

TITLE: Smoking Trends and Disparities among African American and Non-Hispanic Whites in California

AUTHORS:

Kari-Lyn Kobayakawa Sakuma, PhD MPH¹

Jamie Felicitas, MPH²

Pebbles Fagan, PhD MPH³

Charles L. Gruder, PhD⁴

Lyzette Blanco, MPH²

Christopher Cappelli, MPH²

Dennis R. Trinidad, PhD MPH²

AFFILIATIONS:

1. Oregon State University, College of Public Health and Human Sciences, School of Social and Behavioral Health Sciences, Corvallis, Oregon
2. Claremont Graduate University, School of Community and Global Health, Claremont, California
3. University of Hawaii, Cancer Center, Honolulu, Hawaii
4. Community Translational Research Institute, Riverside, California

DATE: January 20, 2015

CORRESPONDING AUTHOR:

© The Author 2015. Published by Oxford University Press on behalf of the Society for Research on Nicotine and Tobacco. All rights reserved. For permissions, please e-mail: journals.permissions@oup.com.

1
2
3 All correspondence and reprint requests should be directed to: Kari-Lyn Kobayakawa Sakuma,
4
5 Ph.D., M.P.H., College of Public Health and Human Sciences, School of Social and Behavioral
6
7 Health Sciences, Oregon State University, 412 Waldo Hall, Corvallis, Oregon 97331-6406.
8
9

10 Email: karilyn.sakuma@oregonstate.edu
11

12 **ARTICLE TYPE:**

- 14 • Article word count (excluding abstract and references):3443
 - 15 • Abstract word count:188
- 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
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

ABSTRACT

Objectives: The current study examined disparities in smoking trends across African Americans and non-Hispanic whites in California.

Methods: Data from the 1996 to 2008 California Tobacco Survey were analyzed to examine trends in smoking behaviors and cessation across African Americans and non-Hispanic whites.

Results:

A decrease in overall ever and current smoking was observed for both African American and non-Hispanic whites across the 12-year time period. A striking decrease in proportions of heavy daily smokers for both African American and non-Hispanic whites were observed. Proportions of light and intermittent smokers (LITS) and moderate daily smokers displayed modest increases for African Americans but large increases for non-Hispanic whites. Increases in successful cessation were also observed for African Americans and, to a lesser extent, for non-Hispanic whites.

Discussion:

Smoking behavior and cessation trends across African Americans and non-Hispanic whites were revealing. The decline in heavy daily and former smokers may demonstrate the success and effectiveness of tobacco control efforts in California. However, the increase in proportions of LITS and moderate daily smokers for both African Americans and non-Hispanic whites demonstrates a need for tobacco cessation efforts focused on lighter smokers.

INTRODUCTION

African Americans suffer disproportionately from tobacco-related diseases compared to non-Hispanic whites.¹⁻³ In the state of California, African Americans have the highest smoking-related morbidity and mortality,⁴ and also bear the greatest burden of smoking-related economic impact and productivity loss.⁵ Historically, California has had some of the most consistent and strongest tobacco control efforts in the U.S. Despite these efforts, the overall smoking rate for African American adult males in California in 2010 (18.4%) was roughly equivalent to the rate among non-Hispanic white males in 1990 (18.1%),⁶ demonstrating a significant disparity in reducing smoking rates among African Americans relative to non-Hispanic whites. We aim to better understand the nature of this disparity by examining trends in specific smoking-related measures for both African Americans and non-Hispanic whites in California since the 1990s.

In the U.S., African Americans smoke fewer cigarettes per day and are more likely to be non-daily smokers than non-Hispanic whites⁷ yet have elevated risk of lung cancer.⁸ Studies among young adults show that African Americans had a higher proportions of intermittent smoking (65.5% vs. 47.2%, respectively) among past month users compared to non-Hispanic whites.⁹ Other studies have found that African Americans on average smoked fewer cigarettes per day and had higher proportions of non-daily or intermittent smoking compared to non-Hispanic whites.^{2,7} Despite lower consumption rates, African Americans have equal or greater risk of developing lung cancer compared to their non-Hispanic white counterparts.^{8,10,11,8,12}

Health disparities among African Americans are also apparent in quitting behaviors. National data show that in 2012, more African Americans attempted to quit compared to non-Hispanic whites (49.3% vs. 40.9%, respectively) and fewer African American adult ever smokers actually quit compared to non-Hispanic whites (44.1% vs. 57.1%, respectively).^{1-3,9} In

1
2
3 California, the pattern is similar with more African American smokers attempting to quit in the
4
5 past year compared to non-Hispanic whites (72% vs. 54%, respectively), yet the prevalence of
6
7 former smokers are similar between African Americans and non-Hispanic whites (17.1%
8
9 vs. 18.6%).^{4,6}
10
11

12 While reporting of such marked disparities in smoking prevalence from single time points
13
14 are important, no peer-reviewed studies have examined *trends* in specific smoking behaviors that
15
16 contribute to the overall smoking rates for African Americans relative to non-Hispanic whites in
17
18 California, a state with one of the most active and longest-running comprehensive tobacco
19
20 control programs in the U.S. The current study examines smoking consumption trends with
21
22 particular attention to the lower levels of consumption, intermittent smoking, and smoking
23
24 cessation levels among African American and non-Hispanic white populations in California.
25
26 Such information will contribute to a greater understanding of smoking disparities for African
27
28 Americans in a state that has invested heavily in tobacco control efforts, and will inform future
29
30 interventions that seek to reduce health disparities.
31
32
33
34
35
36

37 **METHODS**

38 **Data Source**

39
40 The California Tobacco Surveys (CTS) are large, population-based, random-digit-dialed
41
42 telephone surveys that monitor changes in tobacco use and attitudes in California. As part of the
43
44 evaluation program of the California Tobacco Control Program, the CTS has been conducted
45
46 every 3 years, since 1990.^{5,13} The present study utilizes data from the 1996, 1999, 2002, 2005,
47
48 and 2008 surveys. The adult response rates ranged from 53% to 74% across the five
49
50 surveys.^{4,6,13-16} All surveys used a standardized screening interview to identify household
51
52 members and to interview smokers and former smokers. The probability of selection was higher
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 for anyone who was reported by the screener respondent to have smoked in the past five years as
4 compared to never smokers or long-term former smokers. Respondents to the CTS were given
5 base weights reflecting their probability of being selected for an interview. These weights were
6 adjusted further using Census data to reflect the California population. With these weights,
7 population estimates were computed and then used to establish the percentage of California
8 smokers who belonged to various subgroups. The detailed methods for each CTS are described
9 elsewhere.^{4,6,7,13,16}

19 **Measures**

20 *Demographic Characteristics*

21
22 Demographic measures of interest included age (18-34 years, 35-49 years, 50-64 years,
23 and 65 years or older), gender, level of education (less than high school, high school graduate,
24 some college, and college graduate), and self-reported race/ethnicity. We used the US Census
25 categories that defined Hispanic/Latino ethnicity and then identified the respondent's race as
26 non-Hispanic white or African American.
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36

