

CrossMa

Available online at www.sciencedirect.com



Comprehensive Psychiatry 55 (2014) 1609-1613

COMPREHENSIVE PSYCHIATRY

www.elsevier.com/locate/comppsych

The role of impulsivity in dropout from treatment for cigarette smoking

F. López-Torrecillas^{a,b,d,*}, A. Nieto-Ruiz^c, S. Velasco-Ortuño^c, M. Lara-Fernández^d, E.M. López-Quirantes^{a,b,d}, E. Castillo-Fernández^{a,b,d}

^aDepartment of Personality, Assessment and Psychological Treatment, University of Granada, Granada, Spain ^bCenter Research Mind Brain and Behavior (CIMCYC), Granada, Spain

^cFederico Olóriz Neuroscience Institute, University of Granada, Granada, Spain

^dOccupational Medicine Area (Prevention Service), University of Granada, Granada, Spain

Abstract

Impulsivity is a variable that has been associated with drug use. This study analyzes impulsivity from two different paradigms, one considering it as a trait and the other based on its behavioral correlates, such as disinhibition and impulsive decision-making in the treatment prognosis (maintain abstinence, relapse and dropout) of smokers after outpatient treatment. The participants in the study were 113 smokers who requested treatment for nicotine addiction. They were assigned to three groups according to whether or not they remained abstinent one month after beginning treatment; thus, group 1 was abstinent, group 2 had relapsed, and group 3 had dropped out of treatment. The participants filled out the *Semi-structured Interview for Smokers*, the *Fargerström Test for Nicotine Dependence*, the *Temperament and Character Inventory-Revised* (TCI-R) and the *Delay Discounting Task* (DDT). The *Delay Discounting* variable presents lower scores in the dropout group than in the relapse and abstinent groups, with the highest scores in the relapse group. Differences were also found on the *Harm Avoidance* (HA) variable, with lower scores in the dropout group compared to the relapse group. The importance of these results lies in the consideration of the smoker's personality profile in order to prevent both dropout and relapse.

© 2014 The Authors. Published by Elsevier Inc. This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC-ND license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/3.0/).

1. Introduction

Impulsivity is one of the variables most consistently linked to drug addiction [5,10,11,17,23,29,34,35]. Traditionally, impulsivity has been understood as a personality trait that involves quick reward seeking when presented with environmental stimuli, without considering the negative consequences of the behavior [2], and it has been evaluated by various questionnaires (Barrat Impulsiveness Scale [28]; Adjective Checklist [14]; Eysenck Personality Inventory [13]; Sensation Seeking Scale [40] and Cloninger Tridimensional Personality Questionnaire [1,6]). Recently, clinical neuroscience studies have analyzed impulsivity from paradigms that evaluate its behavioral correlates, such as disinhibition and impulsive decision-making [3,22]. Specifically, the delay discounting paradigm has shown that impulsive decisions can be evaluated simply and effectively in diverse addictive behaviors [18]. Delay discounting operatively describes how quickly rewards lose their value as the delay in receiving them increases, and it also explains how the long-term consequences of a behavior lose their ability to control said behavior.

Studies [18,26,33] that explore the relationship between impulsivity and nicotine addiction based on this paradigm have used a delay discounting task (DDT). This task presents different trials where one has to select options with a relative value (an immediate reward versus a delayed one); that is, participants can choose to obtain a large amount of money after a period of time (delay) or a small amount immediately. Results have consistently shown that smokers usually present impulsive tendencies, with this factor being responsible for the inability to stop smoking and for increasing the probability of relapse [27,39].

The purpose of the present study was to analyze impulsivity from two different paradigms, one considering it as a trait, and the other based on its behavioral correlates, such as disinhibition and impulsive decision-making, in the treatment prognosis (maintain abstinence, relapse and dropout) to quit smoking.

http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.comppsych.2014.06.004

0010-440X/© 2014 The Authors. Published by Elsevier Inc. This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC-ND license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/3.0/).

^{*} Corresponding author at: Departamento de Personalidad, Evaluación y Tratamiento Psicológico, Universidad de Granada, Campus de Cartuja, 18071, Granada, Spain. Tel.: +34 654053842.

E-mail address: fcalopez@ugr.es (F. López-Torrecillas).

