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Cost-effectiveness of telephone coaching for physically inactive non-admitted hospital patients: economic evaluation alongside the Healthy 4U randomised controlled trial

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Cost-effectiveness of telephone coaching for physically inactive non-admitted hospital patients: economic evaluation alongside the Healthy 4U randomised controlled trial

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Abstract

Objective: To assess whether telephone coaching is a cost-effectiveness method for increasing physical activity and health-related quality of life for insufficiently active adults presenting to a non-admitted clinic in a public hospital.

Design: Within-trial cost-effectiveness analysis.

Setting: Participants were recruited from a non-admitted secondary care clinic in a public hospital in regional Australia.

Participants: Adults (aged 18-69) deemed insufficiently physically active via self-report.

Interventions: Participants were randomised to either an intervention group that received an education session and eight sessions of telephone coaching over a 12-week period, or to a control group that received the education session only. The intervention used in the telephone coaching intervention was integrated motivational interviewing and cognitive behaviour therapy (MI-CBT).

Outcome measures: The primary health outcome was change in moderate-to-vigorous physical activity (MVPA), objectively measured via accelerometry. The secondary outcome was the quality-adjusted life-year (QALY) determined by the SF-12 Questionnaire. Outcome data was measured at baseline, post-intervention (3-months) and follow-up (6-months). Incremental cost-effectiveness ratios (ICERs) were calculated for each outcome. Non-parametric bootstrapping techniques and sensitivity analyses were performed to account for uncertainty.

Results: The mean intervention cost was \$279 ± \$13 per person. At six-months follow-up, relative to control, the intervention group undertook 18 more minutes of daily MVPA at an ICER of \$15/minute for each additional minute of MVPA. With regard to QALYs, the intervention

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3 yielded an ICER of \$36,857 per QALY gained. Sensitivity analyses indicated that results were
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5 robust to varied assumptions.
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8 **Conclusion:** Integrating telephone coaching into non-admitted hospital care is a relatively low-
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10 cost strategy for increasing MVPA and QALYs in insufficiently physically active non-admitted
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12 hospital patients. Additional research could explore the potential economic impact of the
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14 intervention from a broader healthcare perspective.
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16 17 **Trial Registration**

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20 ANZCTR: ACTRN12616001331426. Registered 23 September 2016
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22 23 **Keywords**

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25 Health promotion; Hospital; Secondary Care; Physical activity; Cost-benefit analysis
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28 29 **Article Summary**

30 31 **Strengths and limitations of this study**

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34 • This study is the first to investigate the cost-effectiveness of telephone delivered MI-CBT
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36 for insufficiently physically active secondary care hospital patients.
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40 • Economic evaluations enable hospitals to estimate the costs of delivering preventive
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42 health interventions, which are important for addressing the burden of chronic disease.
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46 • Changes in physical activity were measured using accelerometers, strengthening the
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48 confidence in the findings.
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51 • Results are limited by a short time horizon and a narrow costing perspective.
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54 • Further research is needed to explore the potential long-term economic impact of the
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56 intervention from a broader healthcare perspective.
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INTRODUCTION

Insufficient physical activity (PA) is an established risk factor for the development of a number of chronic diseases, including cardiovascular disease, type 2 diabetes and obesity[1]. Despite the well-established benefits of PA[2], more than half of the population does not attain sufficient levels of PA to derive such benefits[3]. The estimated cost of insufficient PA in Australia is AU\$805 million per annum[4]. Addressing the prevalence of insufficient physical activity is a major public health priority, and necessitates that multiple sectors of the healthcare industry are actively engaged in physical activity promotion[5].

Hospitals are important settings in which to offer health promotion interventions. Patients attending outpatient hospital clinics are more likely than the general population to have one or more chronic disease[6 7]. Additionally, patients in situations of ill-health are more open to behaviour change contemplation[8]. Substantial efforts have been made to promote increased engagement in PA using individual and population-based approaches[9]. This has resulted in an increased use of behaviour change interventions to influence participation in PA[10].

Studies suggest that telephone coaching interventions improve clinical outcomes, self-efficacy, and health status[11 12]. To make the benefits of telephone coaching more broadly available in hospital settings, alternative models have been implemented and found to be effective[13]. The addition of telephone coaching to standard care resulted in significant improvements in objectively measured physical activity and health related outcomes[13], however, the cost to improve these outcomes has not been reported.

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3 Few studies have employed any form of economic analyses on telephone coaching, and little is
4 known about the relative cost-effectiveness of adding telephone coaching to routine care in non-
5 admitted hospital settings. The purpose of this study was to evaluate the cost-effectiveness of
6 the Healthy4U program for increasing measured PA and the number of quality adjusted life
7 years (QALYs) experienced over a 6-month period from a hospital perspective.
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17 **METHODS**

18 **Study design**

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21 The Healthy4U study was a single-blind randomised controlled trial reported in line with the
22 CHEERS reporting guidelines[14] (Additional file 1). The trial design, participants, sample size,
23 intervention, outcomes and ethics approvals have been described in detail elsewhere[13].
24 Briefly, study participants (n = 72) were insufficiently physically active adults recruited from
25 ambulatory outpatient clinics at a major tertiary hospital in a regional town in Victoria, Australia.
26 The primary aim was to promote change in objectively measured physical activity during the
27 trial.
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42 **Intervention**

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44 All enrolled participants attended a 30-minute group education session. The education session
45 was a facilitated learning session focused on self-management and lifestyle modification, and
46 was carried out using a self-determination theory framework[15].
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3 The intervention group completed a telephone-based, integrated motivational interviewing and
4 cognitive behaviour therapy (MI-CBT) intervention, delivered in eight 30-minute sessions over
5 12 weeks. The intervention was delivered by an experienced allied health clinician trained in MI-
6 CBT. All participants enrolled into the control arm attended the education session. Apart from
7 contact regarding follow-up outcome measures, participants in the control group received no
8 further contact initiated by the research team.
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19 **Measurement of effects**

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22 Outcome measures were recorded at baseline, after 3 months of intervention (post-intervention)
23 and at 6 months (follow-up) by assessors blinded to the study group assignment. The primary
24 outcome measure was a change in moderate-to-vigorous physical activity (MVPA), objectively
25 measured by accelerometry (wGT3X-BT; Actigraph, USA). To be included in the analysis, a
26 minimum wear time of ≥ 10 h/day for 5 of the 7-day period was required, including at least 1
27 weekend day[16]. Weekly PA totals were summed from the daily totals for persons with 7 valid
28 days of monitoring, or estimated as 7 times the average daily total for persons with 5 to 6 valid
29 days of monitoring. Using the summed weekly totals, participants were classified as either
30 meeting or not meeting the recommended PA guidelines[17].
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45 A secondary outcome was a change in health-related quality of life (HrQoL) and QALYs, which
46 was derived from the Medical Outcomes Study Short Form 12 Health Survey (SF-12) and the
47 standard Brazier algorithm[18 19]. The SF-12 scores were converted to utility scores on a scale
48 of 0 to 1, with a higher score indicating a more favourable health state[19]. These utility
49 estimates were converted to QALYs by calculating the 'area under the curve' utility estimates for
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3 the different follow-up time intervals for each participant, weighted by the length of follow-up at
4 that time interval.
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10 **Measurement of costs**

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13 The cost analysis was designed and conducted from a hospital perspective, which allows health
14 care organizations to gauge the approximate cost of offering this program[20]. A bottom-up
15 micro-costing approach was used to calculate the intervention costs[21]. This approach involves
16 the detailed collection of information regarding the quantities of resources consumed while
17 implementing and executing the interventions, as well as their respective unit prices[21]. Only
18 those costs involved in implementing the intervention (e.g., training of individuals carrying out
19 and undertaking the intervention) were included. Protocol-driven costs, namely the costs of
20 gathering data as part of the clinical trial were considered to be sunk costs and were therefore
21 excluded from the cost-effectiveness analysis[20].
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36 The program costs included group facilitator time, intervention time, and supplies. The group
37 facilitator's time that was spent preparing for and facilitating group meetings. The intervention
38 assistant's time was calculated as the time spent undertaking reminder phone calls to
39 participants. The intervention costs were calculated as the time spent in 1:1 consultation with
40 the participants. Both group facilitation and intervention costs were calculated using the annual
41 salary of an experienced allied health clinician as they would most likely to be used in delivering
42 MI-CBT were the intervention to be implemented on a large scale (AU\$82,924). Intervention
43 assistant costs were based upon the annual salary of an Allied Health Assistant (AU\$45,338).
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53 Finally, the costs of supplies, including the program manuals were included in the program cost.
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3 The group facilitator's time per group meeting was estimated at 2.5 hours, which included 0.5
4 hours for the group meeting itself, 1.0 hour to set up before and clean up after the group
5 meeting, and 1.0 hour to prepare for the group meeting (i.e., reviewing meeting notes and
6 presentation material). The group facilitator's cost per meeting per participant was calculated by
7 dividing the facilitator's cost per meeting by the number of participants that attended each
8 meeting. Due to the short time frame in which costs and effects occurred discounting was not
9 necessary[22]. All program costs were calculated in 2017 Australian dollars (AU\$).
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21 **Statistical analysis**

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24 Analyses of trial data have been reported elsewhere[13]. In brief, mixed-model ANOVAs were
25 used to assess the effects of the intervention on each of the outcome variables. The mean \pm SD
26 for the overall cost and for the change in each outcome at 6-months was calculated. For each
27 outcome, the incremental cost-effectiveness ratio (ICER) was calculated by dividing the
28 difference in costs by the difference in effects between the intervention and control groups
29 where the difference in effects between the two groups was calculated using a change from
30 baseline approach to control for different baseline utilities. Uncertainty in the ICER estimates
31 was accounted for by generating 1000 bootstrap replicates of the dataset, a widely used method
32 in health economic evaluations. To account for uncertainty, 95% confidence intervals were
33 calculated for each ICER using nonparametric bootstrapping based on the 2.5th and 97.5th
34 percentiles of 1000 bootstrap replications. Probabilistic sensitivity analysis was completed by
35 calculating the cost-effectiveness acceptability curve (CEAC) derived from the bootstrap
36 replicates. CEAC indicates the probability that the intervention was cost effectiveness at
37 different values of willingness to pay for the additional improvement in the outcome[23].
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3 An additional 4 sensitivity analyses were used to examine how the results changed under
4 different input assumptions. In the first 2 analyses, personnel wages and training costs were
5 varied by 20% in either direction before recalculating the ICERs. The third sensitivity analysis
6 using the summed weekly MVPA totals to estimate the ICER for each additional minute of
7 MVPA per week. The fourth sensitivity analysis considered a different outcome measure for PA,
8 using the summed weekly MVPA totals to estimate the ICER for changing one individual from
9 insufficiently physically active to sufficiently physical activity (≥ 150 minutes MVPA per
10 week)[17].
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23 **Patient and public involvement**

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26 The study was approved by the Research Ethics Committees of Bendigo Health Care group
27 (approved September 16, 2016; reference number LNR/16/BHCG/42) and La Trobe University
28 College of Science Health and Engineering Human Ethics Sub-Committee (approved October 3,
29 2016) and is registered on ANZCTR.org.au (registration number ACTRN12616001331426).
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31 Participants gave written informed consent for participation in the study for the original
32 randomised trial. There are no plans to disseminate the results of the current study to study
33 participants. For further information on patient involvement see reference [13].
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45 **RESULTS**

46 **Resource use and costs**

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49 A total of 72 participants completed their baseline and 3-month assessment, and 68 participants
50 completed the 6-month assessment. The group consisted of 54 females and 18 males, with an
51 average age of 53 ± 8 . The program resources and cost per participant are described in Table
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3 1. Attendance at the education session was mandatory, with full attendance recorded for both
4 groups. The mean group program time was 34 ± 6 minutes, and the mean total participant time
5 spent in the intervention was 242 ± 14 minutes. The mean cost per participant was $\$279 \pm \10
6 for intervention versus $\$21 \pm \3 for control. The main component costs of MI-CBT were
7 intervention delivery and training.
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17 **Table 1.** Utilisation and cost of program delivery for intervention and control groups
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Item	Provider	Units	Time (h)	Cost/h	Total AU\$ cost per participant
Intervention group					
Group Sessions	Allied Health professional	1	2.5	41.90	17.45
Phone call reminders	Intervention assistant	8	0.25	22.80	45.6
Intervention sessions	Allied Health professional	8	0.5	41.90	167.6
Program manual					3.5
Staff training					44.6
Total cost/participant					279
Control group					
Group Sessions	Allied Health professional	1	2.5	41.90	17.45
Program manual					3.5
Total cost/participant					21

42 Health outcomes

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45 Table 2 presents the mean costs and the mean change in each outcome at follow-up for each
46 group, and the corresponding ICERs. The ICER for MVPA was \$15 per each additional minute
47 of MVPA per day. The difference in QALYs between intervention and control groups was 0.007
48 QALYs over the course of the follow-up period. The ICER for the intervention group in
49 comparison with the control group was \$36,857 per QALY gained. Figures 1 and 2 illustrate the
50 cost-effectiveness acceptability curves for each outcome. For physical activity, given a
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willingness to pay of \$15 per additional minute of MVPA, the probability that the intervention was cost effective was 67%. At a willingness to pay of \$37,000 per QALY gained, the probability that the intervention is cost effective was 52%. If the decision maker was willing to pay \$40,000 per QALY, the probability of cost-effectiveness was 70%.

Table 2. Costs, changes in outcomes and incremental cost-effectiveness ratios at follow-up.

Outcome	Cost AU\$/Participant	Outcome	Incremental cost	Incremental outcome	ICER
MVPA					
Control	21	23			
Intervention	279	41	258	18	AU\$15/min MVPA per day
QALYs					
Control	21	-0.005			
Intervention	279	0.002	258	0.007	AU\$36, 857/QALY

ICER, Incremental cost-effectiveness ratio; MVPA, moderate to vigorous physical activity; QALYs: quality adjusted life years.

Figure 1 and 2 near here

In the sensitivity analyses, training and implementation costs were varied 20% in each direction, and the corresponding ICERs were recalculated (Table 3). The varied ICERs for MVPA was found to range from \$11 to \$17 per each additional minute of MVPA per day, while the ICER for QALYs ranged from \$29,428 to AU\$44,285 per QALY gained. The third sensitivity analysis

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3 demonstrated an ICER of \$2.86 per additional minute of MVPA per week. The final sensitivity
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5 analysis found that the intervention group was 33% more likely than control to meet
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7 recommended PA guidelines at follow-up, with an ICER of \$781 per PA guideline attained.
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Table 3. Sensitivity analyses for costs, changes in outcomes and incremental cost-effectiveness ratios at follow-up.

