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How Do Electronic Cigarettes Affect Cravings to Smoke or Vape? Parsing the Influences of
Nicotine and Expectancies Using the Balanced-Placebo Design

Abstract

Objective: Although electronic cigarettes (e-cigarettes) are frequently initiated for smoking cessation, results from the first two clinical trials testing this suggest that the perceived benefits of vaping may be influenced by non-nicotine factors, including cognitive outcome expectancies. The current study investigated the separate and combined effects of nicotine delivery and outcome expectancies on cravings for cigarettes and e-cigarettes using a balanced-placebo experiment. **Method:** Drug dosage (contains nicotine or not) was crossed with instructional set (told nicotine or non-nicotine) during ad-lib e-cigarette use sessions by 128 current e-cigarette users (52 identifying as current cigarette smokers, or “dual users”). It was hypothesized that reduction in craving for both cigarettes and e-cigarettes following e-cigarette administration would be driven primarily by the instructional set manipulation, reflecting the influence of outcome expectancies. **Results:** As hypothesized, among dual users, a main effect of instructional set emerged on reductions in craving to smoke cigarettes, with participants who were told that their e-cigarette contained nicotine reporting greater craving reduction ($p = .046$). With respect to reduced cravings for e-cigarettes, we found an interaction between drug dose and instructional set ($p = .02$) such that nicotine e-cigarettes reduced cravings more than non-nicotine e-cigarettes only among participants told to expect nicotine. **Conclusions:** Findings suggest that cognitive expectancies contribute to the acute effects of e-cigarettes on craving, which may provide guidance for their potential as smoking cessation aids.

Keywords: e-cigarette, cigarette, smoking, expectancies, balanced-placebo, nicotine

Public Health Impact: This study demonstrated that use of an electronic cigarette may reduce nicotine craving (i.e., desire to smoke or vape) via nonpharmacological routes, including beliefs about nicotine, rather than simply via nicotine delivery itself. This finding has implications for understanding e-cigarette use as well as its potential as a smoking cessation aid.

1 Recently, there has been a shift in the landscape of tobacco use with the introduction of
2 novel products such as electronic cigarettes (e-cigarettes), which are portable, battery-powered
3 devices containing a heating element that aerosolizes a liquid solution. Using e-cigarettes is often
4 referred to as “vaping,” and users may self-identify as “vapers.” It has been estimated that 2.4%
5 of US adults use e-cigarettes regularly, with the vast majority being current or former smokers
6 (Zhu, Zhuang, Wong, Cummins, & Tedeschi, 2017). Vapers report that their primary reason for
7 using e-cigarettes is to quit or reduce smoking of traditional, combustible cigarettes (e.g., Siegel,
8 Tanwar, & Wood, 2011). To date, only two double-blind randomized controlled trials (RCTs) of
9 e-cigarettes for smoking cessation have been published. One study (Bullen et al., 2013) randomly
10 assigned transdermal nicotine patches, nicotine e-cigarettes, and placebo (non-nicotine) e-
11 cigarettes to participants interested in quitting smoking. Another trial (Caponnetto et al., 2013)
12 randomized non-treatment seeking participants to receive one of two nicotine doses or placebo e-
13 cigarettes. Although both trials indicated that e-cigarettes were effective in promoting smoking
14 reduction or cessation, no significant differences were found based on nicotine content.

15 Cravings to use a drug are often considered the final common pathway in theoretical
16 models of drug use motivation (Baker, Morse, & Sherman, 1986). In the case of tobacco
17 smoking, the FDA-approved medications (NRTs, bupropion, and varenicline) have all been
18 shown to reduce cue- and abstinence-induced cravings to smoke in laboratory paradigms
19 (Ferguson & Shiffman, 2009). In addition, research has found that e-cigarette use reduces
20 cravings to smoke and to vape, with mixed evidence regarding the role of nicotine per se
21 (Dawkins, Turner, Hasna, & Soar, 2012; Perkins, Karelitz, & Michael, 2017). There is also
22 some evidence that the sensorimotor aspects of vaping (i.e., its similarity to smoking behavior)
23 contributes to craving reduction (Van Heel, Van Gucht, Vanbrabant, & Baeyens, 2017).

