]	+					
Gallagher 2007	4	60	3	60	1.0%	1.33 [0.31, 5.70]						
Ghosh 2016	2	6	0	8	0.3%	6.43 [0.36, 113.52]	 					
Lasser 2017	21	177	4	175	1.8%	5.19 [1.82, 14.81]						
van den Brand 2018 (1)	120	292	69	261	9.5%	1.55 [1.22, 1.99]	-					
Subtotal (95% CI)		1533		1506	23.4%	1.66 [1.33, 2.07]	♦					
Total events	355		208									
Heterogeneity: Tau ² = 0.0	1; Chi² = 6	i.26, df=	5 (P = 0.3)	28); I² = 3	20%							
Test for overall effect: Z=				<i>,</i> ,								
	•		•									
2.1.2 Incentives not provi	ided at lor	ngest fo	llow-up									
Ainscough 2017	0	19	0	18		Not estimable						
Alessi 2014	3	24	5	21	1.2%	0.53 [0.14, 1.94]						
Cheung 2017	30	764	17	379	4.4%	0.88 [0.49, 1.57]						
Cooney 2017	5	42	2	41	0.9%	2.44 [0.50, 11.88]						
Dallery 2016	11	48	6	46	2.3%	1.76 [0.71, 4.36]	+					
De Paul 1994 (2)	34	259	27	259	5.6%	1.26 [0.78, 2.02]	 -					
Etter 2016	39	401	19	404	5.0%	2.07 [1.22, 3.52]	_ -					
Giné 2010	86	781	55	616	8.1%	1.23 [0.89, 1.70]	 -					
Glasgow 1993 (3)	35	243	35	301	6.2%	1.24 [0.80, 1.92]	 -					
Halpern 2015 (4)	82	1017	8	234	3.3%	2.36 [1.16, 4.81]						
Halpern 2015 (5)	50	1053	8	234	3.2%	1.39 [0.67, 2.89]						
Halpern 2018	29	2406	5	1588	2.1%	3.83 [1.48, 9.87]						
Ledgerwood 2014	4	64	1	17	0.5%	1.06 [0.13, 8.90]						
Rand 1989	1	17	Ö	14	0.2%	2.50 [0.11, 56.98]						
Rettig 2018	4	19	0	11	0.3%	5.40 [0.32, 91.76]						
Rohsenow 2015	4	97	4	86	1.1%	0.89 [0.23, 3.44]						
Rohsenow 2017	6	172	3	168	1.1%	1.95 [0.50, 7.68]						
Romanowich 2015	15	193	6	47	2.3%	0.61 [0.25, 1.48]						
Secades-Villa 2014	17	43	13	49	4.3%	1.49 [0.82, 2.70]	 					
Shoptaw 2002 (6)	2	43	4	43	0.8%	0.50 [0.10, 2.59]						
Shoptaw 2002 (7)	1	47	2	42	0.4%	0.45 [0.04, 4.75]						
Tevyaw 2009	1	55	3	55	0.4%	0.33 [0.04, 3.11]						
Volpp 2006	6	92	4	87	1.3%	1.42 [0.41, 4.86]						
Volpp 2009	41	436	16	442	4.6%	2.60 [1.48, 4.56]						
White 2013	58	131	13	69	5.0%	2.35 [1.39, 3.98]						
White 2018 (8)	403	2631	29	312	7.4%	1.65 [1.15, 2.36]	-					
Windsor 1988 (9)	9	94	17	94	3.0%	0.53 [0.25, 1.13]						
Windsor 1988 (10)	5	95	6	95	1.5%	0.83 [0.26, 2.64]						
Subtotal (95% CI)	3	11286	0	5772	76.6%	1.40 [1.16, 1.69]	•					
Total events	981		308				ľ					
Heterogeneity: Tau ² = 0.0		IN 47 df		0.04\\.12	= 36%							
Test for overall effect: Z=	•		- 20 (1 -	0.04/,1	- 50 %							
Total (95% CI)		12819		7279	100.0%	1.49 [1.28, 1.73]	A					
	1336	12019	E4 G	1210	100.0%	1.45 [1.20, 1.73]	•					
Total events		이 이 돈 사람	516 - 2279 -	0.02\-12	- 2204							
Heterogeneity: Tau ² = 0.05; Chi ² = 48.05, df = 32 (P = 0.03); I ² = 33% Toot for everall offect: 7 = 5.13 (P < 0.00001)												
Test for overall effect: $Z = 5.13$ (P < 0.00001) Test for subgroup differences: Chi ² = 1.31, df = 1 (P = 0.25), i ² = 23.5% Favours no incentives Favours no incentives												
restror subgroup differen	ices. Cill	- 1.31,1	ui – 1 (1° –	0.20), 1	- 23.070							