Outcome	Cost AU\$/ Participant	Outcome	Incremental cost	Incremental outcome	ICER
MVPA + 20% variation in cost					
Control	25	23			
Intervention	335	41	310	18	AU\$17/min MVPA per day
QALY + 20% variation in cost					
Control	25	-0.005			
Intervention	335	0.002	310	0.007	AU\$44,285 QALY
MVPA - 20% variation in cost					
Control	17	23			
Intervention	223	41	206	18	AU\$11/min MVPA per day
QALY - 20% variation in cost					
Control	17	-0.005			
Intervention	223	0.002	206	0.007	AU\$29,428 QALY
MVPA min per week					
Control	21	170			
Intervention	279	260	258	90	AU\$2.86/min MVPA per week
PA guidelines attained					
Control	21	20/36 (55%)			
Intervention	279	31/36 (86%)	258	33%	AU\$781/ PA guideline achieved

ICER, Incremental cost-effectiveness ratio; MVPA, moderate to vigorous physical activity; PA, Physical activity; QALYs: quality adjusted life years

DISCUSSION

This study examined the clinical and economic implications of a behaviour change intervention for changes in PA and QALYs for insufficiently physically active adults presenting to an ambulatory care clinic in a regional public hospital setting. Over the follow-up period the MI-CBT intervention was significantly more effective than control in increasing PA and HrQoL. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study to evaluate the cost-effectiveness and cost-utility of an integrated MI-CBT intervention for health-related behaviour change.

Telephone coaching can be cost effective for increasing physical activity with patients with or at risk of chronic disease[24]. However, little is known about the cost-effectiveness of adding preventive interventions to routine hospital care, where implementing an intervention requires an upfront investment of money. The total estimated cost of delivering the MI-CBT intervention was \$279 per person, resulting in the average attainment of 41 ± 12 minutes of MVPA per day at follow-up. The per person cost was similar to the \$245 per person found in recent primary care intervention for PA change[25], while both are considerably lower than costs of \$1,756/person[26] and \$1,562/person[27] reported in other lifestyle interventions aiming at changes in PA.

The cost-effective analysis for measured MVPA indicated a cost of \$11 per each additional minute of MVPA per day. Over the 6-month follow-up period this can be translated to a total cost of \$9 per day, or \$63 per week to increase MVPA by 150 minutes. Sensitivity analysis indicated a one-time cost of \$2.86 per each additional minute of MVPA per week, or \$8.25 per week to increase MVPA to 150 minutes a week over the 6-month follow up. The cost of \$8.25 per week to increase MVPA to 150 minutes is comparable to the \$4.99[28], \$8.13[29] and \$10.19[30] per

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3 week found in other interventions aimed at increasing physical activity. Increases in PA result in
4 decreased healthcare use, even in the short term, which result in net savings to society over
5 time[31]. Determining the cost-effectiveness of integrating telephone coaching into routine care
6 from a hospital perspective is therefore depending on the willingness-to-pay for each additional
7 minute of MVPA. The CEAC indicated a probability of 67% that \$15 per additional minute of
8 MVPA was cost effective.
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19 The intervention group was 33% more likely than the control group to undertake sufficient PA at
20 follow-up. Sensitivity analysis demonstrated an ICER of \$781 for converting one insufficiently
21 physically active adult to a sufficiently active state over the 6-month follow-up period. This value
22 falls with the ranges of \$175 to \$1801[32], and \$521 to \$5790[33] estimated in systematic
23 reviews investigating the cost-effectiveness of physical activity interventions. Undertaking
24 sufficient PA is strongly associated with decreased risk of chronic disease, morbidity and
25 mortality [1] as well as decreased healthcare expenditure over time[31].
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38 At follow-up, an incremental change in QALYs of 0.007 was demonstrated between the
39 intervention and control groups, resulting in an ICER of \$36,857 per QALY gained. The ICER of
40 \$36,857 per QALY gained is considerably smaller than the \$58,924 per QALY gained[26] and
41 the \$68,101 per QALY gained[27] found in similar intervention studies. Oskman et al. recently
42 reported an ICER of \$48,000 per QALY gained for a telephone-based health coaching
43 intervention for chronic disease patients[34]. Direct comparison with the results from the
44 aforementioned studies is challenging because different cost perspectives were considered in
45 these analyses. Nonetheless, the ICER of \$36,857 per QALY falls under the commonly used
46 threshold of \$50,000 per QALY gained proposed for medical treatments and procedures[35].
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3 Sensitivity analysis demonstrated that costs for the Healthy4U study are only mildly sensitive to
4 typical variation in the cost input values. A variation in hourly wage costs had the largest impact
5 on the ICERs, however, the ICERs remained well below the threshold of \$50,000 per QALY
6 gained at all imputed values.
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15 This study was unique in that we enrolled participants from an ambulatory care clinic in a public
16 hospital, integrating preventative health into secondary care. It is important to note that this
17 intervention was carried out in addition to standard care, not as a substitution, and as such an
18 economic evaluation costed from a hospital perspective offers healthcare providers an estimate
19 of the costs and effects of adding a preventative health intervention to clinical care. This study is
20 one of the few economic evaluations of telephone coaching carried out in real-life settings using
21 an RCT design. The addition of preventive health measures is likely to cost hospitals more,
22 however, these preventive measures might be worthwhile due to the substantial health benefits
23 that they confer, relative to their cost[31]. The greatest cost of the intervention was in the
24 delivery, due to the fact that it was delivered individually by trained personnel. These costs
25 could be reduced by decreasing the number of intervention sessions, with a recent meta-
26 analysis indicating that 5 sessions of MI-CBT is significantly effective for physical activity
27 change[36].
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46 The use of objectively measured PA at all time points was a considerable strength of the study.
47 Objective measures offer more precise estimates of activity intensity while removing many of
48 the issues associated with participant recall and response bias[37]. Individuals have been
49 demonstrated to overestimate their PA levels via self-report[38]. Overestimation of PA can result
50 in inaccurate estimations of both effectiveness and the cost-effectiveness of interventions[38].
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3 Using objectively measured changes in PA and the collection of full cost data for all participants
4 strengthens our findings[37].
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10 A noteworthy limitation of this study is the restricted perspective used for the economic
11 evaluation. Using a single hospital perspective might have led to the exclusion of important
12 costs and benefits from a societal perspective, including healthcare utilisation and changes in
13 productivity[39]. Economic analyses from a societal perspective offer the most comprehensive
14 evidence from which to base decisions[39]. However, due to the relatively short follow-up time
15 of this study it was not feasible to undertake this method. Significant effects on overall
16 healthcare utilisation or productivity loss were not expected over the timeframe of this study[40].
17 As the intervention was delivered using the telephone, the intervention required relatively small
18 amounts of participant time. With this in mind, the participant opportunity costs were expected to
19 be small and therefore not included in the analyses.
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35 To the best of our knowledge this is the first study comparing the cost-effectiveness and cost-
36 utility of an integrated MI-CBT intervention for health behaviour change amongst community-
37 dwelling adults presenting to a secondary care clinic in a regional public hospital setting.
38 Considering the large group of people who might benefit from such an intervention (i.e.,
39 approximately 50% of adults aged 18-69 years in Australia who are currently insufficiently
40 physically active), the widespread adoption and implementation of MI-CBT to increase PA could
41 have important economic implications. However, further research with a more comprehensive
42 economic analysis is needed to investigate whether the long-term benefits of MI-CBT might
43 justify this type of investment.
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Conclusion

The Healthy4U program is a relatively low-cost strategy for increasing physical activity among insufficiently physically active adults presenting to a non-admitted hospital clinic. The intervention increased measured PA and quality of life at low costs, with positive effects maintained out to 6-months. By increasing physical activity and quality of life at low costs, integrating telephone coaching programs into secondary hospital care offers a potentially cost-effective investment to produce better public health outcomes. The results are however grounded on a short-term follow-up and a restricted economic perspective, and more evidence is needed to explore the potential long-term economic impact of the intervention from a broader healthcare perspective.

Footnotes

Author Contributions: SB¹, MK, SB² and PO'H conceived the project and assisted with the protocol design. SB¹ managed the trial including recruitment and data collection, coordinated the intervention program, performed statistical analysis, and drafted the manuscript. SB¹ and SB² interpreted the data and drafted the manuscript. All authors read, edited and approved the final manuscript as submitted.

Funding: This research received no specific grant from any funding agency in the public, commercial or not-for-profit sectors

Competing interests: None declared.

Ethics approval: The study was approved by the Research Ethics Committees of Bendigo Health Care group (approved September 16, 2016; reference number LNR/16/BHCG/42) and La Trobe University College of Science Health and Engineering Human Ethics Sub-Committee (approved October 3, 2016). Written informed consent was obtained from all participants before they join the study.

Data sharing statement: All data requests should be made to the corresponding author.

Patient consent for publication: Not required.

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16 an economic evaluation alongside the Vitalum randomized controlled trial. *Int J Behav Nutr Phys*
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Table Title

Table 1. Utilisation and cost of program delivery for intervention and control groups.

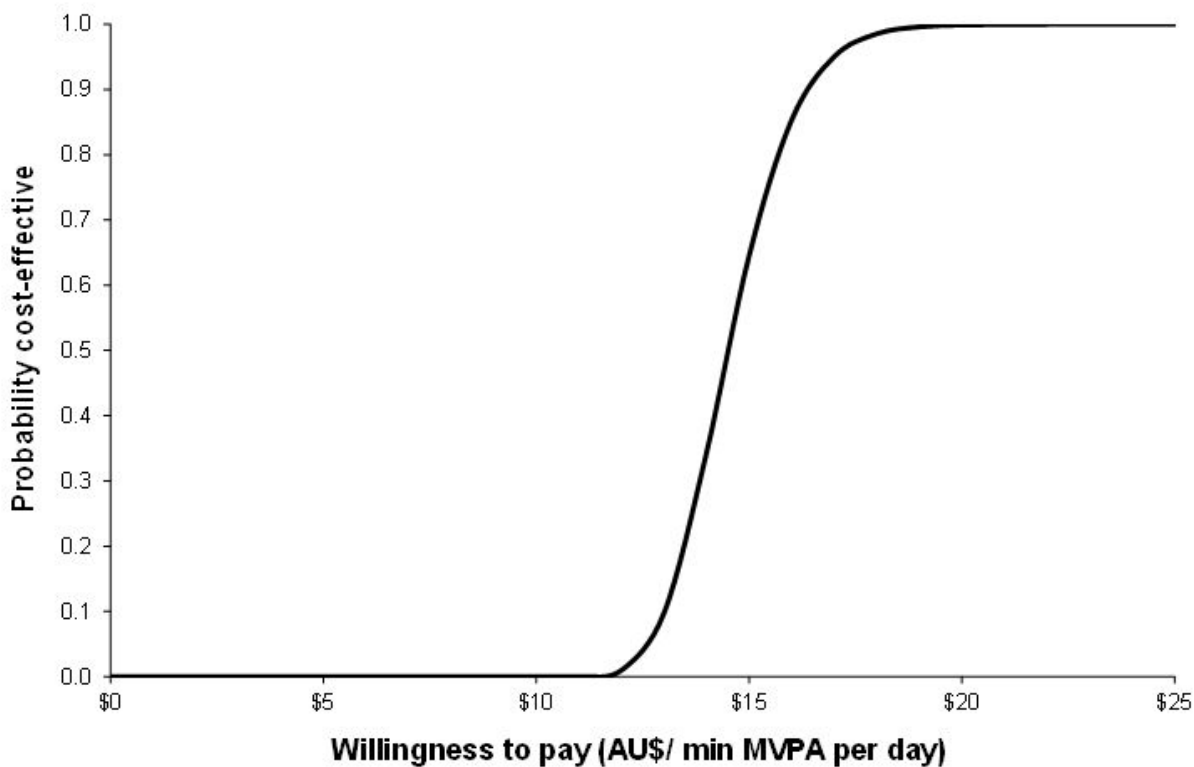
Table 2. Costs, changes in outcomes and incremental cost-effectiveness ratios at follow-up.

Table 3. Sensitivity analyses for costs, changes in outcomes and incremental cost-effectiveness ratios at follow-up.

Figure Title

Figure 1. Cost-effectiveness acceptability curve showing the probability of the interventions being cost-effective in comparison to control for moderate to vigorous physical activity (MVPA)

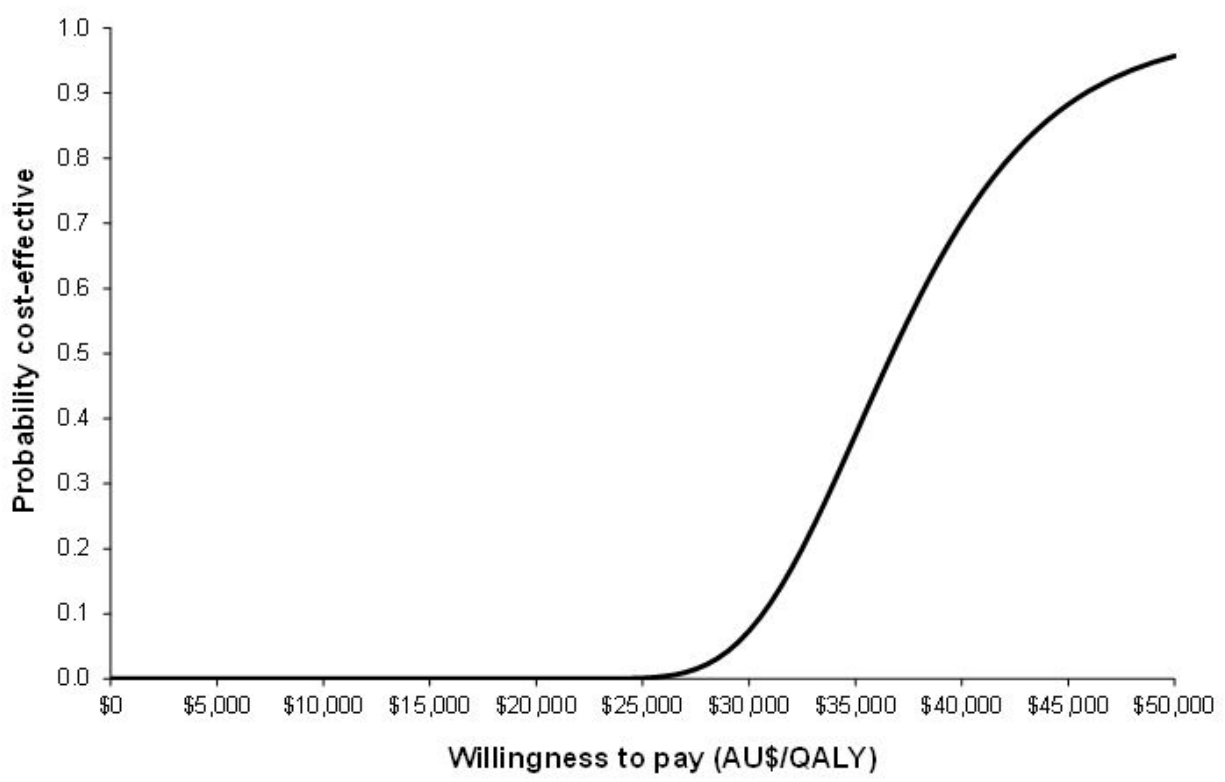
Figure 2. Cost-effectiveness acceptability curve showing the probability of the interventions being cost-effective in comparison to control for quality adjusted life years (QALYs)



Review only

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Review only

Reporting checklist for economic evaluation of health interventions.