24 Drug use and addictive behaviors may also be influenced by outcome expectancies,

25 which are learned, cognitive intervening variables. Drug-related expectancies refer to the degree
26 that individuals expect positive and negative outcomes from drug use. Expectancies have been
27 predictive of initiation, maintenance, cessation, and relapse to alcohol, tobacco, and other
28 substances (Brandon, Juliano, & Copeland, 1999; Goldman, 1999). Research on expectancies
29 for e-cigarette use has been limited to survey data (e.g. Harrell, Marquinez et al., 2015).

30 Prior studies have indicated that expectancies can sometimes influence immediate drug
31 use behaviors and outcomes to a greater degree than drug dosage itself (Kirsch, 1985)—often
32 referred to as “the placebo effect.” This phenomenon has been studied through simultaneous
33 expectancy and pharmacological manipulation using the balanced-placebo design (BPD),
34 initially to study the effects of alcohol (Hull & Bond, 1986; Marlatt, Demming, & Reid, 1973),
35 and more recently with tobacco and NRT (Dar & Barrett, 2014; Juliano & Brandon, 2002). This
36 paradigm utilizes a 2x2 factorial design in which drug type (active or placebo) is crossed with
37 instructional set (told active or placebo). From this, the effects of both the pharmacologic
38 properties of the drug and expectancies about the drug can be independently evaluated as causal
39 influences. In general, the results from these studies demonstrate that active drug delivery
40 appears to have primary influence over physiological or objective domains, whereas drug
41 expectancies may influence more emotionally salient or subjective domains, such as craving.
42 These effects have been observed in both laboratory studies and more naturalistic field studies
43 (Dar & Barrett, 2014). Thus, the BPD can be used to test the independent and synergistic effects
44 of nicotine delivery and nicotine expectancies upon craving reduction.

45 The primary goal of the present study was to investigate the effects of nicotine and
46 expectancies on cravings to smoke and cravings to vape. Current e-cigarette users were
47 randomized to use e-cigarettes that contained either nicotine or non-nicotine solutions, and were

48 independently instructed that the e-cigarette contained nicotine or non-nicotine, resulting in four
49 experimental conditions as illustrated in Table 1. It was hypothesized that instructional set should
50 produce differences in craving reduction such that told nicotine would produce greater reduction
51 in craving than told no-nicotine, reflecting the role of nicotine-related expectancies. There were
52 no a priori hypotheses regarding main effects of nicotine content or interactions.

53 **Method**

54 **Participants**

55 Participants were 130 individuals recruited primarily from flyers at local vape shops
56 (Table 2). Participants were screened by telephone for the following eligibility criteria: 1) ≥ 18
57 years old; 2) Current e-cigarette users (daily nicotine solution use for ≥ 30 days); 3) History of
58 cigarette smoking (≥ 100 lifetime cigarettes; ≥ 1 cigarette/day for ≥ 30 days); 4) No current *e-*
59 *cigarette* cessation attempt; and 5) Not currently pregnant, attempting to get pregnant, or nursing.

60 **Experimental Procedure**

61 Eligible participants were asked to abstain from using e-cigarettes and combustible
62 cigarettes for three hours prior to the session. To increase adherence, participants were told that a
63 breath carbon monoxide (CO) reading would be administered. Upon arrival, research staff
64 obtained written informed consent, and then collected the CO sample ($M = 12.63$, $SD = 8.63$
65 ppm among smokers; $M = 6.00$, $SD = 4.21$ ppm among former smokers). Participants were then
66 randomized to condition and their e-cigarette solution prepared by a researcher with no
67 participant contact, ensuring a double blind for the drug manipulation. Randomization used a 4-
68 block pattern with stratification based on sex, cigarette smoking status (current [defined by
69 smoking >1 cigarette per week] or former), and flavor preference (tobacco, menthol, or fruit).