Conclusions

- high-certainty evidence that incentives improve smoking cessation rates at longest follow-up in mixed-population studies
- 2. With moderate-certainty evidence, the nine trials in 2273 pregnant women contributing to the meta-analyses confirmed the efficacy of incentives at longest follow-up, at or around the end of pregnancy
- 3. Findings from our meta-analysis in mixed populations suggest that incentives continue to have a significant impact on sustained smoking cessation, even after they have finished.
- Positive benefit of incentives for substance misusing populations







Implications for practice

Barriers to implementing incentives in routine care or as part of mainstream services?

Public opinion regarding incentives is often negative (incentives seen as 'rewarding' behaviour change for a 'habit' that is perceived as self-inflicted)

Those who relapse to smoking and do not receive a financial incentive may conceivably disengage from subsequent cessation attempts.

Possibility of gaming needs careful monitoring (although limited evidence of this)

Incentives offer an important route to smoking cessation that is effective and may add value to a comprehensive public health approach to reducing smoking prevalence, alongside other forms of cessation support.



Preventing Return to Smoking Postpartum: PReS Study

- DEVELOPMENT OF AN EVIDENCE BASED COMPLEX INTERVENTION FOR MAINTAINING POSITIVE BEHAVIOUR CHANGE

c.notley@uea.ac.uk @AddictionUEA

https://www.uea.ac.uk/medicine/research/addiction

PReS Study: Background





 Approximately 26% of UK women report smoking in the 12 months before pregnancy (Infant feeding survey, Health & Social Care Information Centre, 2012)

Physiological changes

- More women quit during pregnancy than at any other time.
 45% are able to "spontaneously quit" (Lumley, 2009)
- The majority of women who quit smoking in pregnancy return to smoking within six months of the birth of the baby

not breastfeeding

Motivation, intention to quit only for pregnancy

Stress, depression or anxiety Negative social influences

Partner/ household smoking Mistaken beliefs

Identify as a smoker and as a mother

Low confidence to remain abstinent

ADDICTION

SSA SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY OF ADDICTION

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Postpartum smoking relapse—a thematic synthesis of qualitative studies

Caitlin Notley , Annie Blyth, Jean Craig, Alice Edwards, Richard Holland

First published: 10 September 2015 | https://doi.org/10.1111/add.13062 | Cited by: 16

Addiction

Volume 110, Issue 11 November 2015 Pages 1712-1723

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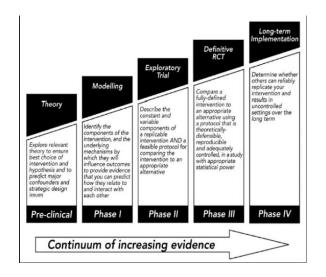
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PReS Study: Aims & Methods

- Map literature to identify determinants and specify promising behavioural change techniques
- PRES
 Preventing Return to Smoking Postpartum

- ➤ Refine a prototype intervention through focus groups and interviews with women, partners and health professionals
- Model the prototype intervention with postpartum ex-smokers
- Define an intervention suitable for testing in a phase II randomised feasibility trial