37 *Cigarette Consumption*

38
39 CTS survey respondents were asked, "Have you ever smoked 100 cigarettes?"
40 Respondents were considered ever smokers if they answered yes. Ever smokers were further
41 asked, "Do you now smoke every day, some days, or not at all?" Those who reported smoking
42 every day or some days were considered current smokers. All current smokers were also asked to
43 report the number of cigarettes they consumed on the days when they smoked. Light daily
44 smokers were defined as those every day smokers who consumed 0-5 cigarettes per day,
45 moderate daily smokers were those every day smokers who consumed 6-19 cigarettes per day,
46 and heavy daily smokers were those every day smokers who consumed 20 or more cigarettes per
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 day.¹⁷ Those who indicated that they smoked only some days were considered intermittent
4 smokers (i.e., occasional/non-daily smokers). Light daily smokers and intermittent smokers
5 (LITS) were combined into a single category.^{17,18} Former smokers were defined as ever smokers
6 who reported not smoking at the time of the survey. Former smokers were further asked when
7 they last had a cigarette. Quit dates were ascertained and quit length was calculated from the
8 point of interview. Reporting abstinence for at least 6 months at the time of the survey was
9 chosen as a marker of long-term successful cessation^{9,19} and quit rates were calculated as a ratio
10 of successful quitters over ever smokers. Because the overall smoking prevalence rates in the
11 U.S. have declined substantially during the study period and we are primarily interested in the
12 trends in consumption patterns within ethnic/racial groups, we report the prevalence of current
13 and former smokers with the denominator being ever smokers. We use the proportion of the
14 consumption variable of interest (i.e., LITS, moderate smokers, heavy smokers) over the
15 subpopulation of current smokers within ethnic/racial groups to report prevalence for those
16 respective variables.
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35

36 37 38 **Statistical Analysis**

39 All estimates were weighted by CTS survey weights, which account for selection
40 probabilities from the sampling design and adjust for survey nonresponse.^{2,4,6,7,13,16} All estimates
41 were computed in SAS version 9.3^{10,11,20} and variance estimates were computed by using the
42 published CTS replicate weights for use with jackknife procedures²¹. All unadjusted prevalence
43 rates reported in Table 1 and in our figures were computed as weighted proportions by using
44 SAS PROC SURVEYMEANS and PROC SURVEYFREQ for non-Hispanic whites and African
45 Americans separately. Further methodological information for the CTS is described elsewhere.⁶
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

RESULTS

Demographic Characteristics

Demographic information from 1996 to 2008 for African Americans and non-Hispanic whites are presented in Table 1. African Americans in the 18-34 and 35-49 age groups declined from 41.6% (± 2.8) in 1996 to 30.4% (± 3.7) in 2008, though both groups accounted for higher proportions of the population throughout the 12-year period. Similarly, non-Hispanic whites in the 18-34 age group declined from 29.0% (± 1.0) in 1996 to 21.7% (± 1.6) in 2008. This likely reflects the general population shift during this time period.²²

For both African Americans and non-Hispanic whites, the proportions of men remained between 43.8% and 50.1%. The proportion of African Americans reporting to be college graduates increased from 20.9% (± 8.6) in 1996 to 29.5% (± 2.6) in 2008. Similarly, non-Hispanic whites had an increase in college graduates between 1996 (32.1% ± 2.3) and 2008 (45.8% ± 1.9).

Cigarette Consumption

Table 1 also presents cigarette consumption information for African Americans and non-Hispanic whites between 1996 and 2008. Among African Americans, there was a 13.3% decrease in the proportion of ever smokers between 1996 (42.1% ± 2.3) and 2008 (36.5% ± 2.1). Non-Hispanic whites showed a decrease of 12.2% during between 1996 (49.9% ± 0.6) and 2008 (43.8% ± 1.6).

Current Smokers

There was a 25.4% decrease in the number of current smokers among African American ever smokers between 1996 (56.3% ± 3.9) and 2008 (42.0% ± 4.4). The proportion of current

1
2
3 smokers among non-Hispanic white ever smokers showed a similar decrease of 24.8% between
4
5 1996 ($40.0\% \pm 0.7$) and 2008 ($30.1\% \pm 1.3$). Table 1 further presents the prevalence of LITS,
6
7 moderate daily smokers, and heavy daily smokers among African American and non-Hispanic
8
9 white current smokers.
10
11

12
13 *Light daily smokers and intermittent smokers (LITS).* The proportion of LITS among
14
15 African American current smokers increased 22.7% between 1996 ($37.0\% \pm 5.5$) and 2008
16
17 ($45.4\% \pm 10.2$). The proportion of LITS among non-Hispanic white current smokers increased
18
19 from 22.4% (± 1.4) in 1996 to 38.8% (± 3.3) in 2008, indicating an increase of 73.2 % over the
20
21 study period (see Figure 1).
22
23

24
25 *Moderate daily smokers and heavy daily smokers.* Figure 2 shows the proportion of
26
27 moderate daily smokers among African American current smokers increased 33.9% between
28
29 1996 ($39.5\% \pm 5.0$) and 2008 ($52.9\% \pm 10.4$). In comparison, the proportion of moderate daily
30
31 smokers among non-Hispanic white current smokers increased 45.4% between 1996 ($32.4\% \pm$
32
33 1.6) and 2008 ($47.1\% \pm 3.7$). Figure 2 also reveals dramatic decreases in the percentage of heavy
34
35 daily smokers among both African American and non-Hispanic white current smokers over the
36
37 12-year study period. The proportion of heavy daily smokers among African American current
38
39 smokers was 23.5% ($\pm 3.7\%$) in 1996 compared to 1.7% (± 1.3) in 2008, a decrease of 92.8%.
40
41 The number of heavy daily smokers among non-Hispanic white current smokers decreased
42
43 68.8% between 1996 ($45.2\% \pm 1.8$) and 2008 ($14.1\% \pm 2.3$).
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51

52 **Former Smoking and Successful Quitting**

53
54 The proportion of African American former smokers who were successful quitters
55
56 (abstaining completely for six months or more) was 34.0% (± 5.0) in 1996 compared to 46.2% (\pm
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 4.6) in 2008, demonstrating an approximate increase in successful quitting of 35.9% over the 12-
4 year period. The number of successful quitters among non-Hispanic white former smokers
5 increased approximately 20.4% between 1996 (50.4% \pm 1.0) and 2008 (60.7% \pm 2.8). Although
6 the magnitude of the increase among African Americans is higher than that of non-Hispanic
7 whites, the proportion of successful African American quitters in 2008 was very similar to the
8 proportion of successful non-Hispanic White quitters in 1996.
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17

18 **DISCUSSION**

19
20 This study examined specific changes in cigarette consumption levels and former
21 smoking and successful quitting among African American and non-Hispanic white populations
22 in California between 1996 and 2008. Decades of tobacco control measures appear to have had a
23 positive effect on reducing cigarette consumption for both African Americans and non-Hispanic
24 whites in California. Our findings are consistent with other studies that demonstrate reductions in
25 smoking prevalence in overall California populations, which have led to \$134 billion in
26 healthcare expenditure savings in the state.^{17,23} These prior studies attribute the decline to
27 reduced smoking initiation and surmised that more people were quitting. Our findings support
28 the latter and also suggest there has been an overall shift toward lower consumption levels
29 among African American and non-Hispanic whites. A closer look at how these consumption
30 levels changed across time revealed important differences that could impact how to target
31 intervention and cessation efforts.
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48