70 Participants completed demographic and baseline measures, followed by the first

71 administration of craving measures. Participants were then provided an e-cigarette with
72 instructions and labeling consistent with the instructional set conditions. They were instructed to
73 take at least 10 puffs over the 10 minute session. Following the ad-lib session, the craving
74 measures were re-administered. (Secondary outcome variables—affect, appetite, reinforcement,
75 and attention—were then collected and will be reported elsewhere.)

76 **Apparatus**

77 Participants were provided with an eGo-style 3.6-4.2 Volt, 1100 mAh battery with a 2.8-
78 Ohm, 510-style clearomizer. This device contained an LCD display showing number of puffs.
79 This e-cigarette style is considered “second generation,” which deliver nicotine more
80 consistently and are preferred among experienced vapers compared to first generation “cig-a-
81 like” styles (e.g., Dawkins, Kimber, Puwanesarasa, & Soar, 2015).

82 The solution used was a 50% vegetable glycerin (VG), 50% propylene glycol (PG)
83 liquid. Target nicotine content was either 0 mg/ml or 12 mg/ml, with the latter having produced
84 similar plasma nicotine concentrations (as measured in venous blood samples) as traditional
85 cigarettes (Ramôa et al., 2015). Participants were given the choice of tobacco, menthol, or fruit
86 flavors. This solution was a custom-made “research blend” (Avail Vapor, LLC). The solutions
87 were retested using mass spectrometry and liquid chromatography, which verified that the non-
88 nicotine solutions contained 0 mg/ml nicotine. Final concentrations of the nicotine solutions
89 were 11.2 mg/ml (tobacco), 10.3 mg/ml (menthol), and 10.0 mg/ml (fruit).

90 **Assessments**

91 *Baseline assessments.* Participants completed questionnaires capturing basic
92 demographic information, smoking and vaping history, and device preference. Dependence on e-
93 cigarettes was measured using the Penn State Electronic Cigarette Dependence Index (ECDI;

94 Foulds et al., 2014; $\alpha = 0.70$), whereas cigarette dependence was measured with the Fagerström
95 Test for Nicotine Dependence (FTND; Heatherton, Kozlowski, Frecker, & Fagerström, 1991; α
96 = 0.56 for current smokers).

97 ***Craving to smoke and craving to use e-cigarettes.*** A 3-item adaptation of the
98 Questionnaire of Smoking Urges-Brief (QSU; Cox, Tiffany, & Christen, 2001; Kozlowski,
99 Pillitteri, Sweeney, Whitfield, & Graham, 1996) was used to assess craving to smoke ($\alpha = 0.90 -$
100 0.95) and craving to vape ($\alpha = 0.91 - 0.94$). The items, assessing “desire,” “craving,” and
101 “wanting,” were rated 0-6, yielding scores from 0-24.

102 ***Nicotine dosing estimate.*** As a check on the instructional set manipulation, participants
103 completed a brief questionnaire post ad-lib session asking them to estimate the nicotine dose of
104 the provided e-cigarette (0mg/ml, 6mg/ml, 12 mg/ml, 18 mg/ml, or 24 mg/ml).

105 **Data Analysis Plan**

106 Factorial 2 X 2 analyses of variances (ANOVAs) and χ^2 tests were used to test for
107 baseline differences between factorial conditions (drug, instructional set). T-tests were used to
108 test for baseline differences by sex and smoking status. Next, 2 (drug) X 2 (instructional set) X 2
109 (sex) ANOVAs were used to test the main effects and interactions of the drug and instructional
110 set manipulations on pre-to-post changes in craving. Given previous sex differences found on
111 both general nicotine effects (Perkins, 1996) and e-cigarette outcome expectancies (Copp et al.,
112 2015; Piñeiro et al., 2016), sex was included as a third factor.