Based on the CHEERS guidelines.

Instructions to authors

Complete this checklist by entering the page numbers from your manuscript where readers will find each of the items listed below.

Your article may not currently address all the items on the checklist. Please modify your text to include the missing information. If you are certain that an item does not apply, please write "n/a" and provide a short explanation.

Upload your completed checklist as an extra file when you submit to a journal.

In your methods section, say that you used the CHEERS reporting guidelines, and cite them as:

Husereau D, Drummond M, Petrou S, Carswell C, Moher D, Greenberg D, Augustovski F, Briggs AH, Mauskopf J, Loder E. Consolidated Health Economic Evaluation Reporting Standards (CHEERS) statement.

		Page
	Reporting Item	Number
Title		
	<p>#1 Identify the study as an economic evaluation or use more specific terms such as “cost-effectiveness analysis”, and describe the interventions compared.</p>	1

Abstract

#2 Provide a structured summary of objectives, perspective, setting, methods (including study design and inputs), results (including base case and uncertainty analyses), and conclusions

Introduction

#3 Provide an explicit statement of the broader context for the study. Present the study question and its relevance for health policy or practice decisions

Methods

#4 Describe characteristics of the base case population and subgroups analysed, including why they were chosen.

#5 State relevant aspects of the system(s) in which the decision(s) need(s) to be made.

#6 Describe the perspective of the study and relate this to the costs being evaluated.

#7 Describe the interventions or strategies being compared and state why they were chosen.

#8 State the time horizon(s) over which costs and consequences are being evaluated and say why appropriate.

1	Discount rate	#9	Report the choice of discount rate(s) used for costs and	8
2			outcomes and say why appropriate	
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6	Choice of health	#10	Describe what outcomes were used as the measure(s)	6
7	outcomes		of benefit in the evaluation and their relevance for the	
8			type of analysis performed	
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14	Measurement of	#11a	Single study-based estimates: Describe fully the design	n/a
15	effectiveness		features of the single effectiveness study and why the	
16			single study was a sufficient source of clinical	
17			effectiveness data	
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24	Measurement of	#11b	Synthesis-based estimates: Describe fully the methods	n/a
25	effectiveness		used for identification of included studies and synthesis	
26			of clinical effectiveness data	
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32	Measurement and	#12	If applicable, describe the population and methods used	n/a
33	valuation of		to elicit preferences for outcomes.	
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41	**Estimating			
42	resources			
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50		#13a	Single study-based economic evaluation: Describe	n/a
51			approaches used to estimate resource use associated	
52			with the alternative interventions. Describe primary or	
53			secondary research methods for valuing each resource	
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item in terms of its unit cost. Describe any adjustments made to approximate to opportunity costs

Methods

9	Estimating resources and costs	#13b	Model-based economic evaluation: Describe approaches and data sources used to estimate resource use associated with model health states. Describe primary or secondary research methods for valuing each resource item in terms of its unit cost. Describe any adjustments made to approximate to opportunity costs.	n/a
23	Currency, price date, and conversion	#14	Report the dates of the estimated resource quantities and unit costs. Describe methods for adjusting estimated unit costs to the year of reported costs if necessary. Describe methods for converting costs into a common currency base and the exchange rate.	7-8
35	Choice of model	#15	Describe and give reasons for the specific type of decision analytical model used. Providing a figure to show model structure is strongly recommended.	n/a
43	Assumptions	#16	Describe all structural or other assumptions underpinning the decision-analytical model.	n/a
48	Analytical methods	#17	Describe all analytical methods supporting the evaluation. This could include methods for dealing with skewed, missing, or censored data; extrapolation methods; methods for pooling data; approaches to validate or make adjustments (such as half cycle	n/a

corrections) to a model; and methods for handling population heterogeneity and uncertainty.

Results

Study parameters	#18	Report the values, ranges, references, and, if used, probability distributions for all parameters. Report reasons or sources for distributions used to represent uncertainty where appropriate. Providing a table to show the input values is strongly recommended.	9-13
Incremental costs and outcomes	#19	For each intervention, report mean values for the main categories of estimated costs and outcomes of interest, as well as mean differences between the comparator groups. If applicable, report incremental cost-effectiveness ratios.	9-13
Characterising uncertainty	#20a	Single study-based economic evaluation: Describe the effects of sampling uncertainty for the estimated incremental cost and incremental effectiveness parameters, together with the impact of methodological assumptions (such as discount rate, study perspective).	11-13
Characterising uncertainty	#20b	Model-based economic evaluation: Describe the effects on the results of uncertainty for all input parameters, and uncertainty related to the structure of the model and assumptions.	n/a
Characterising heterogeneity	#21	If applicable, report differences in costs, outcomes, or cost effectiveness that can be explained by variations	n/a

between subgroups of patients with different baseline characteristics or other observed variability in effects that are not reducible by more information.

Discussion

Study findings, [#22](#) Summarise key study findings and describe how they support the conclusions reached. Discuss limitations and generalisability, and the generalisability of the findings and how the findings fit with current knowledge. 14-17

Other

Source of funding [#23](#) Describe how the study was funded and the role of the funder in the identification, design, conduct, and reporting of the analysis. Describe other non-monetary sources of support 19

Conflict of interest [#24](#) Describe any potential for conflict of interest of study contributors in accordance with journal policy. In the absence of a journal policy, we recommend authors comply with International Committee of Medical Journal Editors recommendations 19

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3 **Design and rationale of the Healthy 4U trial of a telephone based intervention of a blend of**
4 **motivational interviewing and cognitive behaviour treatment for physical activity behaviour**
5 **change and maintenance: a randomised controlled trial protocol.**
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10 **BACKGROUND**

11 Non communicable diseases (NCDs) are the leading cause of illness, disability and death in
12 Australia, accounting for 90% of all deaths in 2011 [1]. NCDs have an intricate association with
13 modifiable risk factors such as physical inactivity, poor nutrition, and smoking [2]. Seventy per
14 cent of all cardiovascular disease mortality in Australia has been attributed to the combined
15 effects of physical inactivity as well as hypertension and abnormal lipid profiles [3].
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23 People who live in areas of socioeconomic disadvantage are more likely to take part in
24 unhealthy behaviour, or a combination of unhealthy behaviours, which can lead to both chronic
25 disease manifestation, and to poorer chronic disease outcomes [4]. The prevalence of
26 decreased physical activity levels, as well as overweight and obesity is higher in both rural areas
27 and low socio-economic areas than in the metropolitan areas [4]. Bendigo Health (BH) Specialist
28 Outpatient Clinic (SOPC) serves a wide geographical area, encompassing many local
29 government areas that have scored highly on the 'Socio-Economic Indexes for Areas' [5]. This
30 indicates that the regions serviced by Bendigo Health includes many areas of socio-economic
31 disadvantage: Bendigo 983.1; Loddon 934.1; Campaspe 964.1; Mount Alexander 983.3;
32 Strathbogie 970.2; Macedon Ranges 1055.1 [5]. The health profile of the Bendigo region
33 highlights the potential need for greater access to health services and programs aimed at
34 improving the health of residents. Only 40.4% of adults in the Greater Bendigo region meet the
35 physical activity guidelines, 91.4% do not eat the recommended daily serves of vegetables, and
36 almost half (47.6%) do not eat adequate amounts of fruit [6]. More than half of the population
37 in the Greater Bendigo are either overweight or obese [6]. Due to the high risk of chronic
38 disease development in low socio-economic areas, coordinated and targeted screening of these
39 populations has been recommended for early risk factor identification and subsequent
40 management [7].
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5 Population approaches to NCD management are based around the modification of the
6 associated risk factors- uptake of regular physical activity, smoking cessation and dietary
7 modifications [8]. Regular physical activity promotes a myriad of health benefits that contribute
8 to the prevention and management of many NCDs [8,9]. The Department of Health advises
9 adults to perform at least 30 minutes of at least moderate intensity physical activity on five or
10 more days per week, in at least 10 minute bouts, for optimum health benefits [10]. The benefits
11 associated with regular physical activity are also shown to occur regardless of the Body Mass
12 Index (BMI) of the participant [11]. Health improvements appear most marked when an
13 individual changes from sedentary behaviour to engaging in physical activity of moderate
14 intensity [11]. Despite its known efficacy, only 43% of adult Australians do enough physical
15 activity to be deemed sufficiently active [12].
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27 Interventions aimed at engagement in physical activity have demonstrated success with
28 physical activity uptake, however, over the long term, less success has been demonstrated with
29 physical activity maintenance [13]. More than 50% of individuals who initiate physical activity
30 uptake do not maintain behaviour change in physical activity [13]. The factors that predict
31 physical activity uptake have been shown to be different from those that predict physical
32 activity maintenance [13]. As physical activity has been identified as a leading indicator of
33 preventative health, recommendations have been made for the development and provision of
34 efficacious programs to encourage uptake and maintenance of physical activity behaviour [13].
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43 Self-efficacy refers to an individual's belief in his or her own capacity to plan and undertake
44 particular behaviors necessary to produce specific performance attainments [14]. Self-efficacy
45 is representative of an individual's confidence in the ability to exert control over one's own
46 motivation, behavior choices, and social environment [14]. The Self-Efficacy Theory [14]
47 highlights specific determinants of self-efficacy that are associated with behavior change:
48 mastery building via achievable goal setting; verbal persuasion; ability to cope in high-risk,
49 stressful situations; and behavior modeling [14]. There are a number of self-efficacy
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3 determinants specific to the maintenance of physical activity: self-efficacy to be physically
4 active in various environments, self-efficacy to effectively schedule physical activity, self-
5 efficacy to be physically active in spite of stressful life event [14]. Realistic achievable goal
6 setting and outcome expectations related to PA are also hypothesised to increase adherence to
7 long-term PA [15]. Self-efficacy has inherent associations with short-term goal setting and
8 motivation [14]. Increases in self-efficacy were associated with subsequent motivation to join a
9 physical activity programs among older adults [16]. Through the establishment of realistic
10 physical activity goals, calling attention to potentially problematic situations and planning on
11 how to overcome them, and through achieving short-term goals of PA maintenance,
12 individual's self-efficacy for maintenance of physical activity may be fortified [13].
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23 Motivational interviewing (MI) has been demonstrated to be effective in promoting and
24 establishing health related behaviour change [17-20]. MI interventions have been shown to be
25 efficacious in increasing physical activity [18-20]. MI focuses on individual goal setting and self-
26 appraisal facilitated through regular contact from trained professionals [21]. The structured
27 approach of MI, built upon self-management and self-learning has been found to result in
28 positive changes in risk factor management [21]. MI has demonstrated an increased likelihood
29 for long-term health promoting behavior adherence [22].
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38 MI was designed as a model to elicit and build motivation for initial change [21]. Strategies for
39 behaviour change maintenance through the use of MI are less frequently discussed. Following
40 the use of MI to foster initial change, it has been recommended to integrate action-orientated
41 treatments such as cognitive-behavioural therapy (CBT) in an effort to build behaviour change
42 maintenance skills [21].
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49 Cognitive Behaviour Treatment (CBT) is an individual focused approach to the treatment of
50 many types of emotional and behavioural problems [23]. CBT are 'action-orientated'
51 treatments, according to the problem being addressed [23]. CBT remains a collaborative and
52 individualised program assisting individuals in identifying behavior's they wish to change, and
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formulating actions related to these goals [24]. CBT aims to allow individuals to challenge their beliefs around behaviour, and then utilise strategies to change and/or modify their behaviour [23-4].

A combination of MI and CBT may be more effective in terms of behavior change than a single treatment undertaken on its own [25-27]. Systematic reviews indicate that most effective components in improving physical activity were built upon self-regulatory behaviors, grounded in MI/CBT frameworks, such as goal setting, feedback provision, self-monitoring, and the utilisation of social support [28]. Preceding any behaviour change is the formation of an intention to change [21]. MI is a useful tool for evoking intention, while CBT may be effective for translating behaviour change intention into action [23-4].

Many studies have their focus on initial behaviour change, and not on the maintenance of change [17]. There has been little research around a combination of MI and CBT on behaviour change and maintenance in regards to physical activity.

The H4U project aims to examine if a blend of MI and CBT increases physical activity in patients attending a non-admitted elective clinic in a public hospital who do not participate in enough physical activity to be deemed sufficiently physically active. Secondary aims relate to the effect of the MI/CBT intervention on self-efficacy, quality of life, type 2 diabetes risk, and anthropometric measures.

Literature Search

To gain greater insight into best practice program development and delivery, a review of the literature specific to the delivery of a blend of MI and CBT in this area, a non-admitted hospital setting was undertaken.

