Open Peer Review on Qeios

Correlates of Nicotine Dependence Among Current Cigarette Smokers in Nigeria

Afolabi Oyapero¹, Olufemi Erinoso², Moyosoore Osoba, Olatokunbo Osibogun³

1 Lagos State University Teaching Hospital

2 University of Nevada, Reno

3 FIU Robert Stempel College of Public Health and Social Work

Funding: No specific funding was received for this work.Potential competing interests: No potential competing interests to declare.

Abstract

Background: The level of dependence on nicotine, the main addictive chemical in tobacco, is a substance-related disorder that can be utilized to characterize diverse populations of cigarette smokers and also to determine the effectiveness of individualized smoking cessation intervention programs.

Aim: This study investigates the correlates of nicotine dependence among current established cigarette smokers in Nigeria.

Settings: We conducted a cross-sectional survey among a cohort of current established cigarette smokers (100+ sticks in a lifetime and someday/everyday cigarette smokers) in Lagos, Nigeria.

Methods: The dependent measure was nicotine dependence (ND) using the Fagerstrom scale; independent measures were demographics, harm perception, binge alcohol drinking, and past-year internalizing and externalizing problems. Logistic regression models were used to investigate factors associated with severe nicotine dependence.

Results: The analytic sample was drawn from 487 adults. Within our sample, 69%, 27%, and 3.9% had low, moderate, and severe ND levels, respectively (*p-value*: 0.02); while among daily cigarette smokers, 48.1%, 44.3%, and 7.6% had low, moderate and severe ND levels, respectively (*p-value*: <0.001). In the regression analysis, older age (aOR:1.03; 95% CI:1.01,1.06) and being male (vs, female) (aOR:3.70; 95% CI:1.58,8.15), and reduced cigarette harm perceptions (aOR:2.85; 95% CI: 1.75,4.66) were associated with increased odds of moderate/severe ND.

Conclusion: Older age, males, and those with reduced harm perceptions about cigarette use had increased odds of moderate/severe ND. Our preliminary findings provide baseline results characterizing use behaviors among relatively understudied current established cigarette smokers in Nigeria.

Contributions: All Authors were involved inConceptualization, Data Curation, Formal Analysis, Writing - Review and Editing and Project Administration.

Afolabi Oyapero^{1,2,*}, Olufemi Erinoso³, Moyosoore Osoba⁴, and Olatokunbo Osibogun⁵

¹Smoking Cessation Clinic, Lagos State University Teaching Hospital
 ²Department of Preventive Dentistry, Lagos State University College of Medicine, Ikeja, Nigeria
 ³School of Public Health, University of Nevada, Reno., Reno, NV, USA
 ⁴African Center of Excellence for Genomics of Infectious Diseases (ACEGID), Owo, Ondo State, Owo, Nigeria
 ⁵Department of Epidemiology, Robert Stempel College of Public Health and Social Work, Florida, Florida, FL, USA

*Corresponding author:

Dr. Afolabi Oyapero, BDS, MPH, FMCDS (DrPH), TTS.

Senior Lecturer, Department of Preventive Dentistry, Lagos State University College of Medicine, Ikeja, Nigeria. Email: <u>afolabioyapero@lasucom.edu.ng</u>, <u>fola_ba@yahoo.com</u>.

Keywords: Nicotine Dependence, cigarette use, tobacco smoking, mental disorders, harm perceptions.

Introduction

Tobacco use is a public health problem that is the primary cause of avoidable morbidity and mortality globally. About 8 million people are projected to die annually from tobacco related diseases by 2030.^[1] Smoking is a substance use disorder related to nicotine in the tobacco, which is characterized by a strong desire to use the substance after repeated and continuous use. Nicotine is a psychoactive drug which activates a cascade of neurobiological events in the reward areas of the brain and all over the body and this reinforces its use. ^[2] Thus, even though majority of smokers are desirous to quit,^[3] there is an inverse relationship between successful quit attempt decreases and level of nicotine dependence.^{[4][5]} Dependence or addiction is characterized by a perceived loss of control, including compulsive use and difficulty abstaining. Research shows that nicotine dependence indicators including the number of cigarettes smoked daily and smoking the first cigarette within 30 minutes after waking up are strongly correlated with the intention and success of quit attempts.^[3] Unfortunately, unlike other addictive drug, tobacco is widely available, relatively cheap and legal to use.

To achieve a higher rate of smoking cessation during treatments, an understanding of nicotine dependence and its correlates among smokers is desirable. Transition from experimentation with cigarettes to regular smoking among adolescents, for example, is associated with having poor relationship with parents, poverty, poor academic performance and having friends that smoke.^[6] Other correlates of nicotine dependence include alcohol consumption, the use of other addictive substances, exposure to secondhand smoke exposure, genetic predisposition to addiction, and the use of multiple tobacco products.^{[7][8]} Nicotine dependence is also strongly corelated with the age of initiation of and extensiveness of smoking, sensitivity to and metabolism of nicotine, and nicotine metabolism, age at onset of smoking a whole cigarette, a shorter latency between onset and daily smoking as well as mental illness.^{[9][10]}

Clinical studies have constantly documented high rates of cigarette smoking and nicotine dependence among patients with internalizing and externalizing disorders.^[11] It is hypothesized that nicotine is used by these patients to self-medicate. It stimulates dopamine release by nicotinic receptors, and addresses cognitive deficits by regularizing P50 auditory gating and to enhance prepulse inhibition.^[12] Proxy measures for dependence includes the number of cigarettes smoked daily and a strong craving or urge to smoke and these are often associated with high rates of relapse after treatment.^[13] However, a globally accepted normative measure, which is reproducible, accurate and easy to use for evaluating nicotine dependence is the Fagerström test for nicotine dependence (FTND).^[14]

At the turn of this century, cigarette smoking reduced by 26% in western Europe which mirrors the pattern in other highincome countries while it increased by about 60% in in African and Middle Eastern countries.^[15] Africa and other Low- and middle-income countries (LMIC) have become a key target for tobacco companies due to their weak regulatory oversight over tobacco demand reduction policies and supply-side restrictions.^[16] Moreover, many African countries like Nigeria have weak health systems, vulnerable populations and very limited resources to provide necessary assistance such as quit lines to tobacco users. Nigeria is the most populated country in Africa and it has one of the leading tobacco markets in Africa, with over 18 billion cigarettes sold annually costing Nigerians over US\$ 931 million.^[17] Nicotine replacement therapies and medication to assist cessation efforts are also mainly unavailable and priced beyond the reach of most Nigerians.