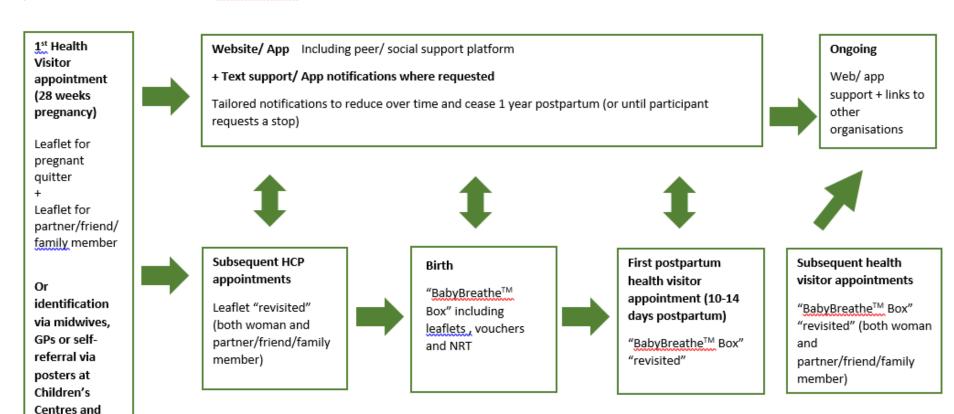


Following MRC framework for the development of complex interventions



New Intervention pathway

Defined intervention pathway for BabyBreathe™ trial



BabyBreathe trial

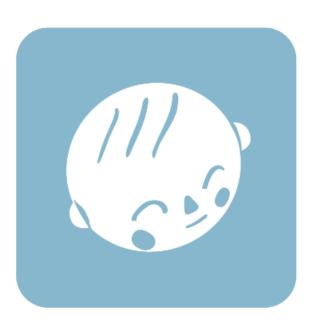
Overall outcome is an intervention suitable for testing in a randomised controlled trial

- Complex intervention
- Working with existing care pathways
- Going 'beyond' NHS cessation support:
- HCPs support
- Self help via a website & app
- Digital support via text messages/app notification
- Physical 'gifts' (incentives)
- NRT or e cigarette support to cope with cravings
- Support continues for 12 months postpartum

Large scale RCT planned recruiting from the Norfolk, London, Scotland and Newcastle

Approximately 800 women randomised to receive BabyBreathe package of support or usual care

Long term smoking abstinence (relapse prevention) measured at 12 months postpartum





Focus on vulnerable populations - The NESCi Study



Norfolk and Norwich University Hospitals







- 1. Little dedicated smoking cessation or relapse prevention support for parents of UK NICU babies.
- 2. In PPI work: of 32 parents approached during a 4-month period, approximately a third were smokers and a third were ex-smokers.
- 3. All parents, without exception, said that they would be amenable to receiving smoking cessation or relapse prevention support, and would especially welcome advice on maintaining a smoke-free home
- 4. NICE guidance recommends smoking cessation referral and support for all people, including patients, carers and visitors, in secondary care settings, and postpartum (PH48 & PH26 (5))
- 5. Our team are developing an evidence based intervention (Grant ref: NIHR RfPB PB-PG-0817-20032)





Conclusions



To reach ambitious government targets for smoking in pregnancy there may be a need to 'go beyond' NICE guidance and the recommendations of the NHS long term plan

Incentives are effective for long term smoking cessation and may be more acceptable for targeting pregnant smokers

Pregnant smokers least likely to quit and most likely to relapse may benefit most from alternative approaches

Relapse to smoking postpartum remains a problem and there is a lack of support

The 'BabyBreathe' package of support may be beneficial but needs definitive testing

Tailored interventions are needed for specifically vulnerable populations, such as families who have a baby admitted to NICU

The Addiction Research Group at UEA:

https://www.uea.ac.uk/medicine/research/addiction

E mail: c.notley@uea.ac.uk