49 The decrease in heavy daily smoking among current smokers is unprecedented. To our
50 knowledge, the 93% drop in heavy daily smoking among African Americans and the nearly 70%
51 drop among non-Hispanic whites has not been previously reported in peer-reviewed literature.
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 tobacco on health. Although there was a sharp decrease in heavy daily smoking, it does not
4
5 directly point to a sharp increase in quitting among either African Americans or non-Hispanic
6
7 whites. The data also show that the disparities gap in heavy smoking decreased. This is evident
8
9 when examining the difference in prevalence between African American heavy smokers and
10
11 non-Hispanic white heavy smokers in 1996 and compared that difference in 2008. Despite this,
12
13 African Americans still show higher rates of overall current smoking among ever smokers
14
15 compared to non-Hispanic whites.
16
17
18
19

20 The prevalence of former smokers moderately increased over time for both African
21
22 Americans and non-Hispanic whites throughout the 12-year period. This is a positive indication
23
24 that tobacco control efforts had an impact on smoking cessation. The increase of former smokers
25
26 observed is promising but African Americans lagged behind non-Hispanic whites in this regard.
27
28 The proportion of African American former smokers in 2008 was near the levels of non-Hispanic
29
30 whites in 1996, showing a 12-year lag and a major disparity in cessation progress among African
31
32 Americans in California.¹⁴ This suggests that more effective tobacco control policies and
33
34 cessation programs are required to address the specific needs of African Americans who may
35
36 experience more difficulty in quitting. This quitting difficulty may be due to menthol cigarette
37
38 smoking, particularly the higher rates of menthol smoking among African Americans and other
39
40 racial/ethnic minorities.²⁴⁻³⁰ There are various hypothesized mechanisms on how menthol
41
42 contributes to quitting difficulty, including menthol facilitating a deeper intake of carbon
43
44 monoxide and nicotine per cigarette,³¹⁻³³ menthol itself might act on nicotine metabolism by
45
46 slowing it down and allowing more nicotine exposure,³¹ or the mentholated products contained
47
48 higher levels nicotine^{28,29} all potentially contributing to the disparity in quitting behaviors
49
50 observed between African American and non-Hispanic whites in this study.
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4
5
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
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

The increases among LITS, particularly the higher proportions of African Americans and the growing proportions among non-Hispanic whites, are both notable. LITS among African Americans were higher than among non-Hispanic whites in the 1990s and continued to increase through 2008. In comparison, the rate of increase among non-Hispanic whites was much steeper over the 12-year period, yet the proportion of LITS in 2008 was similar to that of the African American proportion in 1996. It is encouraging to observe lower levels of consumption across both populations, particularly the marked increase of LITS among non-Hispanic whites. However, one concern is that the rate of increase among African Americans was much less than that for non-Hispanic whites. These findings highlight the need for more in-depth study of the patterns in consumption levels between African Americans and non-Hispanic whites.

While it may seem encouraging to observe increases in light and intermittent smoking, the increase still poses a significant public health problem. Light and intermittent smoking can carry nearly the same health risks for cardiovascular disease and lower respiratory tract infections as daily smoking^{34,35} and increased risk for cancer and other morbidity and mortality factors than those who never smoked.³⁴⁻³⁶ Furthermore, light and intermittent smoking appears to be a growing problem among younger adults,³⁷⁻³⁹ indicating a need for targeted prevention and cessation programs specific for LITS. The health risks associated with light and intermittent smoking among African Americans are of significant concern. African American LITS are still twice as likely to be diagnosed with lung cancer as non-Hispanic whites and Latinos.^{7,8} Thus, LITS are an important group to target for cessation efforts to reduce the health disparity. However, more research is needed to understand the correlates and predictors of light and intermittent smoking and quitting behaviors, particularly among African Americans.^{40,41} There is evidence that LITS may have different motives for smoking,⁴² don't identify as smokers,^{43,44}

1
2
3 do not perceive to have elevated health risks^{36,45} or addiction risk,⁴⁶ and are over-confident in
4
5 their ability to successfully quit smoking.^{47,48} Those who recently transitioned from daily
6
7 smoking to non-daily or occasional smoking may be more motivated to quit, having tried to quit
8
9 more often, more recently, and with cessation aids than established non-daily smokers.^{40,49}
10
11 Together, the evidence suggests that as the LITS proportion of current smokers grows, more
12
13 attention will be needed to address the specific needs of the diverse group that make up LITS.
14
15
16
17

18 19 **Limitations**

20
21 Although the CTS are established population-based surveys conducted over multiple years,
22
23 the data are cross-sectional. Thus, person-level changes in the magnitude of consumption could
24
25 not be evaluated because of the design of this study. Our study does not examine psychosocial
26
27 factors associated with observed trends or examine within racial/ethnic groups differences, all of
28
29 which are important future directions that will provide clarity on why consumption levels differ
30
31 within and between racial/ethnic groups.
32
33
34

35
36 Our study is limited to African American and non-Hispanic white adults in California
37
38 between 1996 and 2008. Therefore, the generalizability of the results should be considered
39
40 carefully in light of these limitations. While this study focused on African American and non-
41
42 Hispanic whites because of the clear health disparities present between these groups, it should
43
44 not discount the importance of other racial/ethnic groups⁵⁰⁻⁵² that could also provide key insight
45
46 on how groups differ in consumption and quitting patterns and how we might develop targeted
47
48 interventions to move populations toward successful quitting. Future tobacco control
49
50 programming and studies should consider a comprehensive approach with special consideration
51
52 for these vulnerable groups.
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4 It is important to consider the impact of mentholated product use among African American
5 smokers. Approximately 70% of African American adult smokers choose mentholated cigarettes
6 compared to less than 30% of other racial/ethnic groups.⁵³⁻⁵⁵ Smokers who use mentholated
7 products are less likely to have experienced long-term quitting success^{27,56} and more likely to
8 experience nicotine addiction.^{28,57-61} Although the CTS contained questions regarding cigarette
9 brand preference, it did not assess menthol use specifically. Future studies need to assess brand
10 and type of cigarettes used by participants, particularly because mentholated products are heavily
11 marketed^{62,63} and have high prevalence of use among African American and other minority
12 communities.^{18,55,57,64}

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
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

The definition of light smoking has changed in recent years from about ten cigarettes per day to five cigarettes per day, as we have used in this study.¹⁸ Lower consumption levels today may reflect differential physiologic addiction and/or psychosocial factors related to dependence such as stress, depression, and self-efficacy.⁶⁵ This indicates the need for further investigation on the design of targeted cessation programs that address the specific needs of African Americans and the growing proportions of LITS in the population.