To develop and implement effective measures to control tobacco smoking, one must recognize the reasons and risk factors for smoking initiation and dependence. Public health programs are presently being designed to identify and reach subgroups with very higher rates of tobacco use, especially those with mental illness and addiction. It is thus desirable to identify vulnerable populations in the country and to design appropriate preventive intervention for them. The level of dependence on nicotine, the main addictive chemical in tobacco, is a substance-related disorder that can be utilized to characterize diverse populations of cigarette smokers and also to determine the effectiveness of individualized smoking cessation intervention programs. This study investigates the correlates of nicotine dependence among current established cigarette smokers in Nigeria.

Methods

Study design and settings: The study used a cross-sectional design comprised of adult cigarette smokers (18+) in Nigeria. Participants were enrolled from the Smoking Cessation Clinic of the Preventive Dentistry clinic at the Lagos State University Teaching Hospital between February and December 2023.

Data inclusion criteria: Adults aged 18 years and above at the time of enrollment. Our sample was restricted to established users of combustible cigarettes only. Established smokers were individuals who smoked at least 100 cigarettes in their lifetime and currently smoked cigarettes on some days or every day. We excluded respondents who were non-cigarette smokers.

Dependent variable

Nicotine dependence: The Fagerström Test for Nicotine Dependence (FTND) is a validated instrument for assessing nicotine dependence in adult smokers.^{[18][19]} The FTND comprises six question items that assess quantity of cigarette use and compulsion to use. Response options are "yes/no" with scores of 1 and 0 respectively, and multiple-choice items have response options scored 0-3 providing a total score of between 0 and 10. Respondents with a score of 0-4 have low or low-moderate dependence, 5-7 have moderate dependence, and 8 or above have a high level of nicotine dependence. ^{[18][19]} Participant nicotine dependence levels were collapsed into a binary variable categorized as low or low-moderate dependence AND moderate/ High nicotine dependence levels.

Independent variables

Harm perception of smoking: All respondents were asked the question *"What is the effect of cigarettes on your overall health?"*. Response options were on a 4-item Likert scale: very harmful, harmful, harmful, harmless, very harmless. The 4-item Likert scale was collapsed into two response options for analyses: very harmful/harmful and harmless/ very harmless.

Binge Alcohol use: Respondents were assessed for binge drinking with a single question: '*During the past 30, on how many days did you have 4* [5 for males] *or more alcohol drinks on the same occasion? By 'occasion,' we mean at the same time or within a couple of hours of each other.*" Respondent were provided the response options: I have not drank alcohol in the past 30 days/ 0-7 days/ 8-14 days/ 15-21 days/ 22-30 days. The measure was adapted from the National Survey on Drug Use and Health (NSDUH).^[20]

Internalizing and externalizing problems: Mental distress of participants were our primary outcome variables, and these were measured using the GAIN- Short Screener (GAIN-SS) for internalizing (four questions) and externalizing problems (seven questions).^[21] Based on the GAIN-SS scale, severity of internalizing and externalizing problems increases with their respective scores. For every internalizing or externalizing problem reported in the past year the participant's GAIN-SS score increased by one point. Data on mental distress was treated using a model in a prior study by Kaplan *et al.*^[22] Participants with internalizing or externalizing problems were categorized into no/low (0-1 problem) vs moderate/high (2 or more problems). Participants were categorized into two according to their responses to the internalizing and externalizing problem questions on the GAIN-SS: 1) Respondents who indicated at least one internalizing and externalizing problem in the past year, 2) Respondents who did not indicate a problem (internalizing and externalizing and externalizing problem in the past year, 2) Respondents who did not indicate a problem (internalizing and externalizing and externalizing problem in the past year, 2) Respondents who did not indicate a problem (internalizing and externalizing and externalizing and externalizing problem in the past year, 2) Respondents who did not indicate a problem (internalizing and externalizing problem in the past year, 2) Respondents who did not indicate a problem (internalizing and externalizing and externalizing

Covariates: Demographic data comprised age; biological sex (male/female); educational attainment (less than high school/high school graduate/college undergraduate/ graduate degree).

Data analyses

Participants' characteristics were analyzed descriptively using percentages and frequencies. Cigarette smoking status and the severity of nicotine dependence were analyzed using chi-square statistics and presented using percentages. To

determine the association of high nicotine dependence among established cigarette smokers and demographic factors (covariates), past-month binge alcohol use, harm perception, internalizing and externalizing symptoms, bivariate and multivariable logistic regression models were used. The outcome measure "nicotine dependence" was derived from the FTND score treated as a binary variable with low/low-moderate nicotine dependence (0) and moderate/high nicotine dependence (1). In the multivariable logistic regression models, we adjusted for demographic factors (age, sex, and education), binge drinking, harm perception, internalizing and externalizing symptoms and examined the effect of nicotine dependence on these factors. Adjusted odds ratios (aOR), 95% confidence intervals (CIs) were calculated for the logistic regression models. P-values were considered significant at <0.05. Data analyses was conducted using Stata 17 software (StataCorp, 2021).

Ethical approval: Ethical approval was obtained from the Lagos State University Teaching Hospital Health Research Ethics Committee: LREC/06/10/2330

Patient and Public Involvement Statement: During the development, progress and writing of the submitted editorial, Patient and Public Involvement was included at all stages.