113 **RESULTS**

114 **Preliminary Analyses**

115 Two participants were removed (instructional non-compliance, incorrect randomization)
116 from final analyses $N (= 128)$. Drug X instructional set ANOVAs failed to reveal significant

117 differences between conditions on any demographic, baseline, pre-test variables, or puff count.
118 No differences were found between sexes on pre-ad-lib outcome variables. Current smokers and
119 former smokers were compared on several descriptive variables, as shown in Table 3.

120 **Craving Reduction**

121 *Cravings to smoke.* Among current smokers ($n = 52$), the hypothesized main effect of
122 instructional set was observed on change in craving to smoke as measured by the QSU, $F(1, 44)$
123 $= 4.21$, $p = .046$, $\eta^2 = 0.09$. Greater craving reduction was found among those told they received
124 nicotine ($M = 7.92$, $SD = 6.59$) than those told they did not receive nicotine ($M = 4.25$, $SD =$
125 5.31 ; see Table 4 and Figure 1). No main effect of drug was found, nor were there interactions
126 between instruction, drug, or sex.

127 *Craving to vape.* Using the full sample, no main effects of drug, instructional set, or sex
128 emerged, but a significant drug X instructional set interaction was found on craving to vape, F
129 $(1, 120) = 5.56$, $p = .020$, $\eta^2 = 0.04$ (see Figure 2). Post-hoc analyses revealed a significant effect
130 of nicotine dose only when participants were told to expect nicotine, $t(62) = -2.75$, $p = .008$, $d =$
131 $.69$. Additional paired-comparisons revealed that the True Positive group showed significantly
132 greater reductions in craving to vape than the Placebo group, $t(61) = -2.57$, $p = .013$, $d = .65$, and
133 the Anti-Placebo group, $t(62) = -2.75$, $p = .008$, $d = .69$, and marginally greater than the True
134 Negative group $t(63) = -1.96$, $p = .05$, $d = .49$.

135 **Nicotine Dosing Estimate**

136 A 2x2 ANOVA revealed main effects of both instruction ($F[1, 124] = 47.17$, $p < .001$)
137 and drug content ($F[1, 124] = 15.71$, $p < .001$) on estimated nicotine content. Told nicotine
138 produced higher nicotine estimates ($M = 10.98$, $SD = 6.64$ vs $M = 4.12$, $SD = 5.24$), as did actual
139 nicotine content ($M = 9.50$, $SD = 7.56$ vs $M = 5.50$, $SD = 5.47$).

140 To further explore the relationship between perceived nicotine dose and craving relief,
141 correlations between these variables were examined. Among smokers, higher nicotine dose
142 estimates were associated with greater cigarette craving reduction, $r(50) = .37, p = .007$. Among
143 the full sample, nicotine dose estimate was not associated with e-cigarette craving reduction, r
144 $(126) = .15, ns$.

145 DISCUSSION

146 This study aimed to address specific motivational factors involved with e-cigarette use,
147 primarily their immediate ability to ameliorate cravings. This study is, to our knowledge, the first
148 fully-crossed BPD conducted to parse the independent and synergistic influences of both nicotine
149 delivery and expectancies on craving-related outcomes of e-cigarette use.

150 Among dual users, the hypothesized main effect of instructional set was observed upon
151 reduction in cravings to smoke, which suggests that the craving reduction was driven by
152 participants' expectancies about the effects of nicotine rather than the pharmacological properties
153 of nicotine. The correlation between nicotine dosing estimate and craving reduction provides
154 further support for the role of expectancies. These results are consistent with contemporary
155 models and research indicating that drug delivery alone is insufficient for explaining drug
156 craving and its alleviation (e.g., Baker, Piper, McCarthy, Majeskie, & Fiore, 2004). Findings are
157 also consistent with previous BPDs with cigarettes (Juliano & Brandon, 2002), and with a non-
158 BPD study showing that nicotine instructional set influenced craving reduction following use of
159 nicotine-free e-cigarettes (Copp et al., 2015).

