Financial Incentives for Smoking Cessation -A Cochrane Review

Lifespan Health Research Centre

Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences

University of East Anglia





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The views and opinions expressed are those of myself (and for the review results, my coauthors) and do not necessarily reflect those of the Cochrane Tobacco Addiction group, the NIHR, National Health Service (NHS) or the Department of Health.

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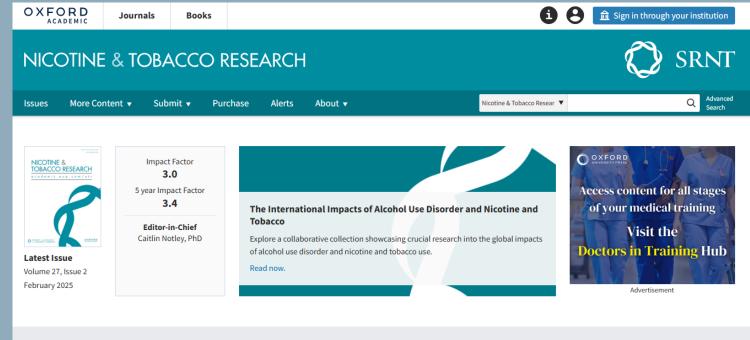






About me





<u>Addiction Research Group</u>

Nicotine & Tobacco Research | Oxford Academic









About Cochrane

WHAT?

Gathers and combines the best evidence from research to determine the benefits and risks of treatments/interventions

HOW?

- By systematically reviewing the available evidence, with strong emphasis on quality assessment
- Cochrane methods considered gold-standard

Cochrane

WHY?

To help healthcare providers, patients, carers, researchers, funders, policy makers, guideline developers improve their knowledge and make decisions

Author team















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🖹 Review language : English

Trusted evidence. Informed decisions. Better health.

Title Abstract Ke

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New search Conclusions changed

Incentives for smoking cessation

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Notley C, Gentry S, Livingstone-Banks J, Bauld L, Perera R, Conde M, Hartmann-Boyce J. Incentives for smoking cessation. Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews 2025, Issue 1. Art. No.: CD004307. DOI: 10.1002/14651858.CD004307.pub7. Accessed 03 February 2025.



Background: Incentives

- Smoking remains the leading preventable cause of death worldwide
- Incentive based programmes have been used to encourage positive health behaviour change, but are controversial:
- Public acceptability?
- Commissioning?
- Time limited effectiveness?
- Possible mechanisms of action (theory of behaviour change):
- Operant conditioning
- Delay discounting



Background: Incentives in pregnancy

- Pregnant women who smoke are a high risk priority group
- UK Government targets to reduce smoking in pregnancy rates to 5% or less have not been achieved
- Interest in trialling alternative, non-pharmacological, approaches to address smoking cessation in pregnancy



Background: The last Cochrane Incentives update

- Notley et al, 2019
- Incentives found to be effective for smoking cessation in mixed populations, and in trials recruiting pregnant women
- Pooled relative risk (RR) for quitting with incentives at longest follow-up (six months or more) compared with controls was 1.49 (95% Cl 1.28 to 1.73; 31 RCTs, adjusted N = 20,097; $I^2 = 33\%$). **High certainty evidence.**
- 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.

Moderate certainty evidence

- From 2015 update (Cahill et al): "Incentives appear to boost cessation rates while they are in place"
- From 2019 update: "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."



Objectives

Primary

To assess the long-term effects of incentives and contingency management programmes for smoking cessation in mixed and pregnant populations.

Secondary

To assess the long-term effects of incentives and contingency management programmes for smoking cessation in mixed populations, considering whether incentives were offered at the final follow-up point.

To assess the difference in outcomes for pregnant populations, considering whether rewards were contingent on abstinence or guaranteed.