Results

The study analytic sample comprised 487 adults. The mean age of participants was 33.8 years (±10.2). Based on sex, there was a higher proportion of males (76.7%) compared to females (23.3%). A majority had binge alcohol use in the past month (84.3%), and more than half (60.2%) of the participants perceived cigarette smoking as harmful to health. Additionally, most participants had severe internalizing (51.7%) or externalizing symptoms (52.3%); while more than two-thirds (73.7%) had low or low-moderate nicotine dependence levels [Table 1].

Table 1. Participant characteristics

| Variable Mean Age (±SD) Sex Female Male Highest level of education Less than high school diploma | n (%) 33.76 (±10.22) 112 (23.33) 368 (76.67) |
|--|---|
| Sex Female Male Highest level of education | 112 (23.33) 368 (76.67) |
| Female Male Highest level of education | 368 (76.67) |
| Male Highest level of education | 368 (76.67) |
| Highest level of education | |
| | 100 (20 82) |
| | 100 (20 82) |
| Less than high school diploma | 100 (00 00) |
| Loss than high school ulpionia | 100 (20.83) |
| High School diploma | 126 (26.25) |
| College undergraduate | 147 (30.63) |
| Graduate degree | 107 (22.29) |
| | |
| Binge Alcohol use | |
| I have not drank alcohol in the past 30 days | 76 (15.70) |
| 0-7 days | 99 (20.45) |
| 8-14 days | 148 (30.58) |
| 15-21 days | 69 (14.26) |
| 22-30 days | 92 (19.01) |
| | |
| Harm perception of smoking | |
| Very harmful | 31 (6.60) |
| Harmful | 252 (53.62) |
| Harmless | 175 (37.23) |
| Very harmless | 12 (2.55) |
| | |
| Internalizing symptoms | |
| Low/ No | 81 (16.88) |
| Moderate | 151 (31.46) |
| High | 248 (51.67) |
| Externalizing symptoms | |
| Low/ No | 67 (14.02) |
| Moderate | 161 (33.68) |
| High | 250 (52.3) |
| | |
| Nicotine dependence | |
| Low/ low to moderate | 359 (73.72) |
| Moderate | 112 (23.0) |
| High | 16 (3.29) |

Low/ low-moderate: score of <4. Moderate: score of 5-7. High: score of ≥8.

When participants' smoking status was stratified by their severity of nicotine dependence, those who reported daily cigarette smoking in the past 30-days had the highest proportion of high nicotine dependence (87.5%), followed by those who smoked on somedays (73.2%) [Figure 1].

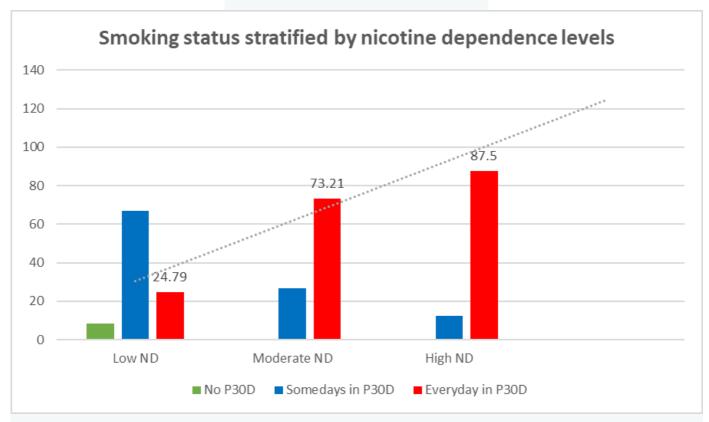


Figure 1. Past 30-day (P30D) smoking status of participants stratified by nicotine dependence levels. p-value: <0.001. **Notes**: P30D: past 30-day cigarette smoking status. ND: Nicotine dependence levels measured using the Fagerstrom Nicotine Dependence Scale (low/low-moderate, moderate, high ND).

On a bivariate regression model (Table 2), older participants had 7% increased odds of having a moderate/high level of nicotine dependence (95% CI: 1.05, 1.09; p:<0.001). Similarly, males had increased odds of a moderate/high level of nicotine dependence compared to females (95% CI: 2.81, 12.67; p: <0.001). Further, participants who perceived the health effect of cigarettes to be harmless or very harmless had significantly increased odds of a moderate/high level of nicotine dependence compared to those who considered cigarettes as harmful or very harmful (95% CI: 2.53, 5.97; p: <0.001). In addition, participants with severe internalizing (95% CI: 2.60, 13.39; p: <0.001) and externalizing symptoms (95% CI: 2.76, 18.41; p: <0.001) suggesting mental disorders had increased odds of moderate/high nicotine dependence.

 Table 2. Bivariate regression model of factors associated with moderate/high Nicotine

 Dependence.

| Variables | Odds ratio | p-value | 95% Confidence Interval |
|---|---------------|---------|----------------------------|
| Age in years | 1.07 | <0.001 | 1.05, 1.09 |
| Sex | | | |
| Female | 1 (reference) | | |
| Male | 5.96 | <0.001 | 2.81, 12.67 |
| | | | |
| Education | | | |
| Less than high school diploma | 1 (reference) | | |
| High School diploma | 0.93 | 0.78 | 0.54, 1.59 |
| College undergraduate | 0.19 | <0.001 | 0.10 0.36 |
| Graduate degree | 0.37 | 0.002 | 0.20, 0.70 |
| | | | |
| Binge Alcohol use | | | |
| No alcohol use in past month | 1 (reference) | | |
| 0-17 days | 1.71 | 0.188 | 0.77, 3.82 |
| 8-14 days | 2.87 | 0.004 | 1.39, 5.93 |
| 15-21 days | 3.17 | 0.005 | 1.41, 7.13 |
| 22-30 days | 1.44 | 0.383 | 0.64, 3.26 |
| | | | |
| Harm perception of cigarette smoking | | | |
| Harmful/ Very harmful | 1 (reference) | | |
| Very harmless/ Harmless | 3.89 | <0.001 | 2.53, 5.97 |
| | | | |
| Internalizing problems | | | |
| Low/ No | 1 (reference) | | |
| Moderate | 2.42 | 0.048 | 1.01, 5.82 |
| Severe | 5.9 | <0.001 | 2.60, 13.39 |
| | | | |
| Externalizing problems | | | |
| Low/ No | 1 (reference) | | |
| Moderate | 2.3 | 0.105 | 0.84, 6.29 |
| | | | |

OR: odds ratio. P-values <0.05 were in Bold.