160 Notably, the main effect of instructional set rather than drug content is consistent with the
161 findings from the two extant clinical trials of e-cigarettes for smoking cessation, which both
162 failed to find statistically superior cessation outcomes from nicotine versus placebo products

163 (Bullen et al., 2013; Caponnetto et al., 2013), and it suggests that any therapeutic benefit of e-
164 cigarettes may derive, at least in part, from users' cognitive expectancies about them.

165 Whereas the findings on cravings to smoke address the potential of e-cigarettes as a
166 substitute for smoking, the effects upon cravings to vape address the maintenance of e-cigarette
167 use itself. Here no main effects were found, but an interaction was found between the two
168 experimental factors that indicated the greatest craving reduction when participants were
169 accurately told that they were receiving nicotine (i.e. True Positive). The contrast with the
170 findings on craving to smoke suggest that nicotine delivered via e-cigarettes may reduce cravings
171 for the same product, but it may not transfer to a different nicotine-delivery product, combustible
172 cigarettes.

173 The results of this study should be considered within the context of some methodological
174 limitations. Both instructional set and, to a lesser degree, actual nicotine dose were found to have
175 influenced participants' estimates of the dose they had received. The former finding indicates
176 that the instructional set manipulation was successful. The latter is not surprising, yet reflects a
177 common challenge with the BPD (Dar & Barrett, 2014) that must be considered when
178 interpreting BPD results. Although we collected puff count, additional topography or blood
179 nicotine measures would have provided more complete data on nicotine delivery. Several of the
180 measures used in this study were adapted from validated cigarette measures, but have not yet
181 been validated specifically for e-cigarettes. Inclusion of a behavioral outcome might have
182 enhanced the self-report findings. Additionally, it should be noted that the analysis of craving to
183 vape utilized a larger sample, which may have yielded more stable sample statistics with greater
184 power. Finally, the majority of participants used modifiable e-cigarette systems, which may
185 deliver nicotine more effectively than the standard device used in the study.

186 Emerging evidence suggests that e-cigarettes may be an effective tool for smoking
187 cessation (Zhu et al., 2017). The results of the present study suggest that nicotine delivery may
188 not be necessary for the acute management of cravings to smoke via vaping. Thus, the possibility
189 of further harm-reduction through the elimination or reduction of nicotine content without
190 sacrificing e-cigarettes' potential efficacy for smoking cessation is promising. Public health
191 campaigns and clinicians could endorse alternative expectancies about the benefits of vaping
192 upon cigarette craving, reducing the emphasis on nicotine per se. Moreover, in other domains,
193 placebo medications have retained their efficacy even after their content has been revealed to
194 patients (i.e., open-label placebo; Kaptchuk et al., 2010). Future studies should extend this line of
195 research beyond abstinence-induced craving to those induced by negative affect and conditioned
196 stimuli (i.e., "smoking triggers").

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Table 1. *Experimental design*

| Drug Content | Instructional Set | |
|---------------------|--|--|
| | <u>E-cigarette contains nicotine</u> | <u>E-cigarette does not contain nicotine</u> |
| <u>Nicotine</u> | True positive | False Negative, “Anti-Placebo” |
| <u>Non-Nicotine</u> | False positive, “Placebo” | True Negative |

Table 2. *Participant demographics (N=128)*

| Variable | Description | Mean (SD) or % |
|--------------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------|
| Age | (range 18-76) | 36.40 (13.79) |
| Sex | Female | 38% |
| Race | Black / African American | 12% |
| | White / European Origin | 83% |
| | Other | 6% |
| Ethnicity | Hispanic / Latino | 16% |
| Marital Status | Single | 60% |
| Sexual Orientation | Identify as LGBT+ | 13% |
| Education | High school or less | 25% |
| | Some College | 30% |
| | Tech School / Associate's | 29% |
| | 4-year College Degree or beyond | 16% |
| Income | Under \$10,000 | 22% |
| | \$10,000 - \$29,999 | 28% |
| | \$30,000 or more | 49% |

Note: No significant differences between conditions were found for any of the variables.