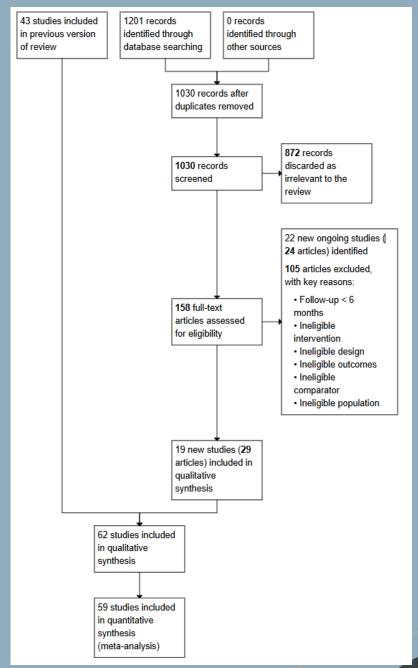


Selection criteria

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



Main results: Included studies



Combined prisma flow diagram - mixed populations and pregnancy trials



Main results:
Incentives vs.
no incentives at
6+ months Mixed population
trials

GRADE certainty of evidence: HIGH



Analysis 1.1 Open in figure viewer Risk Ratio Risk Ratio Incentives Weight M-H, Random, 95% CI M-H, Random, 95% CI Drummond 2014 0.4% 3.00 [0.32 , 27.87] Fraser 2017 1.57 [1.29 , 1.92] Gallagher 2007 1.33 [0.31, 5.70] 6.43 [0.36 , 113.52] Ghosh 2016 1.84 [0.64 , 5.28] 5.19 [1.82 , 14.81] 261 9.7% 1.55 [1.22 , 1.99] 1623 1.63 [1.38 , 1.93] Test for overall effect: Z = 5.87 (P < 0.00001)Heterogeneity: Tau2 = 0.00; Chi2 = 6.32, df = 6 (P = 0.39); I2 = 5% Alessi 2014 21 0.53 [0.14, 1.94] Aonso-Diego 2021 0.83 [0.15 , 4.59] Beckham 2019 2.64 [1.00, 6.97] 2.07 [1.09 , 3.94] Cheung 2017 0.88 [0.49 , 1.57] 2.44 [0.50 , 11.88] Dallery 2016 1.76 [0.71, 4.36] Etter 2016 2.07 [1.22 , 3.52] Giné 2010 616 1.23 [0.89 , 1.70] 301 1.24 [0.80 , 1.92] Halpern 2015^b 1.39 [0.67 , 2.89] 2.36 [1.16 , 4.81] Halpern 2018 1588 3.83 [1.48, 9.87] Higgins 2023 6.28 [0.83, 47.26] Hofmeyr 2020 53 1.36 [0.32 , 5.78] Jason 1995 259 1.26 [0.78 , 2.02] Ledgerwood 2014 17 1.06 [0.13, 8.90] Medenblik 2020 13 0.93 [0.18 , 4.84] Rand 1989 2.50 [0.11, 56.98] Rettig 2018 5.40 [0.32, 91.76] Rohsenow 2015 0.89 [0.23 , 3.44] Rohsenow 2017 168 1.95 [0.50 , 7.68] 0.61 [0.25 , 1.48] Secades-Villa 2014 1.49 [0.82 , 2.70] Secades-Villa 2019a 1.73 [0.90 , 3.31] Secades-Villa 2022 1.35 [0.20, 9.13] 0.45 [0.04, 4.75] Shoptaw 20021 43 0.50 [0.10 , 2.59] Tevvaw 2009 0.33 [0.04, 3.11] Volpp 2006 1.42 [0.41, 4.86] Volpp 2009 2.60 [1.48 , 4.56] White 2013 2.35 [1.39 , 3.98] 1.69 [0.42 , 6.79] Wilson 2023 Windsor 19889 0.53 [0.25 , 1.13] Windsor 1988 0.83 [0.26 , 2.64] 5905 1.46 [1.23 , 1.73] 319 Test for overall effect: Z = 4.31 (P < 0.0001) Heterogeneity: Tau2 = 0.06; Chi2 = 45.78, df = 34 (P = 0.09); I2 = 26% Total 7503 100.0% 1.52 [1.33 , 1.74] 1032 Test for overall effect: Z = 6.00 (P < 0.00001) 0.1 0.002 Test for subgroup differences: Chi2 = 0.85, df = 1 (P = 0.38), I2 = 0% Favours no incentives Favours incentives Heterogeneity: Tau2 = 0.03; Chi2 = 53.13, df = 41 (P = 0.10); I2 = 23%