Table 3 shows a multivariable regression model adjusting for age, sex, education, past-month binge alcohol use, harm perception of cigarettes, internalizing and externalizing symptoms. Age, gender, and harm perception were significantly associated with increased odds of moderate/high nicotine dependence levels in the study population. Participants who

believed cigarettes had harmless/ very harmless health effects had 2.8 times increased odds of moderate/high nicotine dependence compared to those who believed cigarettes had harmful/ very harmful health effects (95% CI: 1.75, 4.66; p: <0.001). Likewise, older age and being male remained significantly associated with moderate/high nicotine dependence levels.

| Table 3. Full Model showing factors associated with moderate/high NicotineDependence. | | | | | |
|---|---------------|---------|----------------------------|--|--|
| Variables | aOR | p-value | 95% Confidence Interval | | |
| Age in years | 1.03 | 0.02 | 1.00, 1.06 | | |
| Sex | | | | | |
| Female | 1 (reference) | | | | |
| Male | 3.7 | 0.001 | 1.65, 8.31 | | |
| | | | | | |
| Education | | | | | |
| Less than high school diploma | 1 (reference) | | | | |
| High School diploma | 0.94 | 0.841 | 0.51, 1.74 | | |
| College undergraduate | 0.46 | 0.055 | 0.21, 1.02 | | |
| Graduate degree | 0.61 | 0.196 | 0.29, 1.29 | | |
| | | | | | |
| Binge Alcohol use | | | | | |
| No alcohol use in past month | 1 (reference) | | | | |
| 0-17 days | 1.16 | 0.759 | 0.46, 2.90 | | |
| 8-14 days | 1.28 | 0.564 | 0.56, 2.93 | | |
| 15-21 days | 1.6 | 0.318 | 0.64, 4.04 | | |
| 22-30 days | 0.65 | 0.366 | 0.25, 1.67 | | |
| | | | | | |
| Harm perception of cigarette smoking | | | | | |
| Harmful/ Very harmful | 1 (reference) | | | | |
| Very harmless/ Harmless | 2.85 | <0.001 | 1.75, 4.66 | | |
| | | | | | |
| Internalizing problems | | | | | |
| Moderate | 1.69 | 0.276 | 0.66, 4.34 | | |
| Severe | 2.37 | 0.073 | 0.92, 6.09 | | |
| | | | | | |
| Externalizing problems | | | | | |
| Moderate | 2.2 | 0.16 | 0.73, 6.58 | | |
| Severe | 2.92 | 0.051 | 1.00, 8.57 | | |
| | | | | | |

aOR: adjusted odds ratio. P-values <0.05 were in Bold.

Discussion

Our findings suggest older age, being male and misperceptions of cigarette harms were associated with moderate to high levels of nicotine dependence. There was a significantly higher proportion of males compared to females among them as previously documented among smokers in Nigeria^[23] and this pattern also mirrors that in USA where current cigarette smoking was higher among men than women and was highest among the middle aged and elderly.^[24] and also among those with lower educational attainment.^[24] While the prevalence of smoking in High Income countries (HICs) continues to decline through the implementation of comprehensive tobacco control policies ^[25] low-and middle-income countries (LMICs) still have relatively higher smoking prevalence and a less comprehensive and relatively weaker tobacco control environment.^[26] Moreover, nicotine replacement therapies and medication to assist cessation efforts are also mainly unavailable and priced beyond the reach of most smoker in LMIC, necessitating the early identification of those who are highly dependent and intervening appropriately.

A majority of the respondents had binge alcohol use in the past month and this further validates findings of an increased odds of alcohol consumption among poly tobacco users in a previous research in Lagos.^[27] People who consume alcohol excessively are thrice as likely to smoke and this relationship may be bidirectional.^[28]Alcohol dependence and smoking, separately or together, are multifaceted forms of addictive behavior that may be influenced by a variety of genetic, neurobiological, conditioning, and psychosocial mechanisms, and conditioning mechanisms, in which cravings for alcohol or nicotine are elicited by certain environmental cues; and psychosocial factors such as personality characteristics and coexisting psychiatric disorders. Internalizing disorders like depression and anxiety as well as externalizing such as attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), oppositional defiant disorder (ODD), conduct disorder (CD) and antisocial personality disorder (ASPD),^{[29][30]} are significant mental health problems that have been regularly associated with tobacco use.

