1	Effectiveness of individual counselling and activity monitors to promote physical activity
2	among university students
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15 ABSTRACT

16 BACKGROUND: Physical activity promotion among university students is important to

17 contribute to a lifelong healthy lifestyle. Nevertheless, research in the field is still limited in

18 quantity, quality and generalizability. This study aimed at testing the effectiveness of two

19 strategies for promoting physical activity among university students.

20 METHOD: Thirty-three students were recruited and randomly assigned to three groups. The

21 first group attended individual counselling sessions via videoconferencing calls, the second

22 used wearable physical activity monitors and the third served as control. Interventions lasted

23 12 weeks. Measures of physical activity (self-reported and recorded by ActiGraph-GT3X+

24 monitors) and the stages of change of participants were collected at baseline (t0), immediately

after the 12-week intervention (t1), and after a 3-month follow-up (t2).

26 RESULTS: Analyses revealed that students in the individual counselling group increased self-

27 reported energy expenditure between t0 and t1 and maintained this improvement at t2;

28 progression through stages of changes was observed in the same group at t1, followed by

some relapses at t2. No significant differences were found neither in the group of students

30 who used the physical activity monitors nor in the control group.

31 CONCLUSIONS: Individual counselling program was effective for promoting physical

32 activity among university students, whereas the autonomous use of physical activity monitors

had no effects. However, the low participation rate in the study suggests to consider carefully

- 34 the difficulties in motivating this population and in finding low time-consuming strategies to
- 35 incentive participation.

36

37 Key words

38 Active lifestyle - Behavioural change - Health education - Young adults

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Introduction

42 University students represent a large population in industrialized countries (nearly 44% of people aged 20 to 24^{1}) at-risk of leading sedentary lifestyle²⁻⁴, which should be specifically 43 44 addressed with health-related physical activity programs. If, on the one hand, in the transition from secondary school to university there is a significant decline in physical activity (PA)⁵⁻⁷, 45 46 on the other hand university years can represent an ideal period for promoting active lifestyle 47 behaviours. University students are at a stage in life when they can make autonomous 48 decisions about their lifestyle and it is likely that these are maintained into the future, despite 49 new life and work commitments⁸. 50 Different studies evaluated the efficacy of interventions to promote PA in this population, 51 most of which have been conducted in United States universities. Controlled trials reporting positive effect on students' PA levels often describes course-based interventions⁹⁻¹³ or 52 53 programs focused on group lectures, seminars or practical activities^{14, 15}. Course-based 54 interventions can incentive students' participation in PA promotion programs by granting 55 academic credits and not adding additional time commitment to students, while group 56 activities can address a large number of students simultaneously, reducing the intervention 57 cost. Individual counselling and the adoption of pedometers/accelerometers are other strategies frequently used in interventions aimed at promoting PA¹⁷. The short-term 58 59 effectiveness of peer-to-peer PA counselling, given by sport sciences students to students of different subjects, has been reported by Newton, Kim, and Newton¹⁸ and by Boyle et al.⁹, but 60 61 both studies lacked randomization and follow-up data. Wearable PA monitors have become in recent years a popular and relatively inexpensive means of promoting PA¹⁹, however little is 62 still known about the effectiveness of the autonomous use of these devices^{20, 21}. Controlled 63 64 evidence on the effectiveness of PA monitors in promoting PA among university students is 65 currently limited to programs combining also different strategies (e.g. health and PA

66 information and support from a fitness instructor) in studies with no-follow- up^{22} or short-term 67 observation²³.

In Italy, the country where the present study was conducted, a significant decrease of PA from 68 high school to university has been observed, with a 12% reduction of young people regularly 69 engaging in PA from the age group 15-17 to the group $20-24^{16}$. At today, there are not 70 71 published studies regarding programs to promote PA among Italian university students, denoting a need for research in this field. Some characteristics of the Italian university system 72 73 jeopardize the applicability of interventions developed in different university settings: in Italy 74 students are not usually free to choose subjects which are not related to the main topic of their 75 study curriculum, thus hampering the application of PA promotion through course-based interventions. Moreover, in the Italian context the widespread city-based university model is 76 77 not ideal for proposing students to attend group lectures or practical activities because this 78 could raise timing or logistical problems due to transfers across the city. 79 The aim of this randomized controlled trial was to test the effectiveness of two different 80 strategies aimed at increasing PA levels in university students and to investigate the 81 sustainability of the effects up to a three-month follow up. One strategy was based on 82 individually tailored counselling, the other on the independent use of PA monitors. We 83 hypothesized that a tailored counselling intervention could better foster behavioural change 84 toward a more active lifestyle, compared to the autonomous use of a PA monitor. 85