2. Methods

2.1. Participants

The participants in the study were 113 cigarette smokers who requested treatment in the nicotine dishabituation treatment program of the Occupational Medicine Area (Prevention Service) at the University of Granada. The service includes a smoking clinic, managed by two physicians and one psychologist, who provide specialized pharmacological (i.e., varenicline) and counselling (cognitive behavioral therapy + relapse prevention) treatment for smoking cessation between September 2009 and September 2012 (across 2 years). The inclusion criteria consisted of: being 18 years of age or older, having an employment contract with the University of Granada, wanting to voluntarily participate in the treatment, and correctly filling out the pretreatment evaluation measures. The exclusion criteria were: the presence of a serious diagnosed mental disorder (bipolar and/or psychotic disorder, etc.), concurrent dependence on other substances (cocaine, heroin, alcohol, etc.), and regularly taking medications that are incompatible with the pharmacological treatment used in the therapy. Participants were informed about the aims of the study and provided signed informed consent. Ethical approval for this survey was obtained by the Ethics Committee, Research University of Granada, Spain.

The participants were assigned to three different groups depending on whether they remained abstinent one month after the treatment began. Thus, group 1 was abstinent (n = 69), group 2 had relapsed (n = 20), and group 3 had dropped out of treatment (n = 24). The groups were balanced on age, sex, educational level and career, years of addiction to tobacco, number of cigarettes smoked daily, score on the Fagerström Test, and brand of tobacco (see Table 1).

2.2. Procedure

At the beginning of the program, an initial evaluation of the smokers was performed in one session in which the instruments described below were administered. All of the smokers gave their informed consent to participate in the study.

The program combines cognitive-behavioral and pharmacological (varenicline) treatments. The abstinence rates are determined by means of a patient self-report and confirmed by the levels of CO on the CO-oximeter.

2.3. Instruments

2.3.1. Semi-structured interview for smokers [21]

This survey provides information about socio-demographic data, family history, number of years of addiction, brand of cigarettes and level of dependence.

2.3.2. Fargerström Test for Nicotine Dependence [16]

This test is composed of 6 items with two or four response alternatives. Its factorial structure is consistent [8], and there is a Spanish version of the test [4].

Table	1
raute	- 1

Baseline	demographic	variables	and	variables	related	to	participants
cigarette	smoking.						

Factor	Groups				
	Abstinence	Relapse	Dropout		
Age of the respondents	45.6 (8.8)	48.7 (6.1)	48.4 (7.9)		
(mean and SD)					
Gender (N)					
Male	29	8	8		
Female	40	12	16		
Education (N)					
Elementary School	15	3	6		
Secondary School	1	1	1		
Bachelor	14	4	6		
Associate Degree	12	1	6		
College Degree	15	7	4		
Ph.D.	12	4	1		
Career (N)					
Janitorial	11	2	4		
Administrative and	44	12	17		
Service Personnel					
Teachers	12	5	3		
Researchers	2	1	0		
Years of tobacco addiction (mean and SD)	27.0 (10.6)	30.6 (7.7)	30.3 (9.5)		
Number of daily cigarettes (mean and SD)	18.6 (9.0)	22.0 (8.1)	21.0 (10.6)		
Score Test Fagerström	4.4 (2.5)	5.0 (2.7)	4.5 (2.0)		
(mean and SD)	. ,				
Cigarette Brand (N)					
Virginia Tobacco	57	17	18		
Dark Tobacco	7	2	4		
Rolling	5	1	2		

2.3.3. Temperament and Character Inventory Revised (TCI-R) [7]

This questionnaire consists of 240 items (5 of them on validity), responded to on a 5-point Likert-type scale, and grouped in 4 temperament dimensions [Novelty Seeking (NS); Harm Avoidance (HA); Dependence on Reward (DR) and Persistence (P)] and 3 character dimensions [Self-directedness (SD); Cooperativeness (C) and Self-transcendence (ST)]. It has been validated in a general Spanish population [15] and has satisfactory psychometric properties [30].

2.3.4. Delay Discounting Task (DDT) [20]

This is a delay discounting task that consists of 27 dichotomous-choice items. Participants have to choose between a smaller more immediate reward and a larger reward with a temporal delay. Previous studies using real rewards have shown a magnitude effect on discount rates, so that people's discount rates typically decrease as the amount of the reward increases.

3. Results

Two Univariate Analyses of Variance (ANOVAs) were performed for a between-groups unifactorial design, using the group variables (maintain abstinence, relapse and dropout) as factors. Moreover, in the first case, the temperament and character variables from the TCI-R (*NS*, *HA*, *DR*, *P*, *SD*, *C* and *ST*) were used as dependent variables. These ANOVAs showed statistically significant differences on *HA* (F = 3.286; Mce = 898.587; p = 0.041). In the second case, the dependent variable used was impulsivity (*DDT*), and this ANOVA showed statistically significant differences (F = 5.762; Mce = 0.313; p = 0.004) (see Table 2).