More than half of the participants perceived cigarette smoking as harmful to health and most of them had severe internalizing or externalizing symptoms. This prevalence is far higher than that documented for mental health disorders among the general population who are not smokers.^{[31][32]} This corroborates previous research that shows that those with mental health conditions, which include externalizing and internalizing disorders, are more likely to smoke,^[33] have an earlier age of smoking initiation onset and smoke more heavily than others in the general population. Population-based studies among those with mental health conditions, especially those with past-month mental disorders have also documented higher rates of smoking and nicotine dependence among them.^{[34][35]} Moreover, researchers documented that over a third of cigarettes smoked in England and almost half of that in the United States are by those with mental health conditions, and other substance use disorders.^[36] Internalizing disorders and their antecedents, are often associated with fear, contemplation, and emotional distress while externalizing disorders are linked with oppositional, belligerent, impetuous, disorderly, and rule-breaking conduct. Depression, anxiety, and stress, can be partially relieved by a variety of neurotransmitters released after stimulation of nicotinic cholinergic receptors.^[37] One of them, dopamine,

signals a pleasurable experience and is critical for the reinforcing effects of nicotine,^[38] thus partly explaining the higher levels of nicotine dependence typically found among those with mental health conditions.^{[39][40]}

About one-third of the study respondents had a high level of nicotine dependence levels. Cigarettes and other types of tobacco products are addictive and the development of dependence to smoking progresses through stages which include the experimental stage, regular smoking stage and established or daily smoking stage.^[41] At this final stage, cessation efforts usually fail due to the level of dependence on the substance that has been developed. Nicotine dependence is a maladaptive stage in tobacco smoking in which there are withdrawal symptoms comparable that of other addictive disorders and it has been characterized by the fourth edition of the Diagnosis and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders.^[42] Nicotine dependence is associated with an array of withdrawal symptoms such as depression, insomnia, irritability, anxiety, difficulty concentrating, restlessness when an attempt is made to stop smoking. This addiction is the main factor implicated in persistent cigarette smoking, with affected individuals characteristically smoking often during the day and every day. Cohort studies have consistently shown that smoking-related morbidity, especially lung cancer, increases exponentially with cigarette consumption levels and duration of smoking.^{[43][44]} Among established tobacco smokers, cessation results in a considerable reduction in risk, especially among those who cease smoking before 40 years of age.^[45] Our findings indicating more than one-third of cigarette smokers had high nicotine dependence levels underscore the importance of public health spending on cessation aids and support.

In addition, participants with severe internalizing and externalizing symptoms suggesting mental disorders had increased odds of moderate/high nicotine dependence, although with marginal statistical significance. Tobacco use can progress to nicotine dependence, which can be highly comorbid with mood, anxiety, and personality disorders ^{[46][47]} while quitting smoking has been linked to significant improvements in symptoms of mental health conditions and overall well-being. ^[48] In the US nicotine dependence severity is high among inpatients with psychosis who smoke cigarettes^[49] A recently proposed bidirectional association suggested that smoking may be causally associated with an elevated risk of mental illness through shared genetic liability to smoking and mental disorders. ^{[50][51]} Moreover, people with mental health conditions may seek nicotine to alleviate the symptoms of their illness or the adverse effects of their medications.^[51]

Furthermore, age, gender, and harm perception were significantly associated with increased odds of moderate/high nicotine dependence levels in the study population. This aligns with previous research in LMICs and high-income countries (HICs) that have indicated that high dependence is associated with a older age (36-45 years), manual occupations, and lower

education.^{[52][3][6][7][8][9][10][11][12][13][14][15][16][17][18][19][20][21][22][23][24][25][26][27][28][29][30][31][32][33][34][35][36][37][38][39][40][4 1][42][43][44][45][46][47][48][49][50][51][52][53][54][55][56] Furthermore, other studies have showed that nicotine dependence is more closely linked with the male gender,^{[54][55]} while another study,^[57] however reported no difference in nicotine dependence based on sex. Our findings may be explained by social norms in Nigeria, which consider cigarette use, a social habit for older men and less so for women.}

In addition, participants who believed cigarettes were harmless on their overall health had harmless health effects had

more than two times increased odds of moderate/high nicotine dependence compared to those who believed cigarettes had very harmful health effects. Perceived risk plays an important role in predicting health behaviors as hypothesized in the Health Belief Model.^[58] Perceptions of harm and addictiveness of conventional cigarette smoking are important predictors of smoking behavior, which may differ depending on smoking status and may also influence the transition between tobacco products.^[59] Strong *et al.* ^[60] observed that youth at wave 1 of PATH with lower perceptions of harm or addictiveness of tobacco products were more likely to report trying the product. Other researchers have found that higher perceptions of severity and vulnerability to smoking-related diseases are associated with higher odds of quitting attempts.^{[61][62]} Therefore, interventions such as plain packaging, cigarette stick health warnings, as well as increased access to cessation counselling should be considered by local policy makers, as these might encourage cigarette smokers to attempt quitting.

Our study has some limitations and the results should be interpreted with caution based on these. The use of self-report measures to determine nicotine dependence, internalizing and externalizing disorders could be subject to recall and social desirability bias while our hospital-based cohort also precludes the generalization of our findings to the whole population in Nigeria or similar settings. Further the cross-sectional design of the study indicates association and not causality, as such we cannot establish a causal link between our independent measures like mental health conditions and nicotine dependence. Nonetheless, our study provides findings about nicotine dependence in a cohort of cigarette smokers in a relatively understudied population. We also provide evidence about associated factors (older age, being male, and harm perceptions) of nicotine dependence that can inform local policy.

Conclusion

In conclusion, our findings indicate that older age, males, and those with reduced harm perceptions of cigarette smoking had increased odds of moderate/severe ND. These results validate prior knowledge of nicotine dependence among current established smokers in the literature. Our preliminary findings provide baseline results characterizing use behaviors among relatively understudied current established cigarette smokers in Nigeria, and evidence for further research and targeted cessation interventions within this population.

Statements and Declarations

Competing interests: The authors declare no competing interests.

Authors' contributions: All the authors have read and agreed to the final manuscript.

Financial Support: The authors did not receive any financial support for this study.