- 86

Materials and methods

87 *Participants*

One thousand two hundred fifty-four students from the University of Padua, a city-based
university in North-East Italy, were contacted in university buildings or on the streets in their

90 vicinity with a brief face-to-face interview. The purpose of the interview was to identify

91	students that were not regularly physically active (less than self-reported 150 min \times week ⁻¹ of
92	moderate PA), had no health conditions contraindicating PA and were not sport sciences
93	student. Four hundred and twenty-six students (34%) reported to being engaged in PA on a
94	regular basis, 828 (66%) met the inclusion criteria. Fifty-two from the second group accepted
95	to participate in the study. Baseline assessment was completed by 35 students, 17 left the
96	study before the baseline assessment without providing any explanation, 2 dropped-out after
97	baseline assessment. The remaining 33 participants (13 men and 20 women, aged from 19 to
98	26 years, $M = 22$, $SD = 2$) were stratified according to their stage of change (see Measures
99	section) and consequently randomized into three groups: individual counselling group (ICG),
100	PA monitors group (PAMG) and control (CG) by means of a random number generator.
101	Thirty-three completed the post-intervention measurement, 32 completed follow-up
102	measurements, 1 was excluded because of concurring health problems, resulting in a 97%
103	retention rate (see Figure 1).
104	Participants volunteered and did not receive any rewards. They provided written informed
105	consent, received written explanations regarding aims and methods of the study and were
106	informed they could withdraw at any time. The study was approved by the Biomedical
107	Sciences ethical Committee of the University of Padua on July 18th 2015 (n. 0048) and was
108	conducted in accordance with the ethics principles of the declaration of Helsinki.
109	
110	###Insert Figure 1 approx. here###
111	
112	Measures
113	Participants filled in the International Physical Activity Questionnaire short form (IPAQ-S)
114	and the Physical Activity Stage of Change questionnaire (PASOC). The IPAQ-S is designed
115	to measure PA performed in the last seven days ²⁴ . It requires respondents to self-report how

116 many days and how many minutes per day they were engaged in moderate and vigorous PA and in walking. Data of IPAQ-S were processed by using a continuous scoring, adjusting the 117 118 time spent in each intensity level for a standard MET value: 3.3 METs for walking, 4 METs for moderate PA, and 8 METs for vigorous PA²⁵. The PASOC²⁶ assesses the stages of change 119 120 according to the Transtheoretical Model of Behaviour Change, it asks respondents if they 121 were regularly engaging in PA in the previous six months and what their intentions were in 122 the near future (subsequent six months). "Engaging in regular PA" is intended as engaging in 123 at least 150 minutes of moderate $PA \times week^{-1}$. Respondents are classified at: precontemplation 124 stage if they do not regularly engage in moderate PA and don't intend to engage in moderate 125 PA in the next six months; contemplation stage if they are not currently active but they intend 126 to engage in moderate PA in the near future; preparation stage if they engage in moderate PA, 127 but not regularly yet; action stage if they engage regularly in moderate PA, but they haven't 128 been regularly participating in moderate PA for the last six months; maintenance if they 129 engage regularly in moderate PA, and have been regularly participating in moderate PA for the last six months. 130 131 Moreover, to objectively assess PA, all participants wore for seven consecutive days, at the 132 different data collection sessions, an ActiGraph-GT3X+ activity monitor (this is a widely used and validated triaxial accelerometer)^{27, 28}. In the present study measures from the 133 134 Actigraph were expressed as minutes spent in moderate to vigorous PA (MVPA), since this is the range of PA which is believed to lead to health improvements²⁹. We considered valid a 135 136 daily wear time of at least eight hours. If participants forgot to wear the monitor or if they 137 wore it for less than eight hours a day, another seven-day measurement was carried out.

- 138 Participants were asked not to wear the monitors in water, to prevent damages to the device.
- 139

140 Procedures

141 The participants were involved in three evaluation sessions. Measures were taken at the 142 baseline (t_0) , at the end of the 12-week treatment period (t_1) and 3 months after the end of the 143 treatment (t₂). At t₂, participants were asked for feedbacks on the study via an unstructured 144 interview. Individuals in the ICG took part in an initial one-hour group meeting, where they 145 were invited to discuss the importance of PA, moreover they attended every second week 146 individual video-call meetings (via Skype) and received two informative emails a week. 147 Participants in the PAMG received a wearable PA monitor (the MyWellness Key) and were 148 instructed on how to use the device and the dedicated website, they were asked to wear the 149 monitor for the entire 12-week experimental period. Participants in the CG did not receive 150 any treatment.