Search strategy

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3 A literature search was conducted to identify evidence on programs conducted through non-
4 admitted pathways in hospitals aimed at the modification of lifestyle related risk factors.
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7 The search aimed to establish an evidence base around the effectiveness of MI and CBT
8 interventions, specifically with the aim of prevention and/or management of health risk
9 behaviour through non-admitted hospital pathways.
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13 Initial searches were limited to: systematic review and meta-analyses. This search format was
14 chosen on economic and logistic grounds, aimed at highlighting findings from major
15 international research collaborations. This collaborate nature ensures that the review is
16 inclusive of international perspectives.
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20 Reviews were chosen primarily where the effectiveness of program was measured through a
21 lifestyle related outcome measure, for example, an increase in physical activity, the prevention
22 of weight gain, and improvement in nutritional status.
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26 The search was extended to primary research articles (not included within the reviews) in an
27 attempt to identify the broad spectrum of screening interventions,
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31 The search included the following:
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35 • Literature search of electronic databases: including CINAHL, EMBASE, PUBMED, and
36 MEDLINE. Search terms used were within the major constructs of the project (hospital,
37 lifestyle screening, lifestyle modification, motivational interviewing, cognitive behaviour
38 treatment, lifestyle risk factors, primary prevention, secondary prevention, rural and
39 remote) combined with the AND/OR operator
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43 • Search of EBM reviews databases (Cochrane, Projects Register, DARE,). Terms used:
44 lifestyle modification, pre-surgery, hospital, prevention, motivational interviewing,
45 cognitive behaviour treatment
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49 • Reference lists of selected papers were also examined to identify other publications that
50 may be relevant.
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3 The National Public Health Partnership's Schema for Evaluating Evidence on Public Health
4 Interventions developed key criteria for the critical appraisal of both reviews and individual
5 studies [29].
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8
9 The critical appraisal criteria have been developed to provide a framework for the qualitative
10 assessment of reviews and individual studies included in this review. The use of the critical
11 appraisal tool is aimed at assessing the relevance and methodological rigor of the studies. It
12 also offers guidelines as to appraisal of a papers external validity, and transferability.
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17 Searches of literature in hospital settings around lifestyle modification are primary based upon
18 secondary prevention strategies, while literature on pre-surgical lifestyle modification falls into
19 the category of 'prehabilitation', which covers ranges of procedures including but not exclusive
20 to orthopaedic and oncology amongst others. This project is not limited to patients of one
21 medical specialty, as such no exact replicable project was found. However, some
22 generalizations may be inferred from highlighted research, namely those with the aim of health
23 risk modification.
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31 Secondary prevention is highly active in the field of cardiovascular disease, targeting the highest
32 risk patients with proven treatments [30]. In spite of targeted recruitment, adherence to
33 physical activity recommendations has been found to be as low as 30% for patients with acute
34 coronary symptoms [30]. Roughly 33% of patients have been reported to be still smoking
35 following an acute coronary event [31].
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41 In systematic reviews of preoperative exercise therapy on outcomes postoperatively, the
42 results are favourable in terms of outcome metrics [31]. Pre-surgical interventions in research
43 settings have predominantly measured both medical metrics such as pain, length of stay,
44 reduced complications, as well as potential economic benefits derived from any improvements
45 [32]. Patient lifestyle risk factors, physical activity and nutrition for example are typically not
46 measured post-surgery [32].
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53 The majority of research around health risk behavior modification is based in primary care,
54 and/or admitted hospital patients requiring secondary prevention [15-18]. While the literature
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3 indicates that programs aimed at the modification of health risk behaviours such as physical
4 inactivity, poor nutrition and smoking have shown reasonable effectiveness, these programs
5 have not been delivered in a quasi-primary prevention setting such the elective non-emergency
6 clinic within a public hospital that this project proposes.
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11 MI has been shown to be an effective intervention for health related behavior change, including
12 increasing physical activity [18-20]. Longer term research has shown effectiveness for MI for
13 physical activity change and maintenance- the measurement of physical activity was self-
14 reported, with the authors noting that use of accelerometers may have provided more rigor to
15 the analysis of behaviour change [22]. The majority of studies included in a meta-analysis of the
16 effect of MI on physical activity used self-reporting methods as the primary measure of physical
17 activity- further research utilizing objective measures was recommended as part of the meta-
18 analysis [33].
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27 In terms of blending MI and CBT the research has indicated that a combination of MI and CBT
28 may be more effective than single treatment by itself for influencing health related behaviour
29 change [25-7]. This research has not however been conducted around physical activity change.
30 While health benefits are derived from increased levels of physical activity, most notably
31 changing from sedentary to active, the most important factor related to the benefits of physical
32 activity is the maintenance in physical activity [13]. In order to maintain behaviour change,
33 especially around physical activity, a mixture of theories and skill requirements may be required
34 from both the individual and facilitator perspective [13]. Blending MI and CBT may offer a
35 framework to build skills for physical activity maintenance [13].
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44 *Summary*

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47 There are considerable, potential benefits at the population level health related behavior
48 change, such as increasing physical activity. Despite this, identifying and implementing the most
49 effective intervention for behaviour change and maintenance remains difficult and challenging
50 to both researchers and to policy makers.
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3 Currently there is a gap in the knowledge around the implementation of a blend of MI and CBT
4 to increase physical activity amongst elective non-admitted hospital patients. This paper details
5 the project protocol for a randomised controlled trial that aims to evaluate the effectiveness of
6 a blend of MI and CBT to increase physical activity amongst elective non-admitted hospital
7 patients presenting to an elective clinic in a public hospital in the regional town of Bendigo in
8 Victoria.
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15 The hypothesis is that by the end of the six-month program, the participants receiving the
16 blended MI and CBT intervention will show improvements in physical activity levels compared
17 to baseline measures. In terms of secondary endpoints, it hypothesised that the intervention
18 group will show improvements in self-efficacy, quality of life, type 2 diabetes risk and
19 anthropometric measures relative to baseline measures.
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25 **METHODS AND ANALYSIS**

26 **Design**

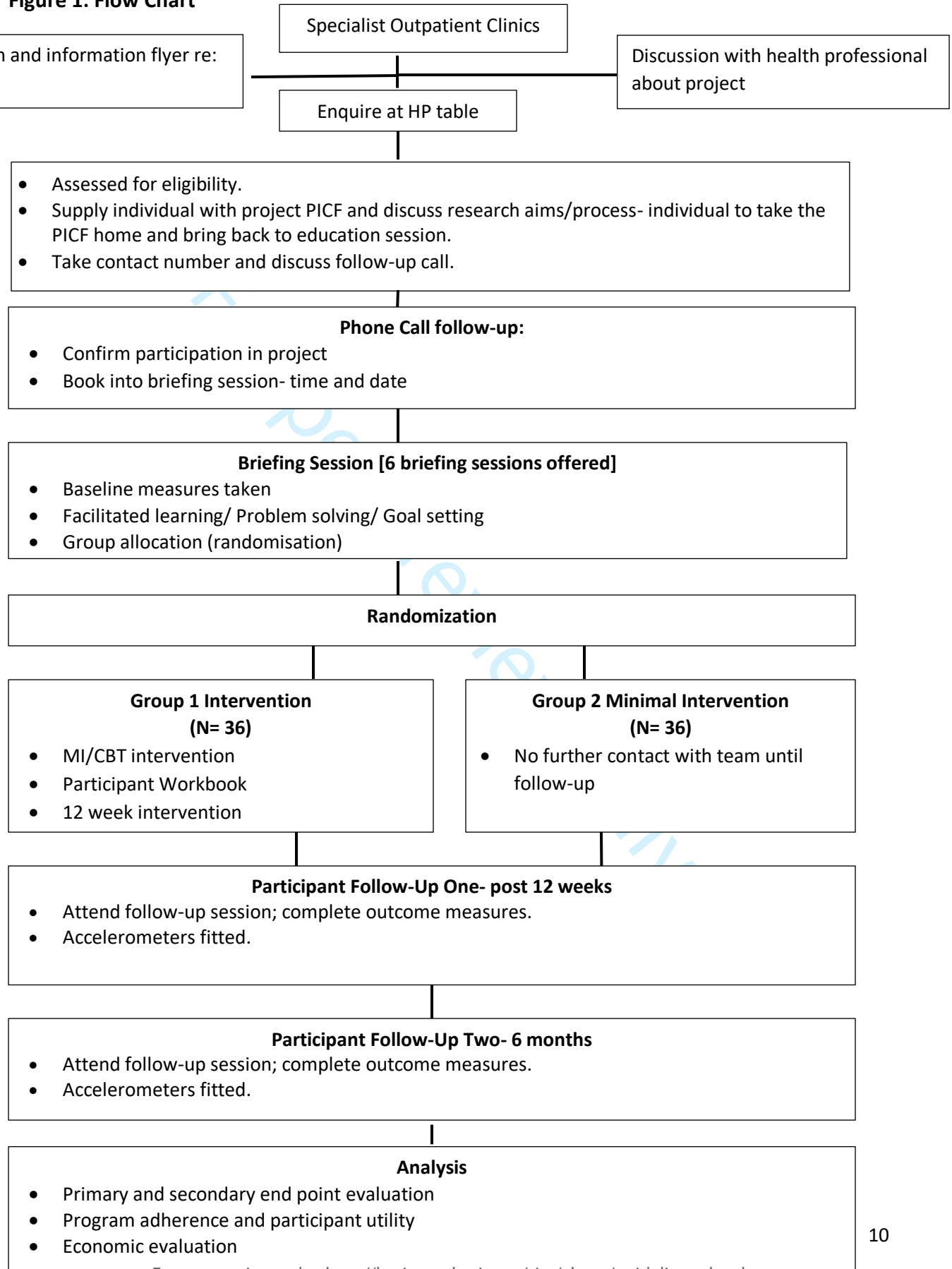
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31 The H4U project is a randomised controlled trial with assessment of outcomes at three points-
32 baseline, post 12 weeks and 6 months (Figure 1). The H4U project aims to examine if a
33 telephone based intervention of a blend of MI and CBT increases physical activity in patients
34 attending a non-admitted elective clinic in a public hospital who do not participate in enough
35 physical activity to be deemed 'sufficiently active'. Secondary aims relate to the effect of the
36 blend of MI and CBT intervention on self-efficacy, quality of life, type 2 diabetes risk, and
37 anthropometric measures.
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45 The project will be conducted at BH, a regional tertiary public hospital that's serves a wide
46 geographical region, with a socioeconomically diverse population. A total of seventy-two
47 patients who present to BH Specialist Outpatients Clinic as an elective admission will be
48 recruited and included in the project (figure 1).
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53 **Randomisation**

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3 Randomisation will be completed via a computerised randomisation program that will only be
4 accessible to project staff with access via specific username and password via a web interface.
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6 The random allocation sequence will be uniform 1:1 (intervention: minimal intervention)
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8 allocation ratio. Project members taking follow-up outcome measures will be blinded to the
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10 group allocations.
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For peer review only

Figure 1: Flow Chart

Participants

The project target population is patients presenting to the BH Specialist Outpatients Clinic over a four-month recruiting period. These patients are elective non-emergency presentations for a consultant with a medical specialist.

The inclusion criteria are: fluent in conversational English, insufficiently physically active (not participating thirty minutes or more of moderate physical activity on at least five days a week- 150 mins/week) [10].

The exclusion criteria are: under 18 years and over 69 years; poor comprehension of English language (determined by project team); too physically active (participating in more than thirty minutes of moderate physical activity on at least five days a week); diagnosis of diabetes; deaf/hearing impaired; disabling neurological disorder; severe mental illness such as psychosis, learning disability, dementia and cognitive impairment; registered blind; housebound or resident in nursing home; unable to move about independently or not ambulatory; pregnancy; advanced cancer; categorised as a Category 1 in the BH surgical waitlist classification: patient's categorised as a Category 1 should expect to receive their surgical procedure within thirty days. This categorisation may be confirmed during either initial conversation or during follow-up phone conversation.

Interested participants will be required to complete a Physical Activity Readiness Questionnaire (PAR-Q) (appendix 3) [34]. The PAR-Q offers a safe preliminary screening of candidates for exercise testing and prescription [34]. If a participant answers 'yes' to one or more questions then they will be required to speak to their doctor regarding the intervention, and the amount of physical activity that they should perform. The use of the PAR-Q as a screening tool is part of duty of care to the participants. The PAR-Q must be completed before any participant attends a briefing session.

Recruitment

All participants will be recruited from the BH Specialist Outpatients Clinic following the same pathway (figure 1):

- During the recruitment timeframe invitational fliers will be distributed within the SOPC inviting patients to participate in the project (appendix 1). The information will briefly detail to the patients what the project will entail and the exclusion criteria. Potential participants will be encouraged to come speak to the project team who will be located in a dedicated area within the SOPC during specific clinic times.
- Health clinicians working in the SOPC (who are not involved in the research) project may highlight to patients that the study is being undertaken in the clinic. Facilitated via this conversation, the clinician may give the patient a copy of the research invitation. Potentially interested individuals may also consent to having their information passed onto the research project team, who will follow up with a telephone call. This pathway is an important step in the project design- clinicians who have a relationship with the individual may be in a good position to highlight the project, and its potential significance to the individual. This referral pathway is has the potential to be more sustainable in the long term aim of integrating health promotion into existing practice, and it is also a far more effective use of time, as opposed to a member of the project team manning a recruitment table for long period of time.
- Upon speaking to a project team member the details of the project may be further explained to potentially interested participants. Potentially interested participants will be given the Patient Information Sheet and Consent (PICF)- the PICF form gives an in-depth synopsis of the project (appendix 2). A project team member will go through the project details and the PICF with any interested person. Potentially interested participants will also be given a copy of the PAR-Q which needs to be completed as part of inclusion criteria.

- To limit pressure and coercion on the individual, the PICF does not need to be signed and completed at that time. The participant may take the PICF home to read and discuss with others. Completed PICF's will be collected at the briefing sessions. Participants will be given a stamped addressed envelope which they can return the PICF to the project team should they wish.
- Participants who express an interest in participation but want to take time to consider their choice will be offered a follow-up phone call from the project team to further discuss the project. A project team member will take the participants phone number and discuss appropriate times to contact them.
- Follow-up calls to potential participants will follow the same structure:
 - A member of the project team will make all follow-up calls.
 - Potential participants will be contacted on the number that they supply to the project team.
 - Potential participants will be informed that they will be contacted no sooner than one week after talking to the project team member. This time will allow the individual time to consider their decision.
 - Should the project team member call and the individual does not answer, no message will be left. The project team member will make two attempts to contact on this occasion. If no contact is made no message will be left on this occasion. In this circumstance the project team member will try to contact the individual again, a minimum of four days later. Two calls will be attempted, with a voice message left should the second attempt be unsuccessful. The message left will be scripted for uniformity:

"Hello [potential participant], this is [project team member] from Bendigo Health calling you in regards to the Health 4U project that we discussed with you in the

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3 *specialist outpatient clinic. This call is following up on our conversation about*
4 *your potential interest in participating in the project. If you would like to discuss*
5 *this further please contact the Healthy 4U team directly on 5454 9118. Thank*
6 *you”.*
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12 ○ After leaving a voice message one more attempt at contact will be made, a
13 minimum of four days later. If this call is unsuccessful no message will be left at
14 this time, and no further contact will be attempted.
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18 ○ If, on speaking to a potential participant the individual states that they are no
19 longer interested in participating in the project the project officer will thank the
20 individual for their time and consideration, and inform the individual that no
21 further contact will be instigated by the project team.
22
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26 ○ If, on speaking to a potential participant the individual states that they are still
27 unsure about whether they are interested in participating in the project the
28 project officer will ask if the individual would like to be contacted again to follow
29 this up. Subsequent calls will follow the structure as above.
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35 ○ For individuals who choose to participate in the project, a project team member
36 will book them into one of the mandatory briefing sessions. A number of
37 sessions will be held to accommodate participant schedules, including day and
38 evening sessions. During this phone call the project team member will:
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43 ■ Remind participants to bring their PICF to the briefing session.
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46 ■ Discuss availability of briefing session times and dates, and book the
47 participant into the most suitable session.
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51 ■ Check that the potential participant has completed a PAR-Q and that they
52 bring it to the briefing session.
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- At the briefing session participants will complete their outcome measures (appendix 4). Completion of the outcome measures should take approximately fifteen minutes. Members of the project team can assist during this time. The outcome measures will be taken prior to any briefing interventions. Participants will be informed that repeat measures are required after week 12 and at 6 months.
- At the end of the briefing session, the participants will be allocated into their respective groups- group 1 or group 2. This allocation will be completed through a computer-generated program. The particulars of each group will be outlined below in this document.
- All participants will be asked to attend two follow-up sessions, one after the 12-week intervention and the other at 6 months. A number of sessions will be held to accommodate participant schedules, including day and evening sessions. During attendance at the sessions repeat outcome measures will be taken and accelerometers will be fitted again.
- All participants will be offered a survey to complete as part of process evaluation (appendix 5). This survey will be distributed at the follow-up session and can also be completed online via survey money, and/or mail out copies.
- Participants who withdraw from the study who wish that their data is not included in the analysis will be required to complete a withdrawal of consent form.