Conclusion

The significant decline in heavy daily smoking, especially among African American adults, is a laudable achievement in tobacco control. However, more attention to LITS consumption levels and successful cessation are needed to reduce tobacco-related diseases and death, especially as cigarette consumption levels decrease among smokers from multiple ethnic groups. With greater proportions of smokers consuming less than a pack a day or smoking intermittently, future research is necessary to understand the needs of this growing smoking

1
2
3 demographic in order to design successful tobacco control programs to prevent uptake or
4
5 increase successful cessation among this population and among diverse racial/ethnic groups.
6
7

8 The CTS population data were last collected in 2008, thus our results are confined to the
9
10 period prior to the implementation of the 2009 Family Tobacco Prevention Act, in which
11
12 regulatory authority was given to the Federal Drug Administration for the oversight of tobacco
13
14 products. Despite this, the results of this study continue to be important for today's tobacco
15
16 control climate. Observing how patterns of consumption changed across time gives context to
17
18 who may be vulnerable to new and emerging tobacco products that have since emerged. The
19
20 proportion of heavy users of cigarettes may have diminished substantially but our results indicate
21
22 that these users are not quitting completely and therefore may be at increased risk for other
23
24 tobacco product use. Thus, understanding that disparities exist in the consumption levels of
25
26 cigarettes and that differences in policies may contribute to ethnic/racial disparities remains an
27
28 important area of study.
29
30
31
32
33

34 The California Tobacco Control Program (CTCP) appears to have had a powerful impact
35
36 on reducing heavy smoking prevalence among African American and non-Hispanic white
37
38 populations.¹⁷ While this is commendable, the funding for CTCP in recent years has diminished
39
40 substantially.^{4,23,66-68} The total funding for tobacco control programs in California is only
41
42 meeting 15.5% of the CDC Best Practices funding recommendations⁶⁹ earning California an "F"
43
44 grade in tobacco control by the American Lung Association. Where most states have increased
45
46 cigarette taxes, California has remained stagnant since 2000 at just \$.87 per pack of 20 further
47
48 dropping the state's ranking to 33rd.⁶⁹ Thus, the great gains in reducing cigarette consumption,
49
50 particularly among heavy smokers, may be jeopardized without continued comprehensive
51
52 tobacco control programs in place. Furthermore, studies are needed to assess how to advance
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 LITS and moderate smokers toward cessation and examine which factors contribute to successful
4
5
6 quits among these lighter consumers.
7

8 The findings of this study demonstrate patterns in cigarette consumption among African
9
10 Americans and non-Hispanic whites in California across time. Significant declines in heavy
11
12 smoking and the diffused increases among moderate smokers and LITS indicate a need for more
13
14 efforts to move smokers toward successful cessation. Studies that identify successful quitting
15
16 modalities for lower consumption levels, particularly taking into account racial/ethnic
17
18 differences that may affect physiologic addiction and cultural factors, are crucial for continued
19
20 reductions in tobacco-related diseases. Understanding these changes in consumption levels and
21
22 how they may be different for African Americans and non-Hispanic white populations may
23
24
25
26
27 better inform public health efforts to curb tobacco related health disparities.
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

FUNDING

This work was supported by the National Cancer Institute (grant #1R03CA150559) and the Tobacco-Related Disease Research Program of the University of California Office of the President (grant #21RT-0140).

DECLARATION OF INTEREST

None declared.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors would like to thank Martha White for her generous assistance with understanding the California Tobacco Surveys and providing coding advice.

References

1. Office of the Surgeon General (US), Office on Smoking and Health (US). *The Health Consequences of Smoking: a Report of the Surgeon General*. Atlanta (GA): Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (US); 2004.
2. US Department of Health and Human Services. *Tobacco Use Among US Racial/Ethnic Minority Groups - African Americans, American Indians and Alaskan Natives, Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders, and Hispanics*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services; 1998.
3. US Department of Health and Human Services. *Reducing Tobacco Use: a Report of the Surgeon General, US Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention*. ... Promotion; 2000.
4. Al-Delaimy WK, White MM, Gilmer T, Zhu SH, Pierce JP. *The California Tobacco Control Program: Can We Maintain the Progress? Results From the California Tobacco Survey, 1990-2005*. La Jolla, CA: University of California, San Diego; 2008.
5. Max W, Sung HY, Tucker LY, Stark B. The disproportionate cost of smoking for African Americans in California. *Am J Public Health*. 2010;2009/12/08(1):152–8.
6. Al-Delaimy WK, White MM, Mills AL, et al. *Two Decades of the California Tobacco Control Program: California Tobacco Survey, 1990-2008*. La Jolla, CA: University of California, San Diego; 2010.
7. Trinidad DR, Pérez-Stable EJ, Emery SL, White MM, Grana RA, Messer KS. Intermittent and light daily smoking across racial/ethnic groups in the United States. *Nicotine Tob Res*. 2009;11(2):203–210. doi:10.1093/ntr/ntn018.
8. Haiman CA, Stram DO, Wilkens LR, et al. Ethnic and racial differences in the smoking-related risk of lung cancer. *N Engl J Med*. 2006;354(4):333–342. doi:10.1056/NEJMoa033250.
9. 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): Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (US); 2014.
10. Horner MJ, Ries L, Krapcho M, Neyman N. *SEER Cancer Statistics Review, 1975–2006, National Cancer Institute. Bethesda, MD, Ht Tp*. seer. cancer. gov/csr/ ...; 2008.
11. Leistikow B. Lung cancer rates as an index of tobacco smoke exposures: validation against black male approximate non-lung cancer death rates, 1969-2000. *Prev Med*. 2004;38(5):511–515. doi:10.1016/j.ypmed.2003.11.025.
12. Howlader N, Noone AM, Krapcho M, Garshell J. *SEER Cancer Statistics Review, 1975–2011*. 2013.