151

152 Counselling intervention

153 The counselling intervention was developed using the Social-cognitive theory and the 154 Transtheoretical model of behaviour change. According to Social-cognitive theory, a 155 behaviour can be promoted by increasing the behaviour-related self-efficacy and outcome expectations^{30, 31}. Self-efficacy has been proved a consistent predictor of PA^{32, 33}, and 156 157 associated with changes in PA behaviour in interventions to promote PA³⁴. 158 The Transtheoretical model conceptualizes the process of intentional behaviour change as a 159 progression through different stages³⁵, and indicates cognitive and behavioural processes that people use to progress throughout the stages 26 . Both the Social-cognitive theory and the 160 161 Transtheoretical model have been widely used to design interventions to promote PA in university students (e.g.^{9, 12, 13, 18}). 162

163 The counselling intervention aimed to increase PA-related self-efficacy (enabling mastery 164 experience, providing vicarious experience and verbal persuasion, and reflecting on emotional 165 arousal), and outcome expectations of the participants, and to foster progression through stages of change using cognitive and behavioural strategies suggested by the Transtheoretical model (see Table I). We tailored the intervention according to the stage of change of each participant and by taking into consideration individual characteristics, personal needs, previous experience and expectations. Online videoconferencing and emails were used to deliver the counselling intervention, so to help participants to save time and adhere to the program, since lack of time is often the main barrier towards practising PA reported by university students³⁶⁻³⁸.

173

174 ###Insert Table I approx. here###

175

176 *Physical activity monitor intervention*

177 The MyWellness Key (Technogym SpA, Cesena, Italy), used by participants in the PAMG, is a PA monitor specifically designed to monitor and promote PA³⁹. Activity is measured by a 178 179 uniaxial accelerometer worn at the waist by means of a belt clip and is expressed as "moves", 180 a unit that takes into account both quantity and intensity of PA. The device automatically sets 181 a goal of moves to achieve every day, based on the measurement of the previous seven days. 182 It also provides a direct feedback to the user showing the amount of moves accumulated 183 during the day on a white bar displayed on the device. Data can be downloaded and the user 184 can look at his/her results on a personal web page, where it is possible to plan exercise and 185 keep track of current and past PA.

186

187 Statistical Analysis

Independent sample t tests and one-way ANOVAs were used to test the differences at the baseline respectively between men and women and between groups. Pearson's correlations between IPAQ-S and Actigraph MVPA measures were calculated. Three (time) x 3 (group)

191	RM-ANOVAs were conducted for each measure (except for PASOC scores) to examine
192	differences over time and among groups. Significant time x group interactions have been
193	further investigated using a simple main effects test as post-hoc. Effect size (Hedges' g) for
194	significant effect of intervention was estimated using the measure proposed by Morris ⁴⁰ . The
195	Friedman test was used to detect changes in PASOC scores at the three times of research;
196	significant differences were further investigated using the Wilcoxon signed-rank test.
197	
198	Results
199	No significant differences between men and women and between the three groups were found
200	at the baseline in any of the variables.
201	Pearson's correlation among IPAQ-S and Actigraph MVPA measures revealed a moderate
202	statistically significant correlation only at the baseline ($r_{30} = 0.37$, $p = 0.037$).
203	Repeated measures ANOVA showed significant time x group interaction ($F_{2.61, 37.8} = 5.99$, $p =$
204	0.003) in self-reported PA levels as measured by the IPAQ-S. Post-hoc test revealed that
205	students in the ICG showed a significant increase in self-reported PA (mean increase = 2063.3
206	min×MET×week ⁻¹ , $p < 0.001$) from t ₀ to t ₁ , whereas participants in the PAMG and in the CG
207	did not show any significant difference (descriptive statistics and changes over time for each
208	group are reported in Table II). The post-hoc test did not show any significant difference for
209	any of the groups from t_1 to t_2 . The effect size for the counselling intervention (IPAQ
210	measures) was $g = 0.409$.
211	
212	###Insert Table II approx. here###
213	
214	No significant time x group interactions were found in PA levels measured by the Actigraph.