07 February 202

Incentives vs. no incentives at 6+ months - Substance misuse sub-group

Study or Subgroup	Incentives		No incentives		Risk Ratio		Risk Ratio
	Events	Total	Events	Total	Weight	M-H, Random, 95% CI	M-H, Random, 95% CI
1.2.1 Substance mis	users						
Alessi 2014	3	24	5	21	1.0%	0.53 [0.14 , 1.94]	+
Aonso-Diego 2021	2	24	3	30	0.6%	0.83 [0.15, 4.59]	
Cooney 2017	5	42	2	41	0.7%	2.44 [0.50 , 11.88]	+
Drummond 2014	3	50	1	50	0.4%	3.00 [0.32 , 27.87]	
Rohsenow 2015	4	97	4	86	1.0%	0.89 [0.23 , 3.44]	
Rohsenow 2017	6	172	3	168	0.9%	1.95 [0.50 , 7.68]	+
Secades-Villa 2014	17	43	13	49	3.9%	1.49 [0.82 , 2.70]	 -
Secades-Villa 2022	2	34	2	46	0.5%	1.35 [0.20 , 9.13]	
Shoptaw 2002 ^a	1	47	2	42	0.3%	0.45 [0.04, 4.75]	
Shoptaw 2002b	2	43	4	43	0.7%	0.50 [0.10 , 2.59]	
Subtotal		576		576	10.0%	1.22 [0.82 , 1.82]	•
Total events:	45		39				ľ
Test for overall effect:	Z = 0.97 (P	= 0.33)					