This underlying methodology of offering health promotion within existing care is designed to align with the BH Strategic Plan of Healthy Communities [35]. One of the aims of the BH Strategic Plan is enabling patients to take better care of their health [35]. The development of effective community partnerships is another aim of the BH Strategic Plan [35]. This project aims to utilise the blend of MI/CBT to increase physical activity- part of the support around participation in physical activity may include highlighting to participants what programs are available in the community to suit their needs and referring into these programs. This

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3 partnering with already existing community programs avoids the necessity for BH to develop
4 and run specialist programs, ultimately avoiding service duplication, which is important in
5 regional and rural areas [36].
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10 As part of the project evaluation process, in situation where participants express interest in the
11 project but choose not to proceed, and, offer an unprompted reason for this choice, the
12 individual reasons will be recorded. This information may be used in project process evaluation.
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14

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16 As with the majority of physical activity interventions the research team note that there is an
17 inherent degree of bias associated with recruiting participants to a study under the premise of
18 increasing physical activity. The degree of bias may be equal across both the intervention and
19 the minimal intervention groups.
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23 **Intervention**

24 *Briefing Session*

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27 All project participants enrolling in the project will have to attend a briefing session (Figure 1).
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32 The briefing session will be a facilitated learning session based around self-management and
33 lifestyle modification. Education sessions and problem solving will be developed and carried out
34 using the Self Determination Theory (SDT) framework [37]. This theory is used to support,
35 educate and motivate participants around positive lifestyle choices, as well as the
36 empowerment of individuals over their health care [37]. SDT reflects that an individual's on-
37 going functioning is a product of a continuous interaction between cognitive, behavioural, and
38 contextual factors, and more than a matter of education by itself [37]. Classroom learning for
39 example is shaped by factors within the academic environment, but particularly by the
40 reinforcements experienced by individuals and by others [37]. To adhere to this framework,
41 participants will be encouraged to participate actively in the briefing sessions through group
42 and task orientated learning, and education will be delivered through case studies to stimulate
43 vicarious learning [37]. Participants will be exposed to real life scenarios of health risk
44 modification and given brief tasks to stimulate this thought process. SDT has been chosen as
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3 the framework in which to deliver the briefing session as has been shown to complement MI
4 and CBT integration [37].
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8 The briefing sessions will be facilitated by a member of the project team who is registered
9 healthcare practitioner through the Australian Health Practitioner Regulating Authority
10 (AHPRA). The sessions will also include a guest speaker representing the community health
11 programs.
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16 At the end of the briefing sessions participants will be informed of which arm of the project
17 they have been randomized to.
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20 21 *Group 1*

22
23 Group 1 will receive the blend of MI and CBT. This model of patient-centred self-management
24 support, delivered as an office-based program through telephone calls has demonstrated
25 successful outcomes for similar populations [19,22,38-9].
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30 The use of the MI/CBT model is based upon supporting participant self-management, in this
31 case facilitated via the interviewer acting as a decision aid for participants around the decision
32 of whether or not to change behaviour. One of the fundamental goals of the self-management
33 support is assisting in highlighting the participant's awareness of the problem and to assist the
34 participant to weigh up the pros and cons of making associated health changes (21).
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40 A member of the project team will facilitate the MI/CBT intervention via the telephone. The
41 individual who will deliver the telephone support is a registered healthcare practitioner through
42 the Australian Health Practitioner Regulating Authority (AHPRA). He has attended a 2-day
43 workshop on MI and will receive additional coaching from Dr. Paul O'Halloran, who is a
44 nationally endorsed Health Psychologist and Sport and Exercise Psychologist who has been
45 registered and practicing as a Psychologist since 1998. Dr O'Halloran has undergone extensive
46 training in MI, including training from the two people who developed the technique (Miller and
47 Rollnick). Dr O'Halloran is an accredited Motivational Interviewing Network of Trainers (MINT)
48 trainer.
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3 Each participant will receive eight phone calls, each lasting 30 minutes. The most recent version
4 of MI, MI-3 uses the eight call methodology which allows for participants to move along the
5 stages of engagement, focusing, evoking and planning at a pace unique to each individual.
6
7 Telephone support following a CBT approach, bedded in MI philosophy has shown to be
8
9 effective in behaviour modification [38-9].
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13 Each participant will receive 8 calls over the 12-week period. Participants will receive 6 calls in
14 the first 8 weeks, and 2 calls in the final 4 weeks. In terms of incorporating the MI/CBT blend,
15 MI will be utilised for sessions 1 to 5, as MI is identified as an effective tool for behaviour
16 change initiation [21]. From session 5 to session 8 a blend of MI/CBT will be used, as CBT is an
17 action orientated treatment [21, 23-4].
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23 As part of the intervention group 1 participants may be given a workbook. The workbook will be
24 used during the phone conversation for the participant to record their own goals and the action
25 plans they decide upon in order to reach those goals. The action plans are smaller more
26 achievable targets that are required to complete a larger goal. The use of a workbook will not
27 be uniform however, in keeping with the MI philosophy of the facilitator not prescribing advice
28 or actions [21].
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35 As part of self-management support, participants, where the intervention is appropriate, will be
36 referred into programs aimed at lifestyle risk modification, including community health
37 programs. Following the MI/CBT theory, no mandatory referrals will be made to these
38 programs, however the facilitator may highlight the existence of these programs should the
39 situation warrant it. The facilitators will be aware of the programs that are available in the
40 community and can make appropriate referral to the programs on behalf of the participants.
41 This pathway may highlight to participants the range of programs that are available in the
42 community. Utilizing existing programs in the community may be of benefit to the participants,
43 while it also encourages service co-ordination and avoidance of service duplication.
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Group 2

Group 2 is the minimal intervention arm of the project. All Group 2 participants will attend the briefing session so they will receive the same educational material around lifestyle risk factor modification as group 1 from that session.

Participants of Group 2 will be contacted to enquire about their attendance at the follow-up session, reminding them about the requirement for outcome measure completion. Apart from this contact participants of Group 2 will receive no further routine contact initiated by the project team.

The use of a second group allows for more rigour in evaluation of the effectiveness of the intervention.

Intervention Fidelity

To assist with improving the credibility of evidence resulting from behaviour change studies the reporting on treatment fidelity has been recommended [40]. Assessments in intervention fidelity are integral to intervention research but few published trials report these processes in detail [41]. This methodological shortcoming makes it very difficult to distinguish between the quality of MI interventions, and, consequently, to be able to establish whether MI provision has contributed to any intervention effects [41]. Treatment fidelity has been defined as the “methodological strategies used to monitor and enhance the reliability and validity of behavioural interventions” [41]. To measure the fidelity of the treatment the Motivational Interviewing Treatment Integrity code will be used [42].

As mentioned above, the individual who will deliver the telephone support will receive additional coaching from Dr. Paul O’Halloran, who is a nationally endorsed Health Psychologist and Sport and Exercise Psychologist. Dr O’Halloran is an accredited Motivational Interviewing Network of Trainers (MINT) trainer.

The treatment fidelity will be evaluated and measured prior to the intervention and midway through the intervention time-frame. This will be carried out through the recording of sessions

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3 between the facilitator and Dr O'Halloran and having the recordings assessed by an
4 independent assessor who will rate the MI proficiency by using a validate tool the Motivational
5 Interviewing Treatment Integrity scale [42].
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8 9 **Outcome measures**

10 The primary endpoint is a change in physical activity levels, measured at 3 points- baseline, just
11 after the 12-week intervention, and at 6 months (Table 1). Secondary endpoints include a
12 change in self-efficacy, quality of life, type II diabetes risk, waist circumference, BMI, and
13 smoking status (Table 1.)
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19 Participants will complete all the outcome measures at the 3 points, at baseline, following the
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21 12 weeks of intervention, and at 6 months.
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24 *Physical Activity*

25 The primary endpoint is a change in physical activity levels. Physical activity will be measured
26 objectively using an accelerometer (ActiGraph, Florida, United States) and a log diary to
27 document the type of activity completed, and any occasions when the accelerometer was
28 removed.
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35 The Evidence-based Physical Activity Recommendations for Adults advises adults to perform at
36 least 30 minutes of moderate intensity physical activity on five or more days per week [10].
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39 While these 30-minute periods can be broken down, to derive optimal health benefits bouts of
40 moderate intensity physical activity should last for least for 10 minutes [10].
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45 The ActiGraph GT3X+ is a validated, tri-axial activity monitor that provides data on physical
46 activity including activity counts, steps and activity intensity (METs) [43]. The research team will
47 explain to the participant how to wear the accelerometer, requesting it to be worn from waking
48 in the morning until going to bed at night. Participants will be asked to remove the ActiGraph
49 when they are showering, bathing or swimming. After seven days of wearing the
50 accelerometer, the accelerometers will be collected at the next possible visit to the hospital or
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3 arrangement will be made for collection from participants at a location most convenient to
4 them.
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8 The output from the tri-axial accelerometer measures time spent in physical activity using
9 standard cut-off points for sedentary, light, moderate, vigorous and very vigorous physical
10 activity. As moderate-vigorous physical activity (MVPA) needs to last for bouts of 10 minutes or
11 more to derive health benefits, 10 minutes intervals of MVPA will be will be recorded and
12 extracted from the data collected.
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18 The outcome will be minutes of physical activity at moderate intensity or greater per week.
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21 Physical activity will also be recorded as the time spent walking each day, time spent in
22 sedentary behaviour each day, number of days a week performing strength straining, and the
23 number of steps per day.
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27 *Self-Efficacy*

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30 Self-Efficacy to be physically active will be measured via a physical activity self-efficacy survey.
31 This survey has been built upon previous research, with modifications to suit the target group
32 that this study proposes [44]. The survey measures confidence related to completing physical
33 activity while faced with recognised barriers to physical activity completion.
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38 *Physical Activity Stages of Change*

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41 Physical Activity Stages of Change will be measured via the Physical Activity Stages of Change
42 Questionnaire [45].
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46 The Physical Activity Stages of Change Questionnaire is a simple tool based upon The Stages of
47 Change (SOC) Model. The SOC model was originally developed by James Prochaska and Carlo
48 DiClemente in the late 1970's and early 1980's with the model originally devised around
49 smoking cessation though it has since been applied to a broad range of behaviour change
50 situations [46]. The SOC model theorises that individuals move through a series of stages as
51 they both adopt and maintain a new behaviour [46]. The stages within the model include
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3 Precontemplation, Contemplation, Preparation, Action, Maintenance and Relapse. In terms of
4 physical activity, Precontemplators are seen as inactive and not thinking of becoming active
5 [47]. Contemplators are inactive but they are considering becoming active. Preparers intend to
6 be physically active in the next month or have unsuccessfully taken action in the past year (not
7 at the recommended levels). Individuals who are in the Action Stage are physically active at the
8 recommended levels but have been active for less than six months. Individuals in the
9 Maintenance Stage are physically active at the recommended levels and have been for six or
10 more months [47]. Research indicates that it may take numerous attempts before individuals
11 succeed in adopting and maintaining PA, therefore the movement across the SOC is considered
12 to be a cyclical rather than linear process [48].
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22 For this study, determining the stage of change aims to assess both the intention and the
23 perception of physical activity behaviour. Determining the stage of change may assist in
24 improving the effectiveness of intervention when the proposed intervention is targeted and
25 tailored to suit the current state of readiness rather than generic physical activity messaging
26 and promotion [48]. Readiness to change physical activity may increase even in the absence of
27 actual PA behavioural change as assessed objectively [21]. The Physical Activity Stages of
28 Change questionnaire may also offer a measure on this theory.
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36 *Medical Outcomes Study Short Form 12 Health Survey (SF-12)*

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39 To measure quality of life the Medical Outcomes Study Short Form 12 Health Survey (SF-12) will
40 be used [49]. The SF-12 was derived from twelve questions of the SF-36, which make up the
41 MCS (Mental Component Summary) and PCS (Physical Component Summary). The survey can
42 be administered in two to three minutes, which saves both time and resources in large-scale
43 population surveys. The SF-36 has been validated in an Australian population 3. The two scores
44 range between 0 and 100, with increasing values equating to better health.
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51 Using the SF-12 also allows for conversion to utility scores which can also facilitate the
52 undertaking of an economic analysis.
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56 *AUSDRISK tool*

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The AUSDRISK was developed from the national Australian diabetes obesity and lifestyle study (AusDiab) [50]. It represents the most up to date information on the risk factors for the development of diabetes [50].

Smoking status will be self-reported, as part of the AUSDRISK tool.

Waist circumference will be measured to the nearest 0.5 cm using a plastic measuring tape.

BMI will be measured by project team members; weight will be recorded to the nearest 0.01kg using a digital scale; height will be recorded to the nearest 0.1 cm using a stadiometer with the participant barefoot. The BMI will be subsequently calculated.