The results of the "post hoc" multiple comparison tests for the three groups (Tukey) can be seen in Table 2, which only presents the subjects' comparison data for the *DDT* and *HA* variables. On the *HA* variable, lower scores were obtained for the dropout group than for the relapse group. In the second case, for the *DDT* variable, lower scores were found for the dropout group than for the relapse and maintain abstinence groups, with the highest scores in the relapse group.

4. Discussion and conclusions

Behavioral impulsivity paradigms vary widely, and studies using these measures have typically relied on a single measure used in isolation. As a result, comparisons of measures are difficult, with little consensus about which method might be most sensitive to individual impulsivity differences in populations addicted to smoking tobacco.

The data obtained in the present study shows that the DDT variable presents lower scores in the dropout group than in the relapse and maintain abstinence groups, with the highest scores in the relapse group. Although no study has compared the differences in impulsivity in the treatment of nicotine addiction, our results are consistent with those obtained by other studies [18,26,27,33,39] that emphasize the multidimensional role of impulsivity in smoking and the delay discounting task as a useful measure of impulsive decision-making. Such cross-sectional findings do not address the question of whether high rates of delay discounting predict future smoking addition or whether smoking itself may increase the rate of the delay discounting.

Our study has shown that higher rates of delay discounting were associated with a smoking relapse and a continued cigarette use. This finding indicates that high rates of delay discounting predate substantial use of nicotine in a high-risk of relapse after a stop smoking treatment. These findings provide support for the hypothesis that high rates of delay discounting may influence a relapse after a quit smoking treatment, and the maintenance of cigarette smoking.

Differences are found on the HA variable, with lower scores in the dropout group than in the relapse group. These findings are also in line with former studies [17,23,29,34,35] that found that cocaine users scored lower on harm avoidance, a variable frequently associated with addictive behavior. In agreement with Cloninger [6], this variable is defined in terms of individual differences in associative learning in response to harm or punishment, and it involves automatic responses to emotional stimuli (fear, anger, etc.). Therefore, it is understood as the tendency to respond intensely to adverse signals and stimuli, so that it tends to inhibit the behavior in order to avoid punishment, uncertainty and frustration, and it is closely related to chronic pain [25].

There has been a considerable degree of research on the association between TCI dimensions and smoking. Many studies have reported that NS is associated with various components of smoking behavior, including tobacco-use initiation, smoking status, and the severity of nicotine dependence [9,12,24,31,32,36]. HA have been reported to be modestly associated with smoking initiation and the severity of nicotine dependence in some studies [37,38]. However, in our study HA has been reported to be associated negatively with tobacco dependence. Given that there is a link between temperament scores on the TCI and various smoking addition characteristics, it is possible that smokers with different temperaments may show different patterns of acute tobacco withdrawal. Cloninger's theory is especially relevant to smoking addition for several reasons. First, the behaviors assessed in TCI dimensions (e.g. impulsivity, intolerance of uncertainty) are conceptually relevant to the initiation and maintenance of nicotine dependence. Indeed, dopaminergic and serotonergic systems, which are related to

Table 2

Mean, standard deviation, significance level and "post hoc" multiple comparison tests for the three groups (Tukey) (abstinence, relapse and dropout) in the variables analyzed.

Factor	Groups			F	Eta	p-Tukey
	Abstinence Mean (SD)	Relapse Mean (SD)	Dropout Mean (SD)			
Harm Avoidance (HA)	99.9 (16.5)	105.4 (18.0)	91.7 (15.0)	3.286*	0.061	2 > 3*
Dependence on Reward (RD)	105.3 (15.9)	105.3 (16.0)	107.8 (13.7)	0.191		
Persistence (PS)	115.5 (17.4)	109.8 (17.3)	116.4 (15.1)	0.989		
Self-Directedness (SD)	141.1 (17.6)	144.4 (19.9)	152.4 (19.9)	2.551		
Cooperativeness (C)	143.3 (13.2)	142.2 (16.0)	147.1 (13.0)	0.667		
Self-Transcendence (ST)	69.1 (17.2)	61.0 (14.4)	64.9 (15.0)	2.031		
Delay Discounting Task (DDT)	0.49 (0.24)	0.54 (0.17)	0.33 (0.25)	5.762**	0.095	1 < 2 > 3**

p < .05; **p < .01.

(HA), in our study have been involved in smoking relapse, this is in line with other results found involvement in nicotine withdrawal [19].

Based on research on drug addiction, in agreement with other authors [3], the relationship between impulsivity and addiction consists of two separate but interacting systems in the control of decision-making. One of them is the impulsive system, located in the amygdala, whose function is to indicate the pain or pleasure of immediate prospects; the other is the reflexive system, based in the prefrontal cortex, whose function is to signal the pain/pleasure of future prospects.