Incentives vs. no incentives at 6+ months -Adjusted analysis including cRCTS



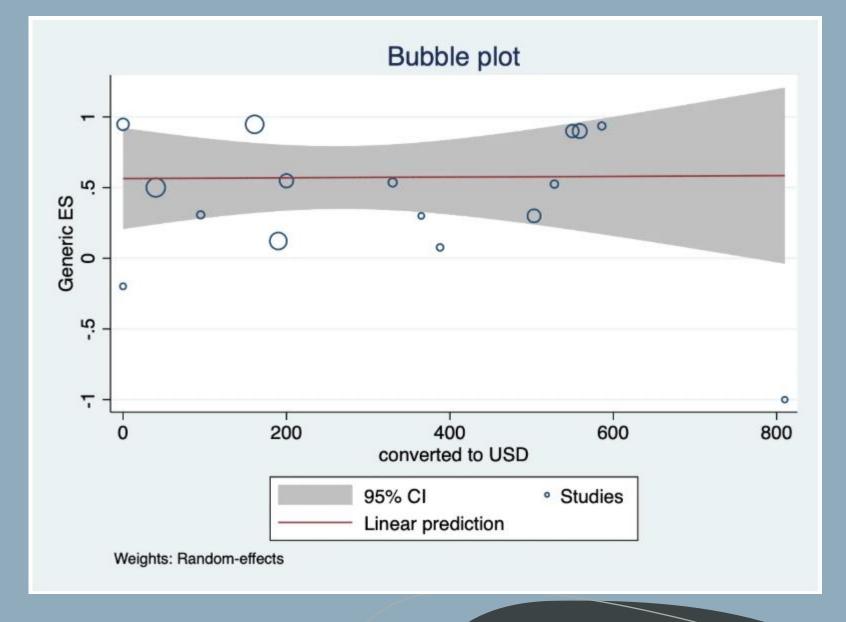
Analysis 1.3 Open in figure viewer Odds Ratio Odds Ratio Study or Subgroup log[OR] Total Total Weight IV, Random, 95% CI IV, Random, 95% CI Alessi 2014 -0.776529 0.815424 21 0.46 [0.09 , 2.27] Anderson 2021 1.036737 0.779845 208 103 0.7% 2.82 [0.61 , 13.00] 0.82 [0.13, 5.26] Aonso-Diego 2021 -0.198451 0.947835 30 Beckham 2019 1.121026 0.560243 63 3.07 [1.02, 9.20] 1.3% Brown 2019 0.947789 0.40837 65 2.58 [1.16, 5.74] Cheung 2017 -0.139262 0.312512 764 379 3.2% 0.87 [0.47, 1.61] Cooney 2017 0.891998 0.808179 42 41 2.44 [0.50 . 11.89] Dallery 2016 0.565314 0.463009 46 1.76 [0.71 , 4.36] Drummond 2014 1.098612 1.139558 50 3.00 [0.32], 28.001 Etter 2016 0.727549 0.270314 401 404 3.9% 2.07 [1.22, 3.52] Fraser 2017 0.451076 0.101452 1.57 [1.29 , 1.92] 1.33 [0.31, 5.70] Gallagher 2007 0.285179 0.742781 60 60 Ghosh 2016 1.860975 1.46779 6 8 0.2% 6.43 [0.36 , 114.18] Giné 2010 0.207014 0.165095 781 616 6.3% 1.23 [0.89 , 1.70] Glasgow 1993 0.215111 0.223338 243 301 4.8% 1.24 [0.80 , 1.92] Halpern 2015* 0.329304 0.372898 1017 234 1.39 [0.67 , 2.89] Halpern 2015^b 0.858662 0.362832 1053 234 2.6% 2.36 [1.16, 4.81] 1.342865 0.484054 2406 1588 3.83 [1.48, 9.89] Halpern 2018 Higgins 2023 -1 1.048433 42 0.37 [0.05, 2.87] Hofmeyr 2020 0.307485 0.738238 1.36 [0.32 , 5.78] 259 1.26 [0.78, 2.03] Jason 1995 0.231112 0.242749 4.4% Ladapo 2020 0.900161 0.362968 65 72 2.48 [1.21, 5.01] Lasser 2017 1.646734 0.534823 175 5.19 [1.82 , 14.81] Ledgerwood 2014 0.058269 1.07815 17 0.4% 1.06 [0.13, 8.77] Medenblik 2020 0.076961 0.838076 13 21 1.08 [0.21, 5.58] 0.6% Pisinger 2022d 0.122218 0.226357 295 580 4.8% 1.13 [0.73 , 1.76] Rand 1989 2.50 [0.11 , 56.90] 0.916291 1.594411 Rettia 2018 1.686399 1.44355 19 11 0.2% 5.40 [0.32, 91.44] Rohsenow 2015 -0.116534 0.690101 0.89 [0.23, 3.44] Rohsenow 2017 1.95 [0.50 , 7.64] 0.667829 0.696892 172 168 47 Romanowich 2015 -0.494298 0.453686 0.61 [0.25, 1.48] Secades-Villa 2014 49 1.49 [0.82 , 2.70] 0.398776 0.304011 43 3.3% 3.0% Secades-Villa 2019at 0.548121 0.332228 60 1.73 [0.90 , 3.32] Secades-Villa 2022 0.300105 0.974764 46 1.35 [0.20, 9.12] Shoptaw 2002 -0.693147 0.830179 42 0.6% 0.50 [0.10, 2.54] Shoptaw 2002® -0.798508 1.21865 43 43 0.3% 0.45 [0.04 , 4.90] Tevyaw 2009 -1.108663 1.110607 55 55 0.4% 0.33 [0.04, 2.91] Van den Brand 2018 0.438255 0.12482 1.55 [1.21, 1.98] Van Schayck 2018 0.947789 0.201274 320 320 5.3% 2.58 [1.74, 3.83] Volpp 2006 0.350657 0.630786 1.42 [0.41, 4.89] Volpp 2009 0.955511 0.287067 436 442 2.60 [1.48, 4.56] White 2013 0.854415 0.268367 2.35 [1.39, 3.98] White 2020 0.559616 0.237436 3746 223 4.5% 1.75 [1.10 , 2.79] Wilson 2023 0.524729 0.70995 63 64 0.8% 1.69 [0.42 , 6.80] Windsor 1988 0.5913 95 1.2% 0.83 [0.26 , 2.64] -0.18633Windsor 1988 -0.634878 0.384832 2.4% 0.53 [0.25 , 1.13] Total 8690 100.0% 1.57 [1.37, 1.79] Test for overall effect: Z = 6.60 (P < 0.00001)0.01 0.1 Test for subgroup differences: Not applicable Favours no incentives Favours incentives Heterogeneity: Tau2 = 0.05; Chi2 = 64.09, df = 45 (P = 0.03); I2 = 30%

Risk of bias





Amount of incentives





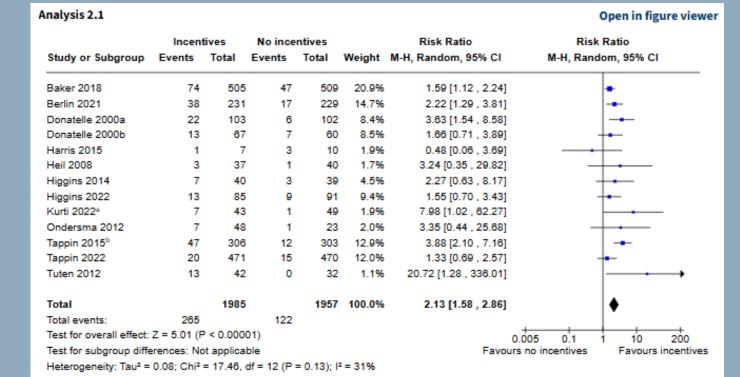
Pause for questions and discussion



Main results:
Incentives vs.
no incentives at
Longest follow up Pregnancy
trials

GRADE certainty of evidence:

New



Footnotes

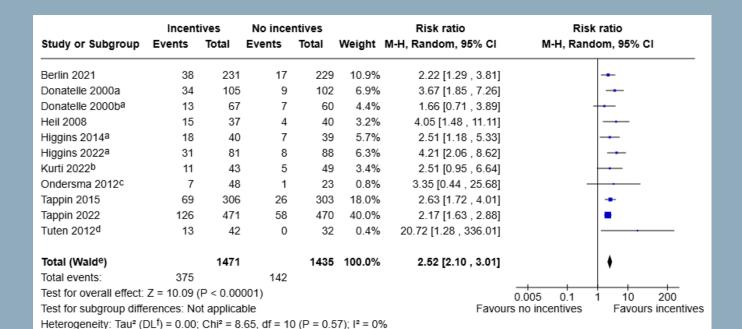
"Numbers interpreted from a figure, not reported in text

Comparison 2: Incentives for smoking cessation: pregnant people, Outcome 1: Smoking cessation at longest follow-up



b12 months post-target quit date

Main results: Incentives vs. no incentives at End of pregnancy



Footnotes

aExtrapolated from %

bNumbers interpreted from a figure, not reported in text

cResults reported only to end of 10-week programme (end of pregnancy)

dResults reported only to end of 12-week programme (end of pregnancy)

eCl calculated by Wald-type method.

fTau2 calculated by DerSimonian and Laird method.



Conclusions

- 1. High-certainty evidence that incentives improve smoking cessation rates at long-term follow-up in mixed population studies
- 2. Effectiveness of incentives is sustained even when the last follow-up occurs after the withdrawal of incentives
- 3. High-certainty evidence that incentive schemes conducted amongst pregnant people who smoke improve smoking cessation rates, both at the end of pregnancy and postpartum
 - This represents increased certainty in the evidence compared to the last review update in 2019



Implications

This review includes a number of large new trials from diverse cultural settings, e.g.

- Brown (2019) using self-incentives in a community-based trial, UK, N=159
- Secades-Villa 2019a recruiting people who smoke in inpatient treatment for depression, Spain, N=120
- Van-Schayck 2018 cRCT N=640 current smokers recruited from 61 companies in the Netherlands
- White 2020 cRCT recruiting 4190 employees across 101 workplace clusters in Thailand
- Tappin 2022 944 pregnant people attending UK stop smoking services

....suggesting that the impact of incentives can be considered broadly generalisable Incentives may particularly appeal to low-income populations, thus reducing health inequity

More evidence is needed from low- and middle-income countries

Current and future research might more precisely explore differences between trials offering low or high cash incentives and self-incentives (deposits)