18

13. Al-Delaimy WK, Willett WC. Toenail nicotine level as a novel biomarker for lung cancer risk. *Am J Epidemiol*. 2011;173(7):822–828. doi:10.1093/aje/kwq446.
14. Health CDOP. California Adult & Youth Smoking Prevalence Data Charts. 2010; [http://www.cdph.ca.gov/programs/tobacco/Documents/Media/2010%20adult%20and%20youth%20prevalence%20memo_figures%20\(7\)v2.pdf](http://www.cdph.ca.gov/programs/tobacco/Documents/Media/2010%20adult%20and%20youth%20prevalence%20memo_figures%20(7)v2.pdf).
15. Health CDOP. *Adult Smoking Prevalence*. (Health CDOP, ed.). Sacramento, CA: California Department of Public Health, California Tobacco Control Program; 2010.
16. Al-Delaimy WK, Pierce JP, Messer K, White MM, Trinidad DR, Gilpin EA. The California Tobacco Control Program's effect on adult smokers: (2) Daily cigarette consumption levels. *Tob Control*. 2007;16(2):91–95. doi:10.1136/tc.2006.017061.
17. Pierce JP, Messer K, White MM, Cowling DW, Thomas DP. Prevalence of heavy smoking in California and the United States, 1965–2007. *JAMA*. 2011;305(11):1106–1112. doi:10.1001/jama.2011.334.
18. Husten CG. How should we define light or intermittent smoking? Does it matter? *Nicotine Tob Res*. 2009;11(2):111–121. doi:10.1093/ntr/ntp010.
19. Pierce JP, Gilpin EA. A minimum 6-month prolonged abstinence should be required for evaluating smoking cessation trials. *Nicotine Tob Res*. 2003;5(2):151–153.
20. SAS Institute. *SAS Certification Prep Guide: Base Programming for SAS 9*. 2011.
21. Efron B, Efron B. *The Jackknife, the Bootstrap and Other Resampling Plans*. SIAM; 1982.
22. Werner CA. *The Older Population: 2010*. 2010. 2012.
23. Lightwood J, Glantz SA. The effect of the California tobacco control program on smoking prevalence, cigarette consumption, and healthcare costs: 1989–2008. Fielding R, ed. *PloS one*. 2013;8(2):e47145. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0047145.
24. Foulds J, Stapleton J, Feyerabend C, Vesey C, Jarvis M, Russell MA. Effect of transdermal nicotine patches on cigarette smoking: a double blind crossover study. *Psychopharmacology*. 1992;106(3):421–427.
25. Patterson F, Benowitz N, Shields P, et al. Individual differences in nicotine intake per cigarette. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev*. 2003;12(5):468–471.
26. Rock VJ, Davis SP, Thorne SL, Asman KJ, Caraballo RS. Menthol cigarette use among racial and ethnic groups in the United States, 2004–2008. *Nicotine Tob Res*. 2010;12 Suppl 2:S117–24. doi:10.1093/ntr/ntq204.
27. Trinidad DR, Pérez-Stable EJ, Messer K, White MM, Pierce JP. Menthol cigarettes and smoking cessation among racial/ethnic groups in the United States. *Addiction*. 2010;105

- Suppl 1:84–94. doi:10.1111/j.1360-0443.2010.03187.x.
28. Okuyemi KS, Ebersole-Robinson M, Nazir N, Ahluwalia JS. African-American menthol and nonmenthol smokers: differences in smoking and cessation experiences. *J Natl Med Assoc.* 2004;96(9):1208–1211.
 29. Foulds J, Hooper MW, Pletcher MJ, Okuyemi KS. Do smokers of menthol cigarettes find it harder to quit smoking? *Nicotine Tob Res.* 2010;12 Suppl 2(Supplement 2):S102–9. doi:10.1093/ntr/ntq166.
 30. Ahijevych K, Garrett BE. The role of menthol in cigarettes as a reinforcer of smoking behavior. *Nicotine Tob Res.* 2010;12 Suppl 2:S110–S116. doi:10.1093/ntr/ntq203.
 31. Benowitz NL, Herrera B, Jacob P. Mentholated cigarette smoking inhibits nicotine metabolism. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther.* 2004;310(3):1208–1215. doi:10.1124/jpet.104.066902.
 32. Perez-Stable EJ, Herrera B, Jacob P III. Nicotine metabolism and intake in black and white smokers. *JAMA.* 1998. doi:10.1001/jama.280.2.152.
 33. Williams JM, Gandhi KK, Steinberg ML, Foulds J, Ziedonis DM, Benowitz NL. Higher nicotine and carbon monoxide levels in menthol cigarette smokers with and without schizophrenia. *Nicotine Tob Res.* 2007;9(8):873–881. doi:10.1080/14622200701484995.
 34. Schane RE, Ling PM, Glantz SA. Health effects of light and intermittent smoking: a review. *Circulation.* 2010;121(13):1518–1522. doi:10.1161/CIRCULATIONAHA.109.904235.
 35. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (US), National Center for Chronic Disease Prevention and Health Promotion (US), Office on Smoking and Health (US). *How Tobacco Smoke Causes Disease: the Biology and Behavioral Basis for Smoking-Attributable Disease: a Report of the Surgeon General.* Atlanta (GA): Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (US); 2010.
 36. Luoto R, Uutela A, Puska P. Occasional smoking increases total and cardiovascular mortality among men. *Nicotine Tob Res.* 2000;2(2):133–139.
 37. Ackerson LK, Viswanath K. Communication inequalities, social determinants, and intermittent smoking in the 2003 Health Information National Trends Survey. *Prev Chronic Dis.* 2009;6(2):A40.
 38. Shiffman S, Tindle H, Li X, Scholl S, Dunbar M, Mitchell-Miland C. Characteristics and smoking patterns of intermittent smokers. *Exp Clin Psychopharmacol.* 2012;20(4):264–277. doi:10.1037/a0027546.
 39. Wortley PM, Husten CG, Trosclair A. Nondaily smokers: a descriptive analysis. *Nicotine Tob Res.* 2003.

- 1
2
3
4
5
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
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
40. Schauer GL, Malarcher AM, Berg CJ. Differences in smoking and cessation characteristics among adult nondaily smokers in the United States: findings from the 2009-2010 National Adult Tobacco Survey. *Nicotine Tob Res.* 2014;16(1):58–68. doi:10.1093/ntr/ntt113.
 41. Berg CJ, Schauer GL, Buchanan TS, et al. Perceptions of addiction, attempts to quit, and successful quitting in nondaily and daily smokers. *Psychol of Addict Behav.* 2013;27(4):1059–1067. doi:10.1037/a0033790.
 42. Owen N, Kent P, Wakefield M, Roberts L. Low-rate smokers. *Prev Med.* 1995;24(1):80–84. doi:10.1006/pmed.1995.1011.
 43. Berg CJ, Lust KA, Sanem JR, et al. Smoker self-identification versus recent smoking among college students. *Am J Prev Med.* 2009;36(4):333–336. doi:10.1016/j.amepre.2008.11.010.
 44. Brown AE, Carpenter MJ, Sutfin EL. Occasional smoking in college: who, what, when and why? *Addict Behav.* 2011;36(12):1199–1204. doi:10.1016/j.addbeh.2011.07.024.
 45. Moran S, Wechsler H, Rigotti NA. Social smoking among US college students. *Pediatrics.* 2004;114(4):1028–1034. doi:10.1542/peds.2003-0558-L.
 46. Gilpin E, Cavin SW, Pierce JP. Adult smokers who do not smoke daily. *Addiction.* 1997;92(4):473–480.
 47. DiFranza JR. Hooked from the first cigarette. *J Fam Pract.* 2007;56(12):1017–1022.
 48. Savageau JA, Mowery PD, DiFranza JR. Symptoms of diminished autonomy over cigarettes with non-daily use. *Int J Environ Res Public Health.* 2009;6(1):25–35. doi:10.3390/ijerph6010025.
 49. Tindle HA, Shiffman S. Smoking cessation behavior among intermittent smokers versus daily smokers. *Am J Public Health.* 2011;101(7):e1–3. doi:10.2105/AJPH.2011.300186.
 50. Blanco L, Nydegger LA, Sakuma K-LK, Tong EK, White MM, Trinidad DR. Increases in light and intermittent smoking among Asian Americans and non-Hispanic Whites. *Nicotine Tob Res.* 2014;16(6):904–908. doi:10.1093/ntr/ntu027.
 51. Blanco L, Garcia R, Pérez-Stable EJ, et al. National trends in smoking behaviors among Mexican, Puerto Rican, and Cuban men and women in the United States. *Am J Public Health.* 2014;104(5):896–903. doi:10.2105/AJPH.2013.301844.
 52. Pulvers K, Romero DR, Blanco L, Sakuma K-LK, Ahluwalia JS, Trinidad DR. Light and Intermittent Smoking Among California Black, Hispanic/Latino, and Non-Hispanic White Men and Women. *Nicotine Tob Res.* 2014. doi:10.1093/ntr/ntu221.
 53. Gundersen DA, Delnevo CD, Wackowski O. Exploring the relationship between race/ethnicity, menthol smoking, and cessation, in a nationally representative sample of