One limitation of our study is that all the participants were employees of the University of Granada and had homogeneous socio-demographic characteristics (for example, all were employed), which makes it difficult to generalize our results to the general population. However, these considerations affect other intervention areas in quit-smoking treatment, as impulsivity (DDT) and HA are related to treatment dropout and relapse. These results indicate that smokers who dropout and relapse respond inversely to those who remain abstinent; in other words, they do not inhibit behavior when they should, and they inhibit behavior when they do not have to. In conclusion, the data from the present study suggest that we have to take the smoker's personality profile into account when designing intervention strategies for quitting smoking, in order to prevent both dropout and relapse. It is also important to consider findings from studies linking these variables with neuropsychological functions and include this neuropsychological perspective in assessments and intervention programs to quit smoking.

References

- Ando J, Ono Y, Yoshimura K, Onoda N, Shinohara M, Kanba S, et al. The genetic structure of Cloninger's seven-factor model of temperament and character in a Japanese sample. J Pers 2002;70:583-609.
- [2] Barratt ES. Impulsiveness and aggression. In: Monahan J, & Steadman HJ, editors. Violence and mental disorder: developments in risk assessment. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press; 1994. p. 61-79.
- [3] Bechara A, Van Der Linden M. Decision-making and impulse control after frontal lobe injuries. Curr Opin Neurol 2005;8:734-9.
- [4] Becoña E, Vázquez FL. The Fagerström test for nicotine dependence in a Spanish sample. Psychol Rep 1998;83:1455-8.
- [5] Chakroun N, Doron J, Swendsen J. Substance use, affective problems and personality traits: test of two association models. Encephale 2004;30:564-9.
- [6] Cloninger CR. A systematic method for clinical description and classification of personality variants. Arch Gen Psychiatry 1987;44:573-88.
- [7] Cloninger CR, Svrakic DM, Pryzbeck TR. A psychobiological model of temperament and characters. Arch Gen Psychiatry 1993;50:975-90.
- [8] De Leon J, Becoña E, Gurpegui M, González-Pinto A, Diaz FJ. The association between high nicotine dependence and severe mental illness may be consistent across countries. J Clin Psychiatry 2002;63:812-6.
- [9] Downey KK, Pomerleau CS, Pomerleau OF. Personality differences related to smoking and adult attention deficit hyperactivity disorder. J Subst Abuse 1996;8:129-35.
- [10] Ebstein RP, Novick O, Umansky R, Priel B, Osher Y, Blaine D, et al. Dopamine D4 receptor (D4DR) exon III polymorphi associated with the human personality trait of Novelty Seeking. Nat Genet 1996;12:78-80.