215	The Friedman test showed significant differences in PASOC in the ICG between different
216	measurement time points ($\chi^2_2 = 15.24$, $p < 0.001$). The Wilcoxon signed-rank test revealed
217	that all participants in the ICG reported a significant progress through behaviour change
218	stages from t_0 to t_1 (Z = -2.85, $p = 0.004$). From t_1 to t_2 , seven participants in the ICG
219	regressed to a previous stage (Z = -2.4, $p = 0.016$). Within the overall time frame, from t ₀ to
220	t ₂ , six participants in ICG showed a progression through stages of change, approached
221	approaching statistical significance (Z = -1.93, $p = 0.053$). No significant differences over
222	time were found in PASOC for participants in the PAMG and in the CG. Table III displays
223	the stages of the participants at t_0 and the progressions/relapses over time.
224	
225	###Insert Table III approx. here###
226	
227	Discussion
228	The aim of the present study was to analyse the effectiveness of two different strategies
229	designed to increase PA among Italian university students of a city-based university. Of the
230	828 students eligible for the study, only 52 (6.3%) accepted to participate. The main reason
231	that students gave when declining to participate was a lack of time, and a minority declared
232	they were not interested. The low participation rate highlights the difficulties in motivating
233	this population to engage in PA and suggests the importance of identifying effective and low
234	time-consuming strategies to incentive participation.
235	Effects on PA levels
236	At t_0 , according to Actigraph data, 21 participants spent more than 150 min×week ⁻¹ in
237	MVPA, even if all participants declared not having been regularly physically active. The
238	mismatch between participant's declaration at recruitment and the objectively measured PA

recruiting interview, participants were not guided step-by-step in the recall of PA, so it is
plausible that they did not correctly perceive which types of PA fall into the range of MVPA,
or were unable to accurately recall the time spent engaging in PA.

243 Results of MVPA objectively and subjectively measured did not correlate (only at t₀ a 244 significant moderate positive correlation was found), and this is a well-known problem in research⁴¹. Moreover, data collected with the Actigraph monitors did not show any significant 245 246 improvement over time in the three groups, while self-reported PA, as measured by the IPAQ-247 S, increased significantly in the ICG after the 12-week intervention and remained constant at 248 the 12-week follow-up, differently from individuals in the PAMG and in the CG that did not 249 report significant changes, either at t_1 and t_2 . Different reasons could explain this result: a) the 250 subjective evaluation of PA levels depends on the individual's recall of quantity and intensity; b) people can either over-report or under-report their performances $^{42, 43}$; c) when an 251 252 accelerometer is worn at the waist, as it was in our study, only activities involving the centre 253 of mass swinging (e.g. walking and running) can be detected, while others (e.g. resistance exercise, biking, swimming, housework) are not properly recorded^{44, 45}. Furthermore, it is 254 255 possible that the improvement in MVPA for ICG shown by IPAQ-S measures, but not by 256 Actigraph, is due to the fact the some ICG participants started engaging in types of PA that 257 the monitors could not properly record. Regarding the ICG, eight participants started during 258 the intervention a home-based resistance training (this was one of the topic discussed during 259 the individual counselling), two started to attend aqua gym classes (participants were asked 260 not to wear the Actigraph in water), and five initiated commuting by bike. 261 Results of the IPAQ-S support the effectiveness of an individual-based counselling 262 intervention, compared to an intervention based on the independent use of accelerometers and 263 to a no-intervention condition, in promoting PA among university students. Improvements in

264 MVPA levels in ICG group lasted up to the 12-week follow-up period. This type of

265 intervention seems to hold good promises for future studies on larger samples, which should 266 also test intervention effects for a longer term. Regarding unstructured interview, participants 267 reported to appreciate using online videoconferencing for counselling. This approach is less 268 time-consuming than in-person counselling, and has been widely used for psychological counselling⁴⁶. This method seems to be useful in helping students to spare time and to avoid 269 270 logistic and timing problems, which could occur when trying to arrange in-person meetings 271 with the counsellor. Lack of time can lead students to the decision to not adhere to the 272 program (as observed in the recruiting phase) or can cause participants to quit the counselling program, as observed in past studies^{9, 18}. 273

The present study is one of the first to evaluating the effectiveness of online

275 videoconferencing to deliver a PA promotion program. A similar approach has been used in a

recently published trial⁴⁷, but it did not find significant greater effectiveness in adding web-

277 based video-coaching to a website-based intervention.

278

279 Changes in Stage of Change

280 Significant changes in the stage of change, as measured by the PASOC questionnaire, were 281 found in ICG members over the time, whereas no significant differences were found in the 282 other two groups. All ICG participants progressed through stages from t_0 to t_1 , but 283 subsequently seven of them regressed to a previous stage from t_1 to t_2 . Considering the 284 differences between t₀ and t₂, there was an almost statistically significant progression through stages. At t₂, six participants of the ICG were at a further stage compared to t₀, with a decrease 285 286 in individuals in the precontemplation and contemplation stages, and an increase in