Table 1. Primary and secondary outcome measures

Primary and secondary outcome measures	
Primary	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Physical Activity – ActiGraph [43]
Secondary	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Self-Efficacy- Modified physical activity self-efficacy survey [44] Physical Activity Stages of Change [45] Quality of Life: SF-12 Survey [49] Diabetes risk: AUSDRISK tool [50] Waist Circumference- within AUSDRISK tool [50] Smoking- within AUSDRISK tool [50] Nutrition- within AUSDRISK tool [50] BMI

Sample Size and Statistical Analysis

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3 Data analysis will focus on testing the differences between the two groups across the 6-month
4 follow-up period. The primary outcome variable will be average weekly minutes of moderate-
5 intensity or more vigorous physical activity (MVPA). Previous trials investigating between group
6 changes in MVPA indicate that in order to detect between-group differences of 30 minutes,
7 with a standard deviation of 50 minutes, the standardized mean difference, or the effect size
8 required is 0.60 [51-2] To detect an effect size of 0.60 or greater, with the alpha set at .05, and
9 the power set at .80, a sample size of 30 participants per arm will be required. Protecting
10 against a drop-out rate of 20% over the 6-month period, 36 participants will be recruited and
11 randomized into each arm. The total study sample will therefore be 72.
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21 To compare differences in our primary end point, physical activity, independent t-tests will be
22 carried out on the follow-up data. Other continuous variables such as waist circumference, BMI
23 will also be assessed via t-tests. Smoking status may be tested via Pearson's chi-squared test for
24 categorical variables. Analysis of variance tests (ANOVA, linear regression) may be conducted
25 where required. Between the groups the mean level of each risk factor may be compared both
26 at the beginning and the end: these values may be expressed in relative risks. Mann-Whitney U
27 tests will be used where data are not normally distributed.
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34 The effects of the interventions will be compared to the minimal intervention group to give an
35 estimation of the effect size associated with the interventions.
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39 Statistical analysis will be carried by project team members, and facilitated through expert staff
40 at La Trobe University.
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44 **Dissemination of results**

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46 Following the statistical analysis reports will be produced and disseminated to management of
47 'Healthy Communities and Continuing Care' in Bendigo Health.
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50 Results and findings may be presented at external conferences.
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54 Results and findings may be detailed and submitted for publication in peer-reviewed journals.
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Procedure measures

The project team will log the number of individual contacts made in the BH SOPC initiated by interested participants. The project team will record patient feedback regarding interest and opinions on the project, which is hoped may give insight into future program development strategies.

A log will be maintained of how many project participants contact the project team during the intervention phase, the reason for contact, the method of contact and the outcome. During any non-structured contact no intervention is to be delivered at that time.

To examine the acceptability of the H4U study, participants allocated to the intervention group will also be administered an additional questionnaire, after the 6 months follow up. This questionnaire will include items addressing satisfaction with the components of the project, their perceived utility of the intervention. The questionnaire will also address whether participants attended a community health program, and the frequency of visits (appendix 5).

Economic analysis

Changes to both health outcomes and to economic costs from a larger adoption of the supporting self-management project may be estimated with cost-effectiveness analysis. Values will be collected for variables that describe the participant's use of the hospital services directly associated with this study. The cost of delivering the H4U service will be assessed by measuring and valuing the resources used [53]. The intervention costs will be calculated, factoring in staff time involved in being trained, and in delivering the interventions. Also included will be any overhead costs and costs of sessions provided. For the group intervention the costs will be divided over the attendees.

Changes to health benefits will be assessed through the use of quality-adjusted life-years. The SF-12 Health Survey can be converted to short form 6-dimension (SF-6D) which allow for utility values to be calculated [49]. To calculate the quality-adjusted life years (QALY) gain over the entire follow-up period an 'area under the curve' methodology will be used [53]. As costs are

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3 likely to be higher for one group compared to the other, and QALY gains may differ, an
4 incremental cost-effectiveness ratio can be constructed to show the cost per extra QALY gained
5 [53]. There will be uncertainty around cost and QALY estimates and this will be explored using
6 cost-effectiveness planes generated from 1,000 bootstrapped resamples of the data for each of
7 the three comparisons. Finally, we will generate cost-effectiveness acceptability curves, using
8 the net-benefit approach and bootstrapping, to indicate the probability that any of the three
9 approaches is the most cost-effective for different values placed on a QALY gain.
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17 Within a project of this size significant differences in quality of life between the groups may not
18 be seen, however, collecting data will provide an estimation of the baseline quality of life in this
19 patient population.
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24 Cost-effectiveness acceptability curves can be plotted and used to inform decisions around
25 widespread adoption of this method.
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28 **CONCLUSION**

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31 The H4U study will evaluate an innovative means of increasing physical activity in patients
32 attending a non-admitted elective clinic in a public hospital who are deemed insufficiently
33 physically active. Only a small number of studies have tested the use of a blend of MI/CBT for
34 behaviour change, with the evidence showing effectiveness of the blend over a single input [16,
35 22, 24-5]. None of these studies however have looked at a change in physical activity as a
36 primary endpoint.
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43 The long term follow-up of this study allows for the evaluation of the effectiveness of the
44 intervention on both physical activity uptake and maintenance. Only a few studies exist testing
45 behavioural interventions on physical activity uptake and long term maintenance [12,37]. These
46 studies have tended to use self-reported methods for physical activity measurement- this study
47 would be innovative in its use of accelerometers for objective measurement of physical activity.
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3 A number of questions remain about the feasibility and effectiveness of a blend of MI/CBT,
4 therefore a rigorously designed and carried out study is needed to evaluate both the
5 effectiveness of the intervention, and the cost effectiveness of the intervention.
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10 This project is targeting a group of patients, in a space where preventative health programs are
11 not normally offered. This project would be innovative as its potentially sits on its own, in a
12 quasi-primary care space, drawing parallels between both primary and secondary prevention,
13 as well as some prehabilitation methodology.
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18 In conclusion, H4U will test the effectiveness of a blend of MI/CBT for increasing physical
19 activity in patients in a non-admitted hospital clinic who are insufficiently physically active. This
20 project has potential as a cost-effective home office based intervention for physical activity
21 uptake. The effectiveness of this must be shown in a rigorously conducted clinical trial.
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25 26 **Funding**

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29 Funding is through the BH under the Healthy Communities Model.
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Peer review only

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Cost-effectiveness of telephone coaching for physically inactive ambulatory care hospital patients: economic evaluation alongside the Healthy 4U randomised controlled trial

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Cost-effectiveness of telephone coaching for physically inactive ambulatory care hospital patients: economic evaluation alongside the Healthy 4U randomised controlled trial

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Abstract

Objective: To assess whether telephone coaching is a cost-effective method for increasing physical activity and health-related quality of life for insufficiently active adults presenting to an ambulatory care clinic in a public hospital.

Design: An economic evaluation was performed alongside a randomized controlled trial.

Setting: Participants were recruited from an ambulatory care clinic in a public hospital in regional Australia.

Participants: Seventy-two adults (aged 18-69) deemed insufficiently physically active via self-report.

Interventions: Participants were randomised to either an intervention group that received an education session and eight sessions of telephone coaching over a 12-week period, or to a control group that received the education session only. The intervention used in the telephone coaching intervention was integrated motivational interviewing and cognitive behaviour therapy (MI-CBT).

Outcome measures: The primary health outcome was change in moderate-to-vigorous physical activity (MVPA), objectively measured via accelerometry. The secondary outcome was the quality-adjusted life-year (QALY) determined by the SF-12 Questionnaire. Outcome data was measured at baseline, post-intervention (3-months) and follow-up (6-months). Incremental cost-effectiveness ratios (ICERs) were calculated for each outcome. Non-parametric bootstrapping techniques and sensitivity analyses were performed to account for uncertainty.

Results: The mean intervention cost was \$279 ± \$13 per person. At six-months follow-up, relative to control, the intervention group undertook 18 more minutes of daily MVPA at an ICER of \$15/minute for each additional minute of MVPA. With regard to QALYs, the intervention

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3 yielded an ICER of \$36,857 per QALY gained. Sensitivity analyses indicated that results were
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5 robust to varied assumptions.
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8 **Conclusion:** Telephone coaching was a low-cost strategy for increasing MVPA and QALYs in
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10 insufficiently physically active ambulatory care hospital patients. Additional research could
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12 explore the potential economic impact of the intervention from a broader healthcare perspective.
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15 **Trial Registration**

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17 ANZCTR: ACTRN12616001331426. Registered 23 September 2016
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20 **Keywords**

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22 Health promotion; Hospital; Secondary Care; Physical activity; Cost-benefit analysis
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26 **Article Summary**

27 **Strengths and limitations of this study**

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 - 33 • This study is the first to investigate the cost-effectiveness of telephone delivered MI-CBT
34 for insufficiently physically active secondary care hospital patients.
 - 35 • Economic evaluations enable hospitals to estimate the costs of delivering preventive
36 health interventions, which are important for addressing the burden of chronic disease.
 - 37 • Changes in physical activity were measured using accelerometers, strengthening the
38 confidence in the findings.
 - 39 • Results are limited by a short time horizon and a narrow costing perspective.
 - 40 • Further research is needed to explore the potential long-term economic impact of the
41 intervention from a broader healthcare perspective.

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INTRODUCTION

Insufficient physical activity (PA) is an established risk factor for the development of a number of chronic diseases, including cardiovascular disease, type 2 diabetes and obesity[1]. Despite the well-established benefits of PA[2], more than half of the population does not attain sufficient levels of PA to derive such benefits[3]. The estimated cost of insufficient PA in Australia is AU\$805 million per annum[4]. Addressing the prevalence of insufficient physical activity is a major public health priority, and necessitates that multiple sectors of the healthcare industry are actively engaged in physical activity promotion[5].

Hospitals are important settings in which to offer health promotion interventions, for both admitted and ambulatory care. In the hospital setting, ambulatory care refers to non-admitted clinics that patients attend for specialist medical care. Patients attending ambulatory care hospital clinics are more likely than the general population to have one or more chronic disease[6, 7]. Hospital patients can be motivated to engage with lifestyle behaviour change as their health is already compromised[8, 9]. Attending a hospital has been identified as a major life event,[10] and a hospital visit has the potential to initiate health behaviour change[8].

Ambulatory care settings provide an ideal opportunity for behaviour change interventions[8, 10]. Substantial efforts have been made to promote increased engagement in PA using individual and population-based approaches[11]. This has resulted in an increased use of behaviour change interventions to influence participation in PA[12].

A number of studies suggest that telephone coaching results in improved clinical outcomes, self-efficacy and health status,[13, 14] as well as increases in physical activity[15, 16].

Additional work is required to embed telephone coaching within existing health services[13, 15].

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3 To make the benefits of telephone coaching more broadly available for hospital outpatients,
4 telephone coaching has been delivered in addition to standard ambulatory care[17]. The
5 addition of telephone coaching to standard care resulted in significant improvements in
6 objectively measured physical activity and health related outcomes,[17] however, the cost to
7 improve these outcomes has not been reported.
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17 Few studies have employed any form of economic analyses on telephone coaching, and little is
18 known about the relative cost-effectiveness of adding telephone coaching to routine care in
19 ambulatory care hospital settings. The purpose of this study was to evaluate the cost-
20 effectiveness of the Healthy4U program for increasing measured PA and the number of quality
21 adjusted life years (QALYs) experienced over a 6-month period from a hospital perspective.
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31 **METHODS**

32 **Study design**

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35 The Healthy4U study was a single-blind randomised controlled trial reported in line with the
36 CHEERS reporting guidelines[18] (Online supplementary file 1). The trial design, participants,
37 sample size, intervention, outcomes and ethics approvals have been described in detail
38 elsewhere[17]. Briefly, between October 2016 and December 2017, seventy-two insufficiently
39 physically active adults, aged 18-69 years, were recruited from ambulatory care clinics at a
40 major hospital in a regional town in Victoria, Australia. The primary aim was to promote change
41 in objectively measured physical activity during the trial.
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56 **Intervention**

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3 All enrolled participants attended a 30-minute group education session. The education session
4 was a facilitated learning session focused on self-management and lifestyle modification, and
5 was carried out using a self-determination theory framework[19].
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12 The intervention group completed a telephone-based, integrated motivational interviewing and
13 cognitive behaviour therapy (MI-CBT) intervention, delivered in eight 30-minute sessions over
14 12 weeks. The intervention was delivered by an experienced allied health clinician trained in MI-
15 CBT. All participants enrolled into the control arm attended the education session. Apart from
16 contact regarding follow-up outcome measures, participants in the control group received no
17 further contact initiated by the research team.
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26 27 28 29 **Measurement of effects**

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32 Outcome measures were recorded at baseline, after 3 months of intervention (post-intervention)
33 and at 6 months (follow-up) by assessors blinded to the study group assignment. The primary
34 outcome measure was change in moderate-to-vigorous physical activity (MVPA), objectively
35 measured by accelerometry (wGT3X-BT; Actigraph, USA). Daily MVPA was determined using
36 the manufacturers software (Actilife; Actigraph, USA) and the Freedson Adult (1998) cut point
37 (vector magnitude > 1961 cpm)[20]. To be included in the analysis, a minimum wear time of ≥ 10
38 h/day for 5 of the 7-day period was required, including at least 1 weekend day[21]. Weekly PA
39 totals were summed from the daily totals for persons with 7 valid days of monitoring, or
40 estimated as 7 times the average daily total for persons with 5 to 6 valid days of monitoring.
41 Using the summed weekly totals, participants were classified as either meeting or not meeting
42 the recommended PA guidelines[22].
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3 A secondary outcome was a change in health-related quality of life (HrQoL) and QALYs, which
4 was derived from the Medical Outcomes Study Short Form 12 Health Survey (SF-12) and the
5 standard Brazier algorithm[23, 24]. The SF-12 scores were converted to utility scores on a scale
6 of 0 to 1, with a higher score indicating a more favourable health state[24]. These utility
7 estimates were converted to QALYs by calculating the 'area under the curve' utility estimates for
8 the different follow-up time intervals for each participant, weighted by the length of follow-up at
9 that time interval.
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21 **Measurement of costs**

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24 The cost analysis was designed and conducted from a hospital perspective, which allows health
25 care organizations to gauge the approximate cost of offering this program[25]. A bottom-up
26 micro-costing approach was used to calculate the intervention costs[26]. This approach involves
27 the detailed collection of information regarding the quantities of resources consumed while
28 implementing and executing the interventions, as well as their respective unit prices[26]. Only
29 those costs involved in implementing the intervention (e.g., training of individuals carrying out
30 and undertaking the intervention) were included. Protocol-driven costs, namely the costs of
31 gathering data as part of the clinical trial were considered to be sunk costs and were therefore
32 excluded from the cost-effectiveness analysis[25].
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47 The program costs included group facilitator time, intervention time, and supplies. The group
48 facilitator's time that was spent preparing for and facilitating group meetings. The intervention
49 assistant's time was calculated as the time spent undertaking reminder phone calls to
50 participants. The intervention costs were calculated as the time spent in one to one consultation
51 with the participants. Both group facilitation and intervention costs were calculated using the
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3 annual salary of an experienced allied health clinician as they would most likely to be used in
4 delivering MI-CBT were the intervention to be implemented on a large scale (AU\$82,924).
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6 Intervention assistant costs were based upon the annual salary of an Allied Health Assistant
7 (AU\$45,338). Finally, the costs of supplies, including the program manuals were included in the
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9 program cost.
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17 The group facilitator's time per group meeting was estimated at 2.5 hours, which included 0.5
18 hours for the group meeting itself, 1.0 hour to set up before and clean up after the group
19 meeting, and 1.0 hour to prepare for the group meeting (i.e., reviewing meeting notes and
20 presentation material). The group facilitator's cost per meeting per participant was calculated by
21 dividing the facilitator's cost per meeting by the number of participants that attended each
22 meeting. Due to the short time frame in which costs and effects occurred discounting was not
23 necessary[27]. All program costs were calculated in 2017 Australian dollars (AU\$).
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35 **Statistical analysis**