- adults. *Prev Med*. 2009;49(6):553–557. doi:10.1016/j.ypmed.2009.10.003.
54. Giovino GA, Sidney S, Gfroerer JC, et al. Epidemiology of menthol cigarette use. *Nicotine Tob Res*. 2004;6 Suppl 1(1):S67–81. doi:10.1080/14622203710001649696.
55. Gardiner PS. The African Americanization of menthol cigarette use in the United States. *Nicotine Tob Res*. 2004;6 Suppl 1(1):S55–65. doi:10.1080/14622200310001649478.
56. Levy DT, Blackman K, Tauras J, et al. Quit attempts and quit rates among menthol and nonmenthol smokers in the United States. *Am J Public Health*. 2011;101(7):1241–1247. doi:10.2105/AJPH.2011.300178.
57. Stahre M, Okuyemi KS, Joseph AM, Fu SS. Racial/ethnic differences in menthol cigarette smoking, population quit ratios and utilization of evidence-based tobacco cessation treatments. *Addiction*. 2010;105 Suppl 1:75–83. doi:10.1111/j.1360-0443.2010.03200.x.
58. Yerger VB. Menthol's potential effects on nicotine dependence: a tobacco industry perspective. *Tob Control*. 2011;20 Suppl 2(Supplement 2):ii29–36. doi:10.1136/tc.2010.041970.
59. Hoffman AC, Simmons D. Menthol cigarette smoking and nicotine dependence. *Tob Induc Dis*. 2011;9 Suppl 1(Suppl 1):S5. doi:10.1186/1617-9625-9-S1-S5.
60. TPSAC. *Menthol Cigarettes and Public Health: Review of the Scientific Evidence and Recommendations*. (Board TPSA, ed.). 2011.
61. Okuyemi KS, Faseru B, Sanderson Cox L, Bronars CA, Ahluwalia JS. Relationship between menthol cigarettes and smoking cessation among African American light smokers. *Addiction*. 2007;102(12):1979–1986. doi:10.1111/j.1360-0443.2007.02010.x.
62. Anderson SJ. Marketing of menthol cigarettes and consumer perceptions: a review of tobacco industry documents. *Tob Control*. 2011;20 Suppl 2(Supplement 2):ii20–8. doi:10.1136/tc.2010.041939.
63. Villanti AC, Richardson A, Vallone DM, Rath JM. Flavored tobacco product use among U.S. young adults. *Am J Prev Med*. 2013;44(4):388–391. doi:10.1016/j.amepre.2012.11.031.
64. Faseru B, Choi WS, Krebill R, et al. Factors associated with smoking menthol cigarettes among treatment-seeking African American light smokers. *Addict Behav*. 2011;36(12):1321–1324. doi:10.1016/j.addbeh.2011.07.015.
65. Businelle MS, Kendzor DE, Costello TJ, et al. Light versus heavy smoking among African American men and women. *Addict Behav*. 2009;34(2):197–203. doi:10.1016/j.addbeh.2008.10.009.
66. American Cancer Society. *How Do You Measure Up? a Progress Report on State Legislative Activity to Reduce Cancer Incidence and Mortality*. American Cancer Society

- 1
2
3
4 Cancer Action Network; 2013.
- 5
6 67. Max W, Sung H-Y, Lightwood J. The impact of changes in tobacco control funding on
7 healthcare expenditures in California, 2012-2016. *Tob Control*. 2013;22(e1):e10-5.
8 doi:10.1136/tobaccocontrol-2011-050130.
- 9
10 68. Pierce JP, Gilpin EA, Emery SL, et al. Has the California tobacco control program
11 reduced smoking? *JAMA*. 1998;280(10):893-899.
- 12
13 69. American Lung Association. *State of Tobacco Control 2013 - California Local Grades*.
14 Oakland, CA; 2013.
- 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
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Figure 1. Proportion of light daily smokers (i.e., consumption of 0-5 cigarettes per day) and intermittent smokers (i.e., occasional/non-daily smokers) among African American and non-Hispanic white current smokers between 1996 and 2008