Table 3. *Smoking and vaping characteristics of the full sample, and broken down by current smokers (dual users) and former smokers.*

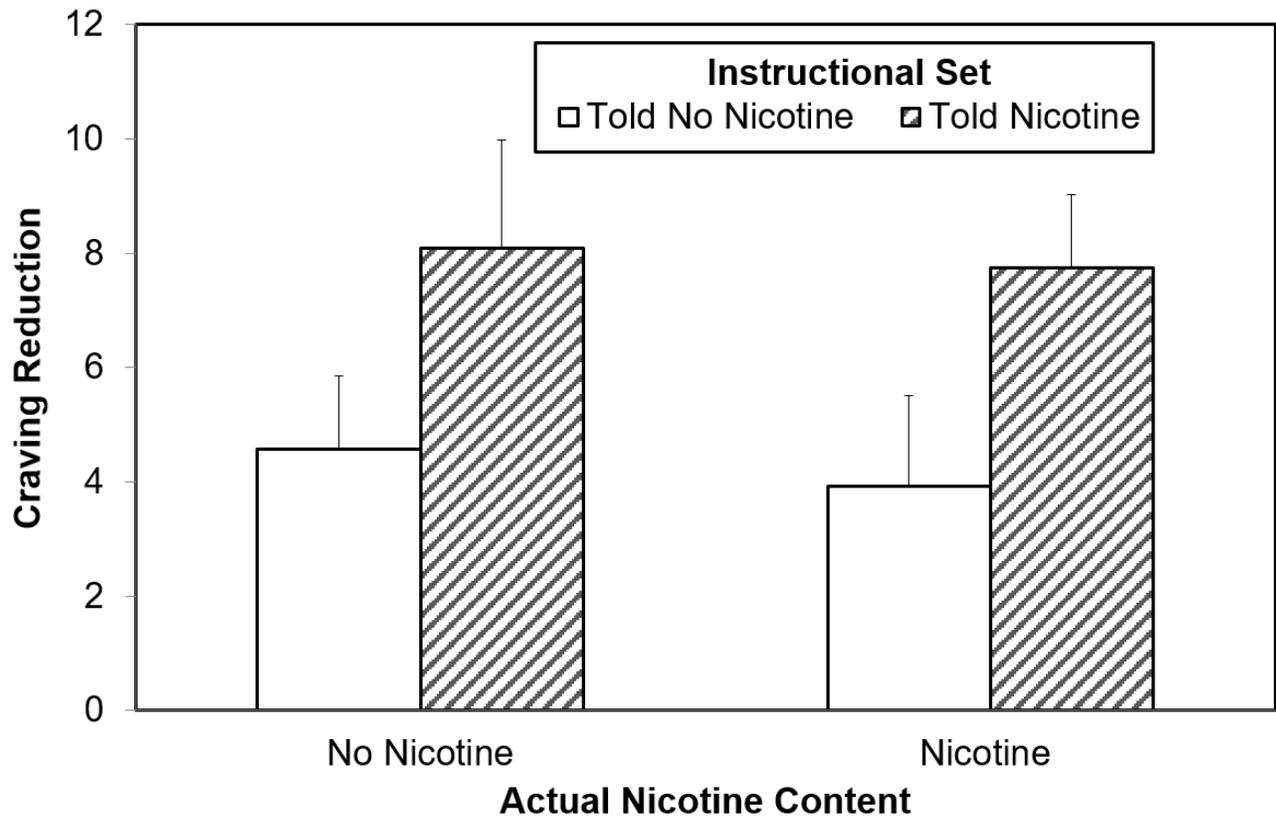
| Variable | | Full sample (N=128) | Current smokers (N=52) | Former smokers (N=76) | <i>p</i> |
|--|---|------------------------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|----------|
| Mean cigarettes per day on days smoked (SD) ¹ | | 13.33 (11.31) | 8.02 (8.57) | 16.96 (11.56) | <.001 |
| Mean days cigarettes smoked per week (SD) ¹ | | 6.01 (1.93) | 5.01 (2.35) | 6.70 (1.15) | <.001 |
| Mean number of daily e-cigarette uses (SD) | | 36.50 (53.36) | 26.66 (42.40) | 43.91 (59.60) | n.s |
| % reporting vaping continuously all day (SD) | | 47% | 35% | 66% | .001 |
| Personal device used ² : | Disposable, “cig-a-like” | 11% | 14% | 5% | n.s |
| | Refillable tank system | 9% | 14% | 11% | n.s |
| | Tank system with modifiable electric components | 66% | 52% | 75% | n.s |
| Mean nicotine content of solution in personal device (mg/ml) | | 8.80 (7.51) | 10.57 (8.07) | 7.71 (6.98) | .046 |
| Flavor used most often: | Tobacco | 11% | 17% | 7% | n.s |
| | Menthol | 21% | 21% | 21% | n.s |
| | Fruit | 41% | 40% | 42% | n.s |
| | Other (e.g. custard, dessert, beverages) | 23% | 12% | 30% | .013 |
| Reported e-cigarette initiation to quit smoking | | 68% | 50% | 80% | <.001 |
| Flavor requested for ad-lib session: | Tobacco | 12% | 17% | 8% | n.s |
| | Menthol | 25% | 25% | 25% | n.s |
| | Fruit | 63% | 58% | 67% | n.s |
| Mean EDCI | | 10.05 (4.66) | 8.44 (5.10) | 11.15 (4.00) | .001 |
| Mean FTND ¹ | | 4.50 (2.89) | 3.69 (3.28) | 5.05 (2.45) | .008 |