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38 Analyses of trial data have been reported elsewhere[17]. In brief, mixed-model ANOVAs were
39 used to assess the effects of the intervention on each of the outcome variables. The mean \pm SD
40 for the overall cost and for the change in each outcome at 6-months was calculated. For each
41 outcome, the incremental cost-effectiveness ratio (ICER) was calculated by dividing the
42 difference in costs by the difference in effects between the intervention and control groups
43 where the difference in effects between the two groups was calculated using a change from
44 baseline approach to control for different baseline utilities. Uncertainty in the ICER estimates
45 was accounted for by generating 1000 bootstrap replicates of the dataset, a widely used method
46 in health economic evaluations. Probabilistic sensitivity analysis was completed by calculating
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3 the cost-effectiveness acceptability curve (CEAC) derived from the bootstrap replicates. CEAC
4 indicates the probability that the intervention was cost effective at different values of willingness
5 to pay for the additional improvement in the outcome[28].
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12 An additional 4 sensitivity analyses were used to examine how the results changed under
13 different input assumptions. In the first 2 analyses, personnel wages and training costs were
14 varied by 20% in either direction before recalculating the ICERs. The third sensitivity analysis
15 using the summed weekly MVPA totals to estimate the ICER for each additional minute of
16 MVPA per week. The fourth sensitivity analysis considered a different outcome measure for PA,
17 using the summed weekly MVPA totals to estimate the ICER for changing one individual from
18 insufficiently physically active to sufficiently physical activity (≥ 150 minutes MVPA per
19 week)[22].
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33 **Patient and public involvement**

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36 Patients were not involved in the research question, study design, or the conduction of the
37 study.
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44 **RESULTS**

45 **Resource use and costs**

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48 Seventy two participants were randomised; the group consisting of 54 females and 18 males,
49 with an average age of 53 ± 8 (Online supplementary file 2). A total of 72 participants completed
50 their baseline and 3-month assessment, and 68 participants completed the 6-month
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3 assessment. For participants with missing data at 6-month follow-up (n = 2 in both groups), the
4 last-observation-carried forward approach was adopted. The program resources and cost per
5 participant are described in Table 1. Attendance at the education session was mandatory, with
6 full attendance recorded for both groups. The mean group program time was 34 ± 6 minutes,
7 and the mean total participant time spent in the intervention was 242 ± 14 minutes. The mean
8 cost per participant was $\$279 \pm \10 for intervention versus $\$21 \pm \3 for control. The main
9 component costs of MI-CBT were intervention delivery and training.
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Table 1. Utilisation and cost of program delivery for intervention and control groups

Item	Provider	Units	Time (h)	Cost/h AU\$	Total AU\$ cost per participant
Intervention group					
Group Sessions	Allied Health professional	1	2.5	41.90	17.45
Phone call reminders	Intervention assistant	8	0.25	22.80	45.6
Intervention sessions	Allied Health professional	8	0.5	41.90	167.6
Program manual					3.5
Staff training					44.6
Total cost/participant					279
Control group					
Group Sessions	Allied Health professional	1	2.5	41.90	17.45
Program manual					3.5
Total cost/participant					21

Health outcomes

Table 2 presents the mean costs and the mean change in each outcome at follow-up for each group, and the corresponding ICERs. The ICER for MVPA was \$15 per each additional minute of MVPA per day. The difference in QALYs between intervention and control groups was 0.007 QALYs over the course of the follow-up period. The ICER for the intervention group in comparison with the control group was \$36,857 per QALY gained. Figures 1 and 2 illustrate the cost-effectiveness acceptability curves (CEAC) for each outcome derived from non-parametric bootstrapping replicates. For physical activity, given a willingness to pay of \$15 per additional minute of MVPA, the probability that the intervention was cost effective was 67% (Figure 1). At a willingness to pay of \$37,000 per QALY gained, the probability that the intervention is cost effective was 52% (Figure 2). If the decision maker was willing to pay \$40,000 per QALY, the probability of cost-effectiveness for the intervention was 70% (Figure 2).

Table 2. Costs, changes in outcomes and incremental cost-effectiveness ratios at follow-up.

Outcome	Cost AU\$/ Participant	Outcome	Incremental cost AU\$	Incremental outcome	ICER
MVPA					
Control	21	23			
Intervention	279	41	258	18	AU\$15/min MVPA per day
QALYs					
Control	21	-0.005			
Intervention	279	0.002	258	0.007	AU\$36, 857/QALY

ICER, Incremental cost-effectiveness ratio; MVPA, moderate to vigorous physical activity; QALYs: quality adjusted life years.

Figure 1 and 2 near here

In the sensitivity analyses, training and implementation costs were varied 20% in each direction, and the corresponding ICERs were recalculated (Table 3). The varied ICERs for MVPA was found to range from \$11 to \$17 per each additional minute of MVPA per day, while the ICER for QALYs ranged from \$29,428 to AU\$44,285 per QALY gained. The third sensitivity analysis demonstrated an ICER of \$2.86 per additional minute of MVPA per week. The final sensitivity analysis found that the intervention group was 33% more likely than control to meet recommended PA guidelines at follow-up, with an ICER of \$781 per PA guideline attained.

Table 3. Sensitivity analyses for costs, changes in outcomes and incremental cost-effectiveness ratios at follow-up.

Outcome	Cost AU\$/ Participant	Outcome	Incremental cost AU\$	Incremental outcome	ICER
MVPA + 20% variation in cost					
Control	25	23			
Intervention	335	41	310	18	AU\$17/min MVPA per day
QALY + 20% variation in cost					
Control	25	-0.005			
Intervention	335	0.002	310	0.007	AU\$44,285 QALY
MVPA - 20% variation in cost					
Control	17	23			
Intervention	223	41	206	18	AU\$11/min MVPA per day
QALY - 20% variation in cost					
Control	17	-0.005			
Intervention	223	0.002	206	0.007	AU\$29,428 QALY
MVPA min per week					
Control	21	170			
Intervention	279	260	258	90	AU\$2.86/min MVPA per week
PA guidelines attained					
Control	21	20/36 (55%)			
Intervention	279	31/36 (86%)	258	33%	AU\$781/ PA guideline achieved

ICER, Incremental cost-effectiveness ratio; MVPA, moderate to vigorous physical activity; PA, Physical activity; QALYs: quality adjusted life years

DISCUSSION

This study examined the clinical and economic implications of a behaviour change intervention for changes in PA and QALYs for insufficiently physically active adults presenting to an ambulatory care clinic in a regional public hospital setting. Over the follow-up period the MI-CBT intervention was significantly more effective than control in increasing PA and HrQoL. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study to evaluate the cost-effectiveness and cost-utility of an integrated MI-CBT intervention for health-related behaviour change.

Telephone coaching can be cost effective for increasing physical activity with patients with or at risk of chronic disease[29, 30]. However, little is known about the cost-effectiveness of adding preventive interventions to routine hospital care, where implementing an intervention requires an upfront investment of money. The total estimated cost of delivering the MI-CBT intervention was \$279 per person, resulting in the average attainment of 41 ± 12 minutes of MVPA per day at follow-up. The per person cost was similar to the \$245 per person found in recent primary care intervention for PA change[31], while both are considerably lower than costs of \$1,756/person[32] and \$1,562/person[33] reported in other lifestyle interventions aiming at changes in PA.

The cost-effective analysis for measured MVPA indicated a cost of \$15 per each additional minute of MVPA per day. Over the 6-month follow-up period this can be translated to a total cost of \$9 per day, or \$63 per week to increase MVPA by 150 minutes. Sensitivity analysis indicated a one-time cost of \$2.86 per each additional minute of MVPA per week, or \$8.25 per week to increase MVPA to 150 minutes a week over the 6-month follow up. The cost of \$8.25 per week to increase MVPA to 150 minutes is comparable to the \$4.99[34], \$8.13[35] and \$10.19[36] per

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3 week found in other interventions aimed at increasing physical activity. Increases in PA result in
4 decreased healthcare use, even in the short term, which result in net savings to society over
5 time[37]. Determining the cost-effectiveness of integrating telephone coaching into routine care
6 from a hospital perspective is dependent on the willingness-to-pay for each additional minute of
7 MVPA. Interpreting the ICER of \$15 per additional minute of MVPA found here is difficult as
8 there is no standard value for how much policy-makers are willing to pay per additional minute
9 of MVPA [34]. The CEAC indicated a probability of 67% that \$15 per additional minute of MVPA
10 was cost-effective (Figure 1).
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23 The intervention group was 33% more likely than the control group to undertake sufficient PA at
24 follow-up. Sensitivity analysis demonstrated an ICER of \$781 for converting one insufficiently
25 physically active adult to a sufficiently active state over the 6-month follow-up period. This value
26 falls with the ranges of \$175 to \$1801,[38] and \$521 to \$5790[39] estimated in systematic
27 reviews investigating the cost-effectiveness of physical activity interventions. Undertaking
28 sufficient PA is strongly associated with decreased risk of chronic disease, morbidity and
29 mortality,[1] as well as decreased healthcare expenditure over time[37].
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42 In the cost-utility analysis an incremental change in QALYs of 0.007 was demonstrated between
43 the intervention and control groups, resulting in an ICER of \$36,857 per QALY gained. The
44 ICER of \$36,857 per QALY gained is considerably smaller than the \$58,924 per QALY
45 gained[32] and the \$68,101 per QALY gained[33] found in similar intervention studies. Oskman
46 et al. recently reported an ICER of \$48,000 per QALY gained for a telephone-based health
47 coaching intervention for chronic disease patients[40]. Direct comparison with the results from
48 the aforementioned studies is challenging because different cost perspectives were considered
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3 in these analyses. Nonetheless, the ICER of \$36,857 per QALY falls under the commonly used
4 threshold of \$50,000 per QALY gained proposed for medical treatments and procedures[41].
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6 Sensitivity analysis demonstrated that costs for the Healthy4U study are only mildly sensitive to
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8 typical variation in the cost input values. A variation in hourly wage costs had the largest impact
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10 on the ICERs, however, the ICERs remained well below the threshold of \$50,000 per QALY
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12 gained at all imputed values. The CEAC provided a probability of 52% that the intervention was
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14 cost effective at a willingness to pay of \$37,000 per QALY gained (Figure 2).
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21 Behaviour change interventions are typically used to modify specific lifestyle factors known to
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23 predispose individuals to increased risk of chronic disease over the longer term[42]. The long-
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25 term impact of such interventions on overall quality of life is less established. While the follow-up
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27 period in this study was too short for the mediating effect of physical activity on broader health
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29 outcomes to become fully apparent,[42] the relatively small observed change in QALYs over 6
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31 months was a combination of the -0.005 fall in the control group and the 0.002 increase in the
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33 intervention group. This finding supports the suggestion that an important impact of behavioural
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35 interventions on quality-of-life over the longer-term might be to attenuate expected declines in
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37 health related quality-of-life [43].
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44 This study was unique in that we enrolled participants from an ambulatory care clinic in a public
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46 hospital, integrating preventative health into secondary care. It is important to note that this
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48 intervention was carried out in addition to standard care, not as a substitution, and as such an
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50 economic evaluation costed from a hospital perspective offers healthcare providers an estimate
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52 of the costs and effects of adding a preventative health intervention to clinical care. This study is
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54 one of the few economic evaluations of telephone coaching carried out in real-life settings using
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3 an RCT design. The addition of preventive health measures is likely to cost hospitals more,
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5 however, these preventive measures might be worthwhile due to the substantial health benefits
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7 that they confer, relative to their cost[37]. Nevertheless, implementation remains a challenge for
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9 hospitals,[15] and it will be important to engage with key stakeholders, especially clinic leaders,
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11 to identify specific patients who can benefit from telephone coaching[44]. Health services with
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13 high implementation rates of telephone coaching have used multi-component strategies to
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15 engage staff, as they were the most important source of referrals[44]. Investigating hospital
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17 clinicians' practice and beliefs around preventive health can also facilitate the development of
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19 pathways to increase preventive health practice in the hospital setting[45].
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26 The greatest cost of the intervention was in the delivery, due to the fact that it was delivered
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28 individually by trained personnel. These costs could be reduced by decreasing the number of
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30 intervention sessions, with a recent meta-analysis indicating that 5 sessions of MI-CBT is
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32 significantly effective for physical activity change[46]. Costs could potentially be reduced by
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34 incorporating digital technology into the intervention to decrease the time spent by trained
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36 professionals in 1:1 sessions. Innovations in digital technologies can assist individuals with
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38 health behaviour change,[47] which can potentially reduce health care expenditure[47, 48]. The
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40 long term cost-effectiveness of digital health technologies has not been established [47].
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46 The use of objectively measured PA at all time points was a considerable strength of the study.
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48 Objective measures offer more precise estimates of activity intensity while removing many of
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50 the issues associated with participant recall and response bias[49]. Individuals have been
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52 demonstrated to overestimate their PA levels via self-report[38]. Overestimation of PA can result
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54 in inaccurate estimations of both effectiveness and the cost-effectiveness of interventions[50].
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3 Using objectively measured changes in PA and the collection of full cost data for all participants
4 strengthens our findings[49].
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10 This study has a number of limitations. A noteworthy limitation of this study is the restricted
11 perspective used for the economic evaluation. Using a single hospital perspective might have
12 led to the exclusion of important costs and benefits from a societal perspective, including
13 healthcare utilisation and changes in productivity[51]. Economic analyses from a societal
14 perspective offer the most comprehensive evidence from which to base decisions[51]. However,
15 due to the relatively short follow-up time of this study it was not feasible to undertake this
16 method. Significant effects on overall healthcare utilisation or productivity loss were not
17 expected over the timeframe of this study[52]. As the intervention was delivered using the
18 telephone, the intervention required relatively small amounts of participant time. With this in
19 mind, the participant opportunity costs were expected to be small and therefore not included in
20 the analyses. Additionally, the study participants included 54 females and 18 males, which
21 might limit the generalisability of the current findings to different populations.
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39 To the best of our knowledge this is the first study comparing the cost-effectiveness and cost-
40 utility of an integrated MI-CBT intervention for health behaviour change amongst community-
41 dwelling adults presenting to a secondary care clinic in a regional public hospital setting.
42 Considering the large group of people who might benefit from such an intervention (i.e.,
43 approximately 50% of adults aged 18-69 years in Australia who are currently insufficiently
44 physically active), the widespread adoption and implementation of MI-CBT to increase PA could
45 have important economic implications. However, further research with a more comprehensive
46 economic analysis is needed to investigate whether the long-term benefits of MI-CBT might
47 justify this type of investment.
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Conclusion

The Healthy4U program is a relatively low-cost strategy for increasing physical activity among insufficiently physically active adults presenting to an ambulatory care hospital clinic. The intervention increased measured PA and quality of life at low costs, with positive effects maintained out to 6-months. By increasing physical activity and quality of life at low costs, integrating telephone coaching programs into secondary hospital care offers a potentially cost-effective investment to produce better public health outcomes. The results are however grounded on a short-term follow-up and a restricted economic perspective, and more evidence is needed to explore the potential long-term economic impact of the intervention from a broader healthcare perspective.