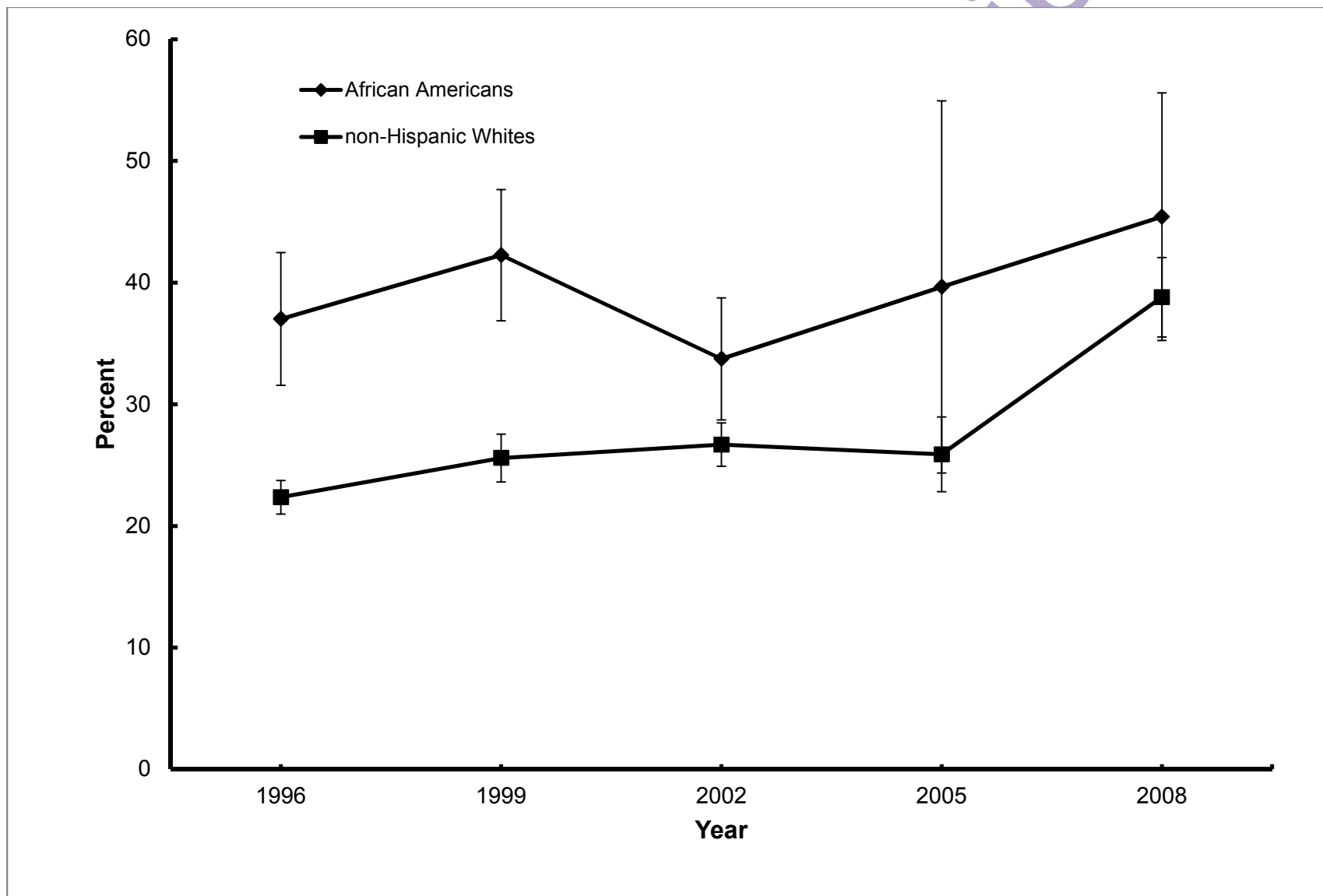


Figure 2. Proportion of moderate daily smokers (i.e., consumption of 6-19 cigarettes per day) and heavy daily smokers (i.e., consumption of 20 or more cigarettes per day) among African American and non-Hispanic white current smokers between 1996 and 2008

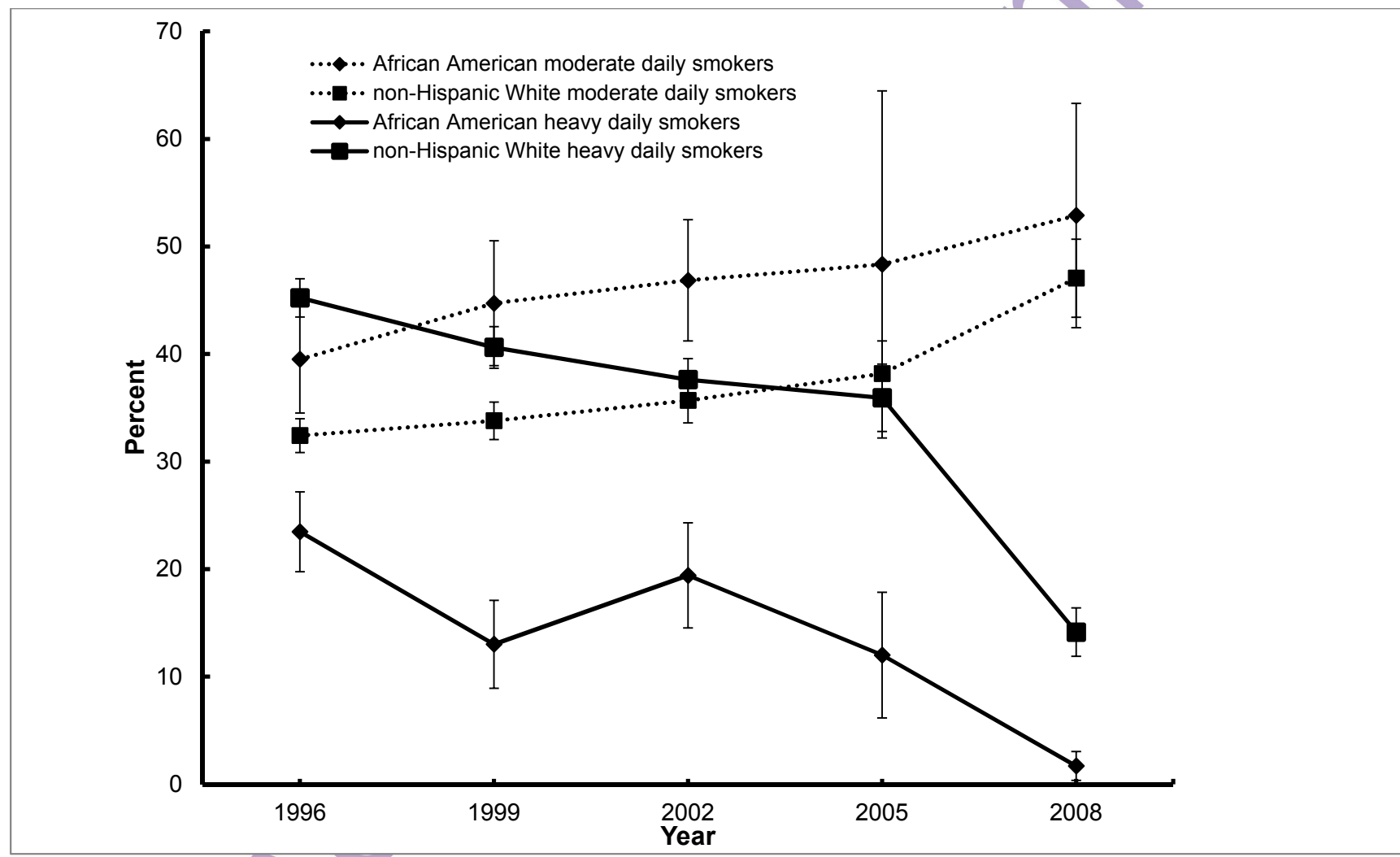


TABLE 1a - Demographic Characteristics and Smoking Behaviors, African Americans, 1996-2008