Notes: ¹Among former smokers, cigarette quantity, frequency, and dependence reflect reported levels prior to quitting smoking. ²Personal device used was coded from participants’ self-reported device brand/model. Above *p* values represent significant differences between current and former smokers. n.s = not significant. No significant differences were found between conditions on these variables. EDCI = Penn State Electronic Cigarette Dependence Inventory. FTND = Fagerström Test for Nicotine Dependence.

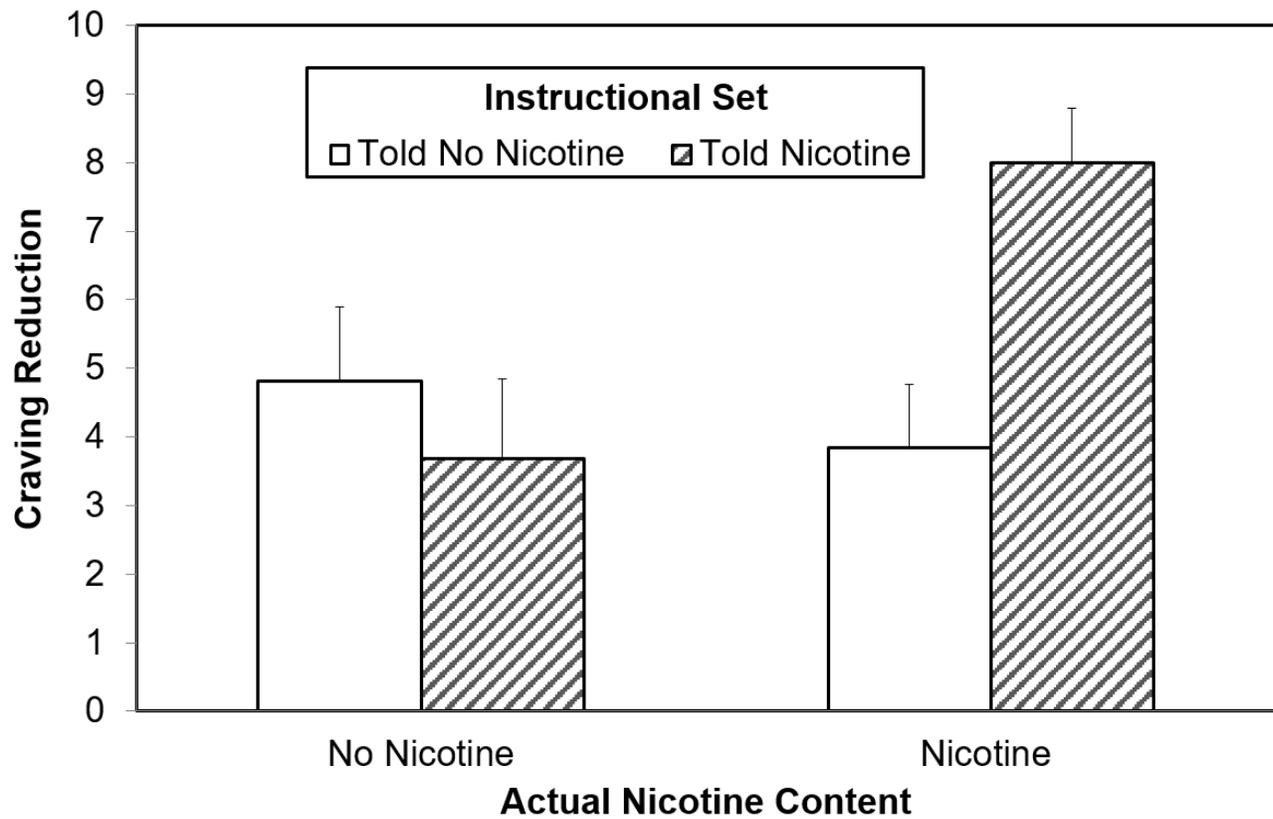
Table 4. *Manipulation Effects on Craving: Nicotine, Instruction, and Interactions*

| Variable | Condition means | | | | Marginal means Drug Content | | Marginal means Instructional Set | | F (Nicotine) | F (Instruction) | F (Nicotine X Instruction) |
|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|-------------------|------------------|--------------------------------|-------------|-------------------------------------|---------------------|-----------------|--------------------|----------------------------------|
| | True Positive | Placebo | Anti- Placebo | True Negative | Nicotine | No Nicotine | Told Nicotine | Told No Nicotine | | | |
| QSU- Smoke | 7.75 | 8.08 | 3.93 | 4.57 | 5.69 | 6.19 | 7.92 ^a | 4.25 ^a | 0.15 | 4.21* | 0.02 |
| Modified QSU-Vape | 8.00 ^{a,b} | 3.68 ^a | 3.84 ^b | 4.82 | 5.92 | 4.26 | 5.87 | 4.34 | 1.73 | 1.31 | 5.56* |

Notes: QSU = 3-item version of Questionnaire of Smoking Urges-Brief. Positive difference scores represent reductions in value from pre- to post-tests. * $p < .05$. Shared superscripts indicate significant differences in cell means: ^a = $p < .05$, ^b = $p < .01$.

Figure 1. Manipulation Effects on Desire to Smoke Among Current Smokers ($n = 52$)

Note: Main effect of instructional set significant at $p = .046$. Error bars are standard error of the mean.

Figure 2. Manipulation Effects on Desire to Vape Among Full Sample ($N = 128$)

Note: Interaction $p = .020$. Error bars are standard error of the mean.