Footnotes

Author Contributions: SB¹, MK, SB² and PO'H conceived the project and assisted with the protocol design. SB¹ managed the trial including recruitment and data collection, coordinated the intervention program, performed statistical analysis, and drafted the manuscript. SB¹ and SB² interpreted the data and drafted the manuscript. All authors read, edited and approved the final manuscript as submitted.

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Competing interests: None declared.

Ethics approval: The study was approved by the Research Ethics Committees of Bendigo Health Care group (approved September 16, 2016; reference number LNR/16/BHCG/42) and La Trobe University College of Science Health and Engineering Human Ethics Sub-Committee (approved October 3, 2016). Written informed consent was obtained from all participants before they join the study.

Data sharing statement: Data are available upon reasonable request.

Patient consent for publication: Not required.

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Table Title

Table 1. Utilisation and cost of program delivery for intervention and control groups.

Table 2. Costs, changes in outcomes and incremental cost-effectiveness ratios at follow-up.

Table 3. Sensitivity analyses for costs, changes in outcomes and incremental cost-effectiveness ratios at follow-up.

Figure Title

Figure 1. Cost-effectiveness acceptability curve showing the probability of the interventions being cost-effective in comparison to control for moderate to vigorous physical activity (MVPA)

Figure 2. Cost-effectiveness acceptability curve showing the probability of the interventions being cost-effective in comparison to control for quality adjusted life years (QALYs)

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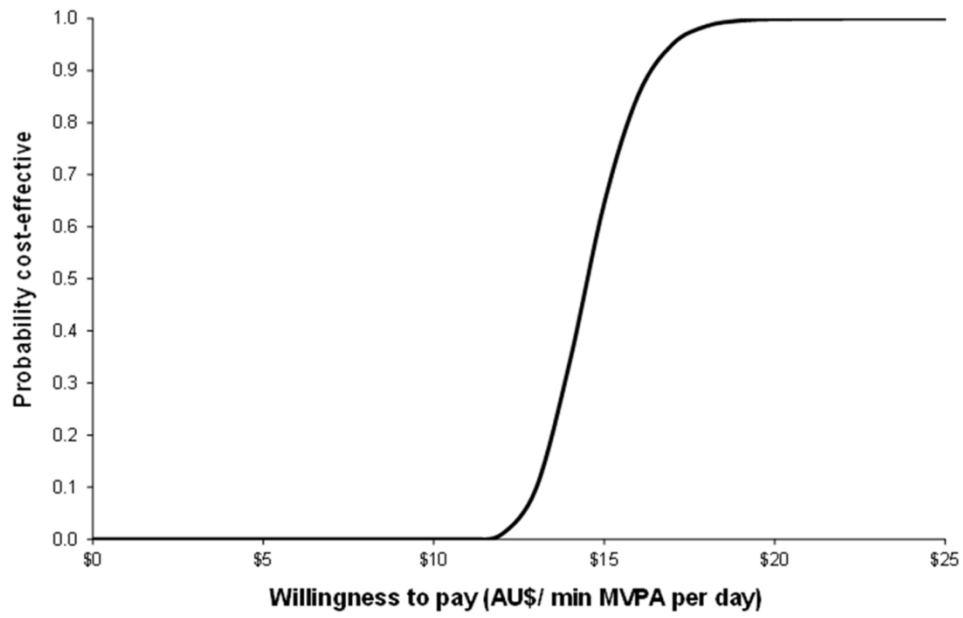


Figure 1 Cost-effectiveness acceptability curve showing the probability of the interventions being cost-effective in comparison to control for moderate to vigorous physical activity (MVPA)

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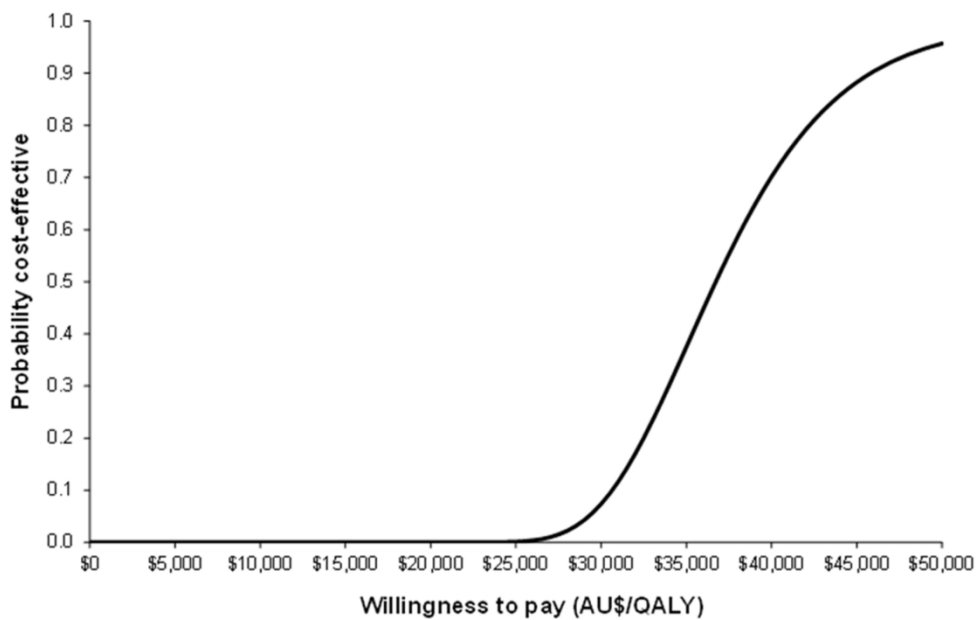


Figure 2 Cost-effectiveness acceptability curve showing the probability of the interventions being cost-effective in comparison to control for quality adjusted life years (QALYs)

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Table S1. Reporting checklist for economic evaluation of health interventions.

	Reporting Item	Page Number
Title		
	#1 Identify the study as an economic evaluation or use more specific terms such as “cost-effectiveness analysis”, and describe the interventions compared.	1
Abstract		
	#2 Provide a structured summary of objectives, perspective, setting, methods (including study design and inputs), results (including base case and uncertainty analyses), and conclusions	2-3
Introduction		
Background and objectives	#3 Provide an explicit statement of the broader context for the study. Present the study question and its relevance for health policy or practice decisions	4-5
Methods		
Target population and subgroups	#4 Describe characteristics of the base case population and subgroups analysed, including why they were chosen.	5
Setting and location	#5 State relevant aspects of the system(s) in which the decision(s) need(s) to be made.	5
Study perspective	#6 Describe the perspective of the study and relate this to the costs being evaluated.	7
Comparators	#7 Describe the interventions or strategies being compared and state why they were chosen.	5-6

1	Time horizon	#8	State the time horizon(s) over which costs and consequences are being evaluated and say why appropriate.	5
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6	Discount rate	#9	Report the choice of discount rate(s) used for costs and outcomes and say why appropriate	8
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10	Choice of health outcomes	#10	Describe what outcomes were used as the measure(s) of benefit in the evaluation and their relevance for the type of analysis performed	6-7
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15	Measurement of effectiveness	#11a	Single study-based estimates: Describe fully the design features of the single effectiveness study and why the single study was a sufficient source of clinical effectiveness data	n/a
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22	Measurement of effectiveness	#11b	Synthesis-based estimates: Describe fully the methods used for identification of included studies and synthesis of clinical effectiveness data	n/a
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27	Measurement and valuation of preference based outcomes	#12	If applicable, describe the population and methods used to elicit preferences for outcomes.	n/a
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34	**Estimating resources and costs **			
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40		#13a	Single study-based economic evaluation: Describe approaches used to estimate resource use associated with the alternative interventions. Describe primary or secondary research methods for valuing each resource item in terms of its unit cost. Describe any adjustments made to approximate to opportunity costs	n/a
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50	Methods			
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52	Estimating resources and costs	#13b	Model-based economic evaluation: Describe approaches and data sources used to estimate resource use associated with model health states. Describe primary or	n/a
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1			secondary research methods for valuing each resource	
2			item in terms of its unit cost. Describe any adjustments	
3			made to approximate to opportunity costs.	
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5	Currency, price date,	#14	Report the dates of the estimated resource quantities	7-8
6	and conversion		and unit costs. Describe methods for adjusting estimated	
7			unit costs to the year of reported costs if necessary.	
8			Describe methods for converting costs into a common	
9			currency base and the exchange rate.	
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13	Choice of model	#15	Describe and give reasons for the specific type of	n/a
14			decision analytical model used. Providing a figure to	
15			show model structure is strongly recommended.	
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19	Assumptions	#16	Describe all structural or other assumptions	n/a
20			underpinning the decision-analytical model.	
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23	Analytical methods	#17	Describe all analytical methods supporting the	n/a
24			evaluation. This could include methods for dealing with	
25			skewed, missing, or censored data; extrapolation	
26			methods; methods for pooling data; approaches to	
27			validate or make adjustments (such as half cycle	
28			corrections) to a model; and methods for handling	
29			population heterogeneity and uncertainty.	
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34	Results			
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36	Study parameters	#18	Report the values, ranges, references, and, if used,	9-13
37			probability distributions for all parameters. Report	
38			reasons or sources for distributions used to represent	
39			uncertainty where appropriate. Providing a table to show	
40			the input values is strongly recommended.	
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45	Incremental costs and	#19	For each intervention, report mean values for the main	9-13
46	outcomes		categories of estimated costs and outcomes of interest,	
47			as well as mean differences between the comparator	
48			groups. If applicable, report incremental cost-	
49			effectiveness ratios.	
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53	Characterising	#20a	Single study-based economic evaluation: Describe the	11-13
54	uncertainty		effects of sampling uncertainty for the estimated	
55			incremental cost and incremental effectiveness	
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parameters, together with the impact of methodological assumptions (such as discount rate, study perspective).

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4	Characterising	#20b	Model-based economic evaluation: Describe the effects
5	uncertainty		on the results of uncertainty for all input parameters, and
6			uncertainty related to the structure of the model and
7			assumptions.
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11	Characterising	#21	If applicable, report differences in costs, outcomes, or
12	heterogeneity		cost effectiveness that can be explained by variations
13			between subgroups of patients with different baseline
14			characteristics or other observed variability in effects that
15			are not reducible by more information.
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19	Discussion		
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21	Study findings,	#22	Summarise key study findings and describe how they
22	limitations,		support the conclusions reached. Discuss limitations and
23	generalisability, and		the generalisability of the findings and how the findings
24	current knowledge		fit with current knowledge.
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28	Other		
29			
30	Source of funding	#23	Describe how the study was funded and the role of the
31			funder in the identification, design, conduct, and
32			reporting of the analysis. Describe other non-monetary
33			sources of support
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37	Conflict of interest	#24	Describe any potential for conflict of interest of study
38			contributors in accordance with journal policy. In the
39			absence of a journal policy, we recommend authors
40			comply with International Committee of Medical Journal
41			Editors recommendations
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Table S2. Characteristics of participants at baseline.

Variable	Total	Intervention	Control	p-value
	72	36	36	
Age (years)	53 ± 8	53 ± 8	54 ± 7	0.70 ^a
Sex: female, n (%)	54 (75%)	28 (78%)	26 (72%)	0.58 ^a
Stature (cm)	166 ± 8	165 ± 9	168 ± 7	0.20 ^a
Weight (kg)	84.9 ± 9.4	84.5 ± 9.9	85.3 ± 8.9	0.72 ^a
BMI (kg/m²)	30.8 ± 4.1	31.1 ± 4.0	30.5 ± 4.2	0.51 ^a
MVPA (min/day)	31.2 ± 10.1	28.9 ± 9.9	33.3 ± 10.3	0.03 ^a
PA Self-efficacy	31 ± 10	28 ± 8	33 ± 10	0.05 ^a
Smoker, n (%)	23 (32%)	12 (33%)	11 (31%)	0.80 ^b
Obesity, n (%)	38 (53%)	22 (61%)	16 (44%)	0.16 ^b
Hypertension, n (%)	14 (20%)	9 (25%)	5 (14%)	0.23 ^b
OA/RA, n (%)	27 (38%)	16 (44%)	11 (31%)	0.22 ^b
Depression/anxiety, n (%)	30 (42%)	16 (44%)	14 (40%)	0.63 ^b
Employment status, n (%)				0.43 ^b
Full time	22 (31%)	10 (28%)	12 (33%)	
Part time	30 (42%)	18 (50%)	12 (33%)	
Unemployed	7 (10%)	4 (11%)	3 (8%)	
Retired	12 (16%)	4 (11%)	8 (22%)	
Other	1 (1%)	0	1 (4%)	
Education, n (%)				0.47 ^b
Year 10/11	10 (14%)	4 (11%)	6 (17%)	
Year 12	22 (31%)	12 (33%)	10 (28%)	
Cert I-IV	18 (25%)	7 (20%)	11 (30%)	
Diploma	13 (18%)	9 (25%)	4 (11%)	
Bachelor or higher	9 (12%)	4 (11%)	5 (14%)	

Group data expressed as means ± standard deviations. Figures in parentheses are proportions. BMI: Body mass index; MVPA: Moderate-to-vigorous physical activity; OA: Osteoarthritis; RA: Rheumatoid arthritis. ^a t-test between intervention and control groups. ^b chi square test between intervention and control groups.