Other References

- Prochaska JJ, Benowitz NL. Current advances in research in treatment and recovery: nicotine addiction. Sci Adv. 2019;5(10):eaay9763. doi:10.1126/sciadv.aay9763
- Grant BF, Shmulewitz D, Compton WM. Nicotine use and DSM-IV nicotine dependence in the United States, 2001–2002 and 2012–2013. Am J Psychiatry. 2020;177(11):1082-1090. doi:10.1176/appi.ajp.2020.19090900
- Ranney L, Melvin C, Lux L, McClain E, Lohr KN. Systematic review: smoking cessation intervention strategies for adults and adults in special populations. Ann Intern Med. 2006 Dec 5;145(11):845-56. doi: 10.7326/0003-4819-145-11-200612050-00142.
- Ussher M, Kakar G, Hajek P, West R. Dependence and motivation to stop smoking as predictors of success of a quit attempt among smokers seeking help to quit. Addict Behav. 2016 Feb;53:175-80. doi: 10.1016/j.addbeh.2015.10.020.
- Moorman M, Putte B. The influence of message framing, intention to quit smoking, and nicotine dependence on the persuasiveness of smoking cessation messages. Addict. Behav. 2008;33: 1267–1275.

References

- 1. WHO. WHO report on the global tobacco epidemic: 2011 Geneva: World Health Organization; 2011.
- [^]Benowitz NL. Pharmacology of nicotine: addiction, smoking-induced disease, and therapeutics. Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol. 2009;49:57-71. doi: 10.1146/annurev.pharmtox.48.113006.094742.
- ^{a, b, c} Papadakis S, Tulloch HE, Gharib M, Pipe AL. Profile of tobacco users identified in primary care practice and predictors of readiness to quit: A cross-sectional survey. CMAJ Open 2016;4(1):E41-E47. https://doi.org/10.9778/cmajo.20150055
- [^]Zhou X, Nonnemaker J, Sherrill B, Gilsenan AW, Coste F, West R. Attempts to quit smoking and relapse: Factors associated with success or failure from the ATTEMPT cohort study. Addict Behav 2009;34(4):365-373. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.addbeh.2008.11.013
- [^]Hyland A, Borland R, Li Q. Individual-level predictors of cessation behaviours among participants in the International Tobacco Control (ITC) Four Country Survey. Tob Control 2006;15(Suppl III):iii83-iii94. https://doi.org/10.1136/tc.2005.013516.
- ^{a, b}Erinoso OA, Osibogun O, Egbe CO, Wright O, Oyapero A, Osibogun A. Electronic nicotine delivery systems in Nigeria: product types, flavours and nicotine content labels. Tob Control. 2022 Aug 17: tobaccocontrol-2022-057578. doi: 10.1136/tc-2022-057578.
- ^{a, b}Oyapero A, Erinoso O, Olatosi OO. Adolescents exposure to secondhand smoke and its association with susceptibility to smoking and mental health in Lagos, Nigeria. Pan African Medical Journal. 2023;44:202. doi: 10.11604/pamj.2023.44.202.35973.
- 8. ^{a, b}Lee YO, Hebert CJ, Nonnemaker JM, Kim AE. Youth tobacco product use in the United States. Pediatrics 2015;135:409–415.
- 9. ^{a, b}Audrain-McGovern, J., Rodriguez, D., Tercyak, K.P., Cuevas, J., Rodgers, K., Patterson, F., 2004. Identifying and characterizing adolescent smoking trajectories. Cancer Epidemiol. Biomarkers Prev. 13, 2023–2034.
- 10. ^{a, b}Karp, I., O'Loughlin, J., Paradis, G., Hanley, J., DiFranza, J., 2005. Smoking trajectories of adolescent novice

smokers in a longitudinal study of tobacco use. Ann. Epidemiol. 15, 445-452.

- 11. ^{a, b}Steinberg ML, Williams JM, Ziedonis DM. Financial implications of cigarette smoking among individuals with schizophrenia. Tob Control. 2004 Jun;13(2):206
- ^{a, b}Olincy A, Freedman R. Nicotinic mechanisms in the treatment of psychotic disorders: a focus on the α7 nicotinic receptor. Handb Exp Pharmacol 2012;213:211–32
- 13. ^{a, b}Blasco J, Martínez-Raga J, Carrasco E, Didia-Attas J. Atención y craving o ganas compulsivas. Avances en su conceptualización y su implicación en la prevención de recaídas. Adicciones. 2008; 20:365-76.
- 14. ^{a, b}Meneses-Gaya IC, Zuardi AW, Loureiro SR, Crippa JA. Psychometric properties of the Fagerström test for nicotine dependence. J Bras Pneumol. 2009;35:73-82
- ^{a, b}Eriksen M, Mackay J, Ross H. The Tobacco Atlas, 4thed. Atlanta, Georgia: American Cancer Society, Inc.; 2012. http://tobaccoatlas.org/uploads/Images/PDFs/Tobacco_Atlas_2ndPrint.pdf. Accessed 21 Jan 2023. Accessed 21 Jan 2023.
- ^{a, b}Blecher E, Ross H. Tobacco use in Africa: Tobacco control through prevention. Atlanta Georgia: American Cancer Society; 2013. https://www.cancer.org/content/dam/cancer-org/cancer-control/en/reports/tobacco-use-in-africatobacco-control through%3Dprevention.pdf Accessed 21 Jan 2023.
- 17. ^{a, b}World Health Organization. WHO global report on trends in tobacco smoking 2000–2025. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2015. Available from:

https://www.who.int/tobacco/publications/surveillance/reportontrendstobaccosmoking/en/Accessed 21 Jan 2023.

- 18. ^{a, b, c} Heatherton TF, Kozlowski LT, Frecker RC, Fagerstrom KO. The Fagerstrom Test for Nicotine Dependence: a revision of the Fagerstrom Tolerance Questionnaire. Br J Addict 1991; 86:1119-27.
- 19. ^{a, b, c} Pomerleau C S, Majchrezak MI, Pomerleau OF. Nicotine dependence and the Fagerstrom Tolerance Questionnaire: a brief review. J Substance Abuse 1989; 1: 471-7.
- 20. ^{a, b}Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration. (2019). Key substance use and mental health indicators in the United States: Results from the 2018 National Survey on Drug Use and Health (HHS Publication No. PEP19-5068, NSDUH Series H-54). Rockville, MD: Center for Behavioral Health Statistics and Quality, Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration. Available from: https://www.samhsa.gov/data/sites/default/files/cbhsq-

reports/NSDUHNationalFindingsReport2018/NSDUHNationalFindingsReport2018.pdf Accessed 14 Feb 2023.

- ^{a, b}Dennis ML, Chan YF, Funk RR. Development and validation of the GAIN Short Screener (GSS) for internalizing, externalizing and substance use disorders and crime/violence problems among adolescents and adults. Am J Addict. 2006;15 Suppl 1(Suppl 1):80-91. doi: 10.1080/10550490601006055.
- ^{a, b}Kaplan T, Racussen L. A crisis recovery model for adolescents with severe mental health problems. Clinical Child Psychology and Psychiatry. 2013;18(2):246-259. doi:10.1177/1359104512449320
- ^{a, b}Share of cigarettes' smokers in Nigeria 2018, by age and gender. https://www.statista.com/statistics/1124818/share-of-cigarettes-smokers-in-nigeria-by-age-and-gender/ Accessed 14 Jan 2023.
- 24. ^{a, b, c}Cornelius ME, Loretan CG, Jamal A, et al. Tobacco Product Use Among Adults United States, 2021. MMWR

Morb Mortal Wkly Rep 2023;72:475-483

- 25. ^{a, b}Flor LS, Reitsma MB, Gupta V, Ng M, Gakidou, E.. The effects of tobacco control policies on global smoking prevalence. Nat. Med. 2021; 27 (2), 239–243.
- 26. a, bWest R.. Tobacco control: present and future. Br. Med. Bull. 2006;77, 123–136.
- 27. ^{a, b}. Erinoso O, Oyapero A, Osoba M, Amure M, Osibogun O, Wright K, et al. Association between anxiety, alcohol, poly-tobacco use and waterpipe smoking: A cross-sectional study in Lagos, Nigeria. Niger Postgrad Med J 2021;28:117-25.
- 28. ^{a, b}Grant BF, Hasin DS, Chou SP Stinson FS, and Dawson DA. Nicotine dependence and psychiatric disorders in the United States: Results from the National Epidemiologic Survey on Alcohol and Related Conditions. Archives of General Psychiatry 2004; 61:1107–1115.
- 29. ^{a, b}Conway KP, Green VR, Kasza KA, Silveira ML, Borek N, Kimmel HL, et al. Co-occurrence of tobacco product use, substance use, and mental health problems among adults: Findings from Wave 1 (2013–2014) of the Population Assessment of Tobacco and Health (PATH) Study. Drug and Alcohol Dependence, 2017; 177, 104–111.
- ^{a, b}American Psychiatric Association. (2013). Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders (5th ed.). DOI: 10.1176/appi.books.9780890425596.
- 31. ^{a, b}Jörns-Presentati A, Napp A-K, Dessauvagie AS, Stein DJ, Jonker D, Breet E, et al. The prevalence of mental health problems in sub-Saharan adolescents: A systematic review. PLoS ONE 2021; 16(5): e0251689. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0251689.
- 32. ^{a, b}Suleiman, Dauda. "Mental health disorders in Nigeria: A highly neglected disease." Annals of Nigerian Medicine 2016;1 (2):47.
- ^{a, b}Smith PH, Mazure CM, McKee SA. Smoking and mental illness in the U.S. population. Tob Control 2014;23:e147– 53.
- 34. ^{a, b}Grant BF, Hasin DS, Chou SP, Stinson FS, Dawson DA. Nicotine dependence and psychiatric disorders in the United States: results from the national epidemiologic survey on alcohol and related conditions. Arch Gen Psychiatry. 2004;61(11):1107-15. doi: 10.1001/archpsyc.61.11.1107.
- ^{a, b}Hagman BT, Delnevo CD, Hrywna M, Williams J. Tobacco use among those with serious psychological distress: findings from the National Survey of Drug Use and Health. Addict Behav. 2008;33:582–592. doi: 10.1016/j.addbeh.2007.11.007.
- ^{a, b}Lasser K, Boyd JW, Woolhandler S, et al. Smoking and mental illness: a population-based prevalence study. JAMA. 2000;284(20):2606–2610. doi: 10.1001/jama.284.20.2606.
- 37. ^{a, b}Benowitz NL. Nicotine addiction. N Engl J Med. 2010 Jun 17;362(24):2295-303. doi: 10.1056/NEJMra0809890.
- 38. ^{a, b}Nestler, E. J. Is there a common molecular pathway for addiction?. Nat. Neurosci. 2005;8: 1445–1449.
- 39. ^{a, b}Jean-Louis Du Plooy, Muiruri Macharia, Chris Verster. Cigarette smoking, nicotine dependence, and motivation to quit smoking in South African male psychiatric inpatients. BMC Psychiatry 2016; 16:403 DOI 10.1186/s12888-016-1123-z
- 40. ^{a, b}Hughes JR, Helzer JE, Lindberg SA. Prevalence of DSM/ICD-defined nicotine dependence. Drug Alcohol Depend. 2006;85(2):91–102.

- 41. ^{a, b}Mayhew KP, Flay BR, Mott JA. Stages in the development of adolescent smoking. Drug Alcohol Depend. 2000 May 1;59 Suppl 1:S61-81. doi: 10.1016/s0376-8716(99)00165-9.
- ^{a, b}Robins LN, Helzer JE, Croughan J, Ratcliff KS. National Institute of Mental Health Diagnostic Interview Schedule. Its history, characteristics, and validity. Arch Gen Psychiatry. 1981;38(4):381-389. doi:10.1001/archpsyc.1981.01780290015001.
- 43. ^{a, b}Knoke JD, Shanks TG, Vaughn JW, et al. Lung cancer mortality is related to age in addition to duration and intensity of cigarette smoking: an analysis of CPS-I data. Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev 2004;13:949–57.
- 44. ^{a, b}Flanders WD, Lally CA, Zhu BP, et al. Lung cancer mortality in relation to age, duration of smoking, and daily cigarette consumption: results from Cancer Prevention Study II. Cancer Res 2003;63:6556–62
- 45. ^{a, b}National Center for Chronic Disease Prevention and Health Promotion (US) Office on Smoking and Health. The health consequences of smoking—50 years of progress: a report of the surgeon general. Atlanta, GA: US Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2014
- 46. ^{a, b}Chou SP, Goldstein RB, Smith SM, et al: The epidemiology of DSM-5 nicotine use disorder: results from the National Epidemiologic Survey on Alcohol and Related Conditions–III. J Clin Psychiatry 2016; 77:1404–1412
- 47. ^{a, b}Grant BF, Hasin DS, Chou SP, et al: Nicotine dependence and psychiatric disorders in the United States: results from the National Epidemiologic Survey on Alcohol and Related Conditions. Arch Gen Psychiatry 2004; 61:1107–1115
- ^{a, b}Goodwin RD, Sheffer CE, Chartrand H, Bhaskaran J, Hart CL, Sareen J, Bolton J. Drug use, abuse, and dependence and the persistence of nicotine dependence. Nicotine Tob Res. 2014;16(12):1606-12. doi: 10.1093/ntr/ntu115.
- 49. ^{a, b}Solty H, Crockford D, White WD, Currie S. Cigarette smoking, nicotine dependence, and motivation for smoking cessation in psychiatric inpatients. Can J Psychiatry. 2009;54(1):36-45. doi:10.1177/070674370905400107
- 50. ^{a, b}King M, Jones R, Petersen I, Hamilton F, Nazareth I. Cigarette smoking as a risk factor for schizophrenia or all nonaffective psychoses. Psychol Med. 2021;51(8):1373-1381. doi:10.1017/S0033291720000136
- 51. ^{a, b, c}Quigley H, MacCabe JH. The relationship between nicotine and psychosis. Ther Adv Psychopharmacol. 2019; 9:2045125319859969. doi: 10.1177/2045125319859969.
- 52. ^{a, b}Yin S, Ahluwalia IB, Palipudi K, Mbulo L, Arrazola RA. Are there hardened smokers in low- and middle-income countries? Findings from the Global Adult Tobacco Survey. Tob Induc Dis. 2019; 18;17:11. doi: 10.18332/tid/100631.
- 53. [^]Feliu A, Filippidis FT, Joossens L, Fong GT, Vardavas CI, Baena A, Castellano Y, Martinez C, Fernandez E. Impact of tobacco control policies on smoking prevalence and quit ratios in 27 European Union countries from 2006 to 2014. Tob. Control 2019;28: 101–109.
- 54. ^{a, b}Picco L, Subramaniam M, Abdin E, Vaingankar JA, Chong SA. Smoking and nicotine dependence in Singapore: Findings from a cross-sectional epidemiological study. Ann. Acad. Med. Singap.2012; 41: 325–334.
- 55. ^{a, b}Shahwan S, Abdin E, Shafie S, Chang S, Sambasivam R, Zhang Y, Vaingankar JA, Teo YY, Heng D, Chong SA, Subramaniam M. Prevalence and correlates of smoking and nicotine dependence: results of a nationwide crosssectional survey among Singapore residents. BMJ Open. 2019 Oct 18;9(10):e032198. doi: 10.1136/bmjopen-2019-032198.
- 56. ^Pennanen M, Broms U, Korhonen T, Haukkala A, Partonen T, Tuulio-Henriksson A, Laatikainen T, Patja K, Kaprio J.

Smoking, nicotine dependence and nicotine intake by socio-economic status and marital status. Addict Behav. 2014 Jul;39(7):1145-51. doi: 10.1016/j.addbeh.2014.03.005.

- 57. [^]Breslau N, Kilbey MM, Andreski P. Nicotine dependence and major depression. New evidence from a prospective investigation. Arch. Gen. Psychiatry 1993; 50: 31–35.
- 58. *Rosenstock IM. The health belief model and preventive health behavior. Health Educ Monogr. 1974;2(4):354–86*
- 59. [^]O'Brien EK, Persoskie A, Tam J. Multi-item measures of tobacco health perceptions: a review. J Journal Health Beh. 2019;43(2):266–278.
- 60. Strong DR, Leas E, Elton-Marshall T, Wackowski OA, Travers M, Bansal-Travers M, Hyland A, White M, Noble M, Cummings KM, Taylor K, Kaufman AR, Choi K, Pierce JP. Harm perceptions and tobacco use initiation among youth in Wave 1 and 2 of the Population Assessment of Tobacco and Health (PATH) Study. Prev Med. 2019 Jun;123:185-191. doi: 10.1016/j.ypmed.2019.03.017.
- 61. [^]Kowitt SD, Cornacchione Ross J, Jarman KL, Kistler CE, Lazard AJ, Ranney LM, Sheeran P, Thrasher JF, Goldstein AO. Tobacco Quit Intentions and Behaviors among Cigar Smokers in the United States in Response to COVID-19. Int J Environ Res Public Health. 2020 Jul 25;17(15):5368. doi: 10.3390/ijerph17155368.
- 62. [^]Girvalaki C, Filippidis FT, Kyriakos CN, Driezen P, Herbeć A, Mons U, Papadakis S, Mechili EA, Katsaounou PA, Przewoźniak K, Fernández E, Trofor AC, Demjén T, Fong GT, Vardavas CI, The Eurest-Plus Consortium OBO. Perceptions, Predictors of and Motivation for Quitting among Smokers from Six European Countries from 2016 to 2018: Findings from EUREST-PLUS ITC Europe Surveys. Int J Environ Res Public Health. 2020 Aug 28;17(17):6263. doi: 10.3390/ijerph17176263.