- [11] Ebstein RP, Segman R, Benjamin J, Osher Y, Nemanov L, Belmaker RH. 5-HT2C (HTR2C) serotonin receptor gene polymorphism associated with the human personality trait of reward dependence: interaction with dopamine D4 receptor (D4DR) and dopamine D3 receptor (D3DR) polymorphisms. Am J Med Genet 1997;74:65-72.
- [12] Etter JF, Pe' lissolo A, Pomerleau C, De Saint-Hilaire Z. Associations between smoking and heritable temperament traits. Nicotine Tob Res 2003;5:401-9.
- [13] Eysenck HJ, Eysenck BG. Eysenck personality inventory. Educational and industrial testing services. Calif: San Diego; 1968.
- [14] Gough HG, Heilbrun AB. The adjective checklist manual. Consulting psychologists press. Calif: Palo Alto; 1983.
- [15] Gutiérrez-Zotes JA, Bayón C, Montserrat C, Valero J, Labad A, Cloninger C, et al. Inventario del Temperamento y el Carácter-Revisado (TCI-R). Baremación y datos normativos en una muestra de población general. Actas Esp de Psiquiatr 2004;32:8-15.
- [16] Heatherton TF, Kozlowski LT, Frecker RC, Fagerstrom K. The Fagerstrom test for nicotine dependence: A revision of the Fagerstrom Tolerance Questionnaire. Br J Addic 1991;86:1119-27.
- [17] Jakubczyk A, Klimkiewicz A, Brower K, Bugaj M, Sadowska-Mazuryk J, Topolewska-Wochowska A, et al. P-43 – Impulsivity and risky behaviors in alcohol dependence. Eur Psychiatry 2012;27:1756-7.
- [18] Johnson MW, Bickel WK, Baker F. Moderate drug use and delay discounting: A comparison of heavy, light, and never smokers. Exp Clin Psychopharmacol 2007;15:187-94.
- [19] Kenny PJ, Markou A. Neurobiology of the nicotine withdrawal syndrome. Pharmacol Biochem Behav 2001;70:531-49.
- [20] Kirby KN, Petry NM, Bickel WK. Heroin addicts have higher discount rates for delayed rewards than non drug-using controls. J Exp Psychol Gen 1999;128:78-87.
- [21] López-Torrecillas F. Estrés, afrontamiento, variables de personalidad y consumo de drogas. [Tesis doctoral]. Universidad de Granada; 1995.
- [22] Madden GJ, Petry NM, Johnson PS. Pathological gamblers discount probabilistic rewards less steeply than matched controls. Exp Clin Psychopharmacol 2009;17:283-90.
- [23] Marin-Mayor M, Verdura-Vizcaino E, Codesal RA, Lopez-Alvarez J, Rubio-Valladolid G. 2015 Impulsivity and stress as risk factors for the development of alcohol dependence. Eur Psychiatry 2013;28:1.
- [24] Ma' sse LC, Tremblay RE. Behavior of boys in kindergarten and the onset of substance use during adolescence. Arch Gen Psychiatry 1997;54:62-8.
- [25] Mazza M, Mazza O, Pomponi M, Di Nicola M, Padua L, Vicini M, et al. What is the effect of selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors on temperament and character in patients with fibromyalgia? Compr Psychiatry 2009;50:240-4.
- [26] Mitchell SH, Wilson VB. Differences in delay discounting between smokers and nonsmokers remain when both rewards are delayed. Psychopharmacology (Berl) 2012;219:549-62.
- [27] Mueller ET, Landes RD, Kowal BP, Yi R, Stitzer ML, Burnett CA, et al. Delay of smoking gratification as a laboratory model of relapse: Effects of incentives for not smoking, and relationship with measures of executive function. Behav Pharmacol 2009;20:461-73.
- [28] Patton JH, Stanford MS, Barratt ES. Factor structure of the Barratt Impulsiveness Scale. J Clin Psychol 1995;51:768-74.
- [29] Pedrero EJ. TCI-140 propiedades psicométricas, relación con el TCI-R y con variables de personalidad. Estudio de una muestra de adictos en tratamiento. Trastor Adict 2006;8:155-67.
- [30] Pelissolo A, Mallet L, Baleyte JM, Michel G, Cloninger CR, Allilaire JF, et al. The Temperament and Character Inventory-Revised (TCI-R): psychometric characteristics of the French version. Acta Psychiatr Scand 2005;112:126-33.
- [31] Pomerleau CS, Pomerleau OF, Flessland KA, Basson SM. Relationship of tridimensional personality questionnaire scores and smoking variables in female and male smokers. J Subst Abuse 1992;4:143-54.
- [32] Ravaja N, Keltikangas-Ja" rvinen K. Cloninger's temperament and character dimensions in young adulthood and their relation to characteristics of parental alcohol use and smoking. J Stud Alcohol 2001;62:98-104.

1613

- [33] Reynolds B, Richards JB, Horn K, Karraker K. Delay discounting and probability discounting as related to cigarette smoking status in adults. Behav Process 2004;65:35-42.
- [34] Roncero C, Daigre C, Gonzalvo B, Valero S, Castells X, Grau-López L, et al. Risk factors for cocaine-induced psychosis in cocaine-dependent patients. Eur Psychiatry 2013;28:141-6.
- [35] Tedeschi D, Martinotti G, Di Nicola M, De Vita O, Hatzigiakoumis DS, et al. Executive functions and impulsivity in alcohol dependence: focus on drinking behaviour. Eur Psychiatry 2013;28:1-2.
- [36] Van Ammers EC, Sellman JD, Mulder RT. Temperament and substance abuse in schizophrenia: is there a relationship? J Nerv Ment Dis 1997;185:283-8.
- [37] Wills TA, Vaccaro D, McNamara G. Novelty seeking, risk taking, and related constructs as predictors of adolescent substance use: an application of Cloninger's theory. J Subst Abuse 1994;6:1-20.
- [38] Wills TA, Cleary SD. Peer and adolescent substance use among 6th–9th graders: latent growth analyses of influence versus selection mechanisms. Health Psychol 1999;18:453-63.
- [39] Yoon JH, Higgins ST, Heil SH, Sugarbaker RJ, Thomas CS, Bader GJ. Delay discounting predicts postpartum relapse to cigarette smoking among pregnant women. Exp Clin Psychopharmacol 2007;15:176-86.
- [40] Zuckerman M. Dimensions of sensation seeking. J Consult Clin Psychol 1971;36:45-52.