	1996		1999		2002		2005		2008	
	unweighted n=1132		unweighted n=758		unweighted n=1660		unweighted n=1489		unweighted n=1553	
	%,	(95% CI)	%,	(95% CI)	%,	(95% CI)	%,	(95% CI)	%,	(95% CI)
Age										
18-34	41.6	(38.9 , 44.4)	36.9	(33.1 , 40.8)	33.4	(31.5 , 35.3)	32.2	(28.3 , 36.0)	30.4	(26.7 , 34.1)
35-49	33.3	(30.2 , 36.4)	31.2	(26.9 , 35.5)	33.8	(31.0 , 36.6)	33.3	(28.1 , 38.5)	30.3	(26.8 , 33.7)
50-64	14.4	(11.9 , 17.0)	18.4	(14.8 , 22.1)	21.1	(19.4 , 22.8)	20.7	(17.3 , 24.1)	20.5	(18.5 , 22.4)
65+	10.6	(8.1 , 13.1)	13.4	(10.1 , 16.8)	11.7	(10.1 , 13.3)	13.8	(10.6 , 17.1)	18.9	(17.3 , 20.5)
Sex										
Male	47.4	(43.1 , 51.7)	43.8	(39.5 , 48.2)	48.2	(45.1 , 51.4)	45.1	(40.1 , 50.1)	49.3	(43.9 , 54.8)
Female	52.6	(48.3 , 56.9)	56.2	(51.8 , 60.5)	51.8	(48.6 , 54.9)	54.9	(49.9 , 59.9)	50.7	(45.2 , 56.1)
Education										
Less than high school	10.4	(5.8 , 15.0)	12.7	(10.3 , 15.1)	7.8	(6.6 , 9.0)	21.5	(17.3 , 25.8)	8.9	(6.6 , 11.1)
High school grad	26.1	(18.1 , 34.2)	26.1	(23.1 , 29.0)	27.2	(25.3 , 29.0)	20.6	(16.5 , 24.6)	27.2	(24.8 , 29.5)
Some college	42.6	(33.7 , 51.5)	38.0	(33.8 , 42.1)	40.6	(38.1 , 43.2)	32.4	(29.1 , 35.6)	34.4	(31.5 , 37.4)
College grad	20.9	(12.3 , 29.5)	23.3	(20.2 , 26.3)	24.4	(22.5 , 26.3)	25.5	(22.3 , 28.8)	29.5	(26.9 , 32.1)
Cigarette Consumption										
Never smokers	57.9	(55.7 , 60.2)	59.8	(57.6 , 62.1)	59.3	(58.2 , 60.5)	57.4	(55.3 , 59.4)	63.5	(61.4 , 65.6)
<i>Ever smokers</i>	42.1	(39.8 , 44.3)	40.2	(37.9 , 42.4)	40.7	(39.5 , 41.8)	42.6	(40.6 , 44.7)	36.5	(34.4 , 38.6)
<i>Current smokers</i>	56.3	(52.4 , 60.2)	50.4	(47.0 , 53.7)	47.2	(45.4 , 49.0)	49.8	(45.8 , 53.7)	42.0	(37.6 , 46.4)
Light and intermittent smokers	37.0	(31.6 , 42.5)	42.3	(36.9 , 47.7)	33.7	(28.7 , 38.7)	39.6	(24.4 , 54.9)	45.4	(35.2 , 55.6)
Moderate daily smokers	39.5	(34.5 , 44.5)	44.7	(38.9 , 50.5)	46.8	(41.2 , 52.5)	48.3	(32.2 , 64.5)	52.9	(42.5 , 63.3)
Heavy daily smokers	23.5	(19.8 , 27.2)	13.0	(8.9 , 17.1)	19.4	(14.5 , 24.3)	12.0	(6.2 , 17.9)	1.7	(0.4 , 3.0)
Former smokers	43.7	(39.8 , 47.6)	49.6	(46.3 , 53.0)	52.8	(51.0 , 54.6)	50.2	(46.3 , 54.2)	58.0	(53.6 , 62.4)

Note. CI = confidence interval; Percentages and 95%CI were calculated using weighted data. Current and Former smoker prevalence is calculated with the denominator as Ever Smokers; Consumption level prevalence, i.e. Light and intermittent smokers, moderate daily smokers, and heavy smokers, were calculated using current smokers as the denominator.

Accepted

TABLE 1b - Demographic Characteristics and Smoking Behaviors, Non-Hispanic whites, 1996-2008

	1996		1999		2002		2005		2008	
	unweighted n=12846		unweighted n=9410		unweighted n=11163		unweighted n=7542		unweighted n=5156	
	%,	(95% CI)	%,	(95% CI)	%,	(95% CI)	%,	(95% CI)	%,	(95% CI)
Age										
18-34	29.0	(28.0 , 30.0)	27.8	(26.9 , 28.7)	26.7	(25.7 , 27.7)	22.3	(20.6 , 23.9)	21.7	(20.2 , 23.3)
35-49	32.3	(31.0 , 33.6)	31.8	(30.6 , 33.0)	31.6	(30.1 , 33.0)	30.1	(28.0 , 32.2)	30.2	(28.2 , 32.1)
50-64	20.5	(19.6 , 21.5)	21.2	(20.2 , 22.1)	22.1	(20.9 , 23.3)	24.8	(23.0 , 26.6)	26.2	(24.4 , 28.0)
65+	18.2	(17.3 , 19.1)	19.2	(18.1 , 20.2)	19.6	(18.5 , 20.7)	22.8	(20.9 , 24.6)	21.9	(19.9 , 24.0)
Sex										
Male	49.6	(48.7 , 50.6)	48.7	(47.7 , 49.8)	49.9	(48.4 , 51.5)	49.9	(47.3 , 52.4)	50.1	(47.7 , 52.4)
Female	50.4	(49.4 , 51.3)	51.3	(50.2 , 52.3)	50.1	(48.5 , 51.6)	50.1	(47.6 , 52.7)	49.9	(47.6 , 52.3)
Education										
Less than high school	9.2	(7.9 , 10.5)	8.1	(7.7 , 8.6)	7.7	(7.6 , 7.9)	6.8	(6.6 , 7.0)	3.4	(2.7 , 4.1)
High school grad	23.4	(21.3 , 25.4)	23.2	(22.5 , 24.0)	19.4	(18.7 , 20.1)	21.4	(20.8 , 22.0)	22.1	(21.0 , 23.2)
Some college	35.2	(32.8 , 37.5)	34.3	(33.2 , 35.5)	33.2	(31.9 , 34.5)	31.8	(29.3 , 34.3)	28.7	(26.8 , 30.7)
College grad	32.1	(29.8 , 34.4)	34.2	(33.2 , 35.2)	39.6	(38.4 , 40.8)	40.0	(37.6 , 42.5)	45.8	(43.9 , 47.7)
Cigarette Consumption										
Never smokers	50.1	(49.5 , 50.7)	49.7	(49.1 , 50.4)	53.5	(52.8 , 54.1)	54.0	(52.2 , 55.9)	56.2	(54.6 , 57.7)
<i>Ever smokers</i>	49.9	(49.3 , 50.5)	50.3	(49.6 , 50.9)	46.5	(45.9 , 47.2)	46.0	(44.1 , 47.8)	43.8	(42.3 , 45.4)
<i>Current smokers</i>	40.0	(39.3 , 40.7)	38.6	(37.9 , 39.3)	36.8	(36.1 , 37.5)	32.2	(30.5 , 34.0)	30.1	(28.8 , 31.4)
Light and intermittent smokers	22.4	(21.0 , 23.7)	25.6	(23.6 , 27.5)	26.7	(24.9 , 28.5)	25.9	(22.8 , 29.0)	38.8	(35.5 , 42.1)
Moderate daily smokers	32.4	(30.8 , 34.0)	33.8	(32.0 , 35.5)	35.7	(33.6 , 37.8)	38.2	(35.1 , 41.2)	47.1	(43.4 , 50.7)
Heavy daily smokers	45.2	(43.5 , 47.0)	40.6	(38.7 , 42.6)	37.6	(35.7 , 39.6)	35.9	(32.8 , 39.1)	14.1	(11.9 , 16.4)
Former smokers	60.0	(59.3 , 60.7)	61.4	(60.7 , 62.1)	63.2	(62.5 , 63.9)	67.8	(66.0 , 69.5)	69.9	(68.6 , 71.2)

Note. CI = confidence interval; Percentages and 95%CI were calculated using weighted data. Current and Former smoker prevalence is calculated with the denominator as Ever Smokers; Consumption level prevalence, i.e. Light and intermittent smokers, moderate daily smokers, and heavy smokers, were calculated using current smokers as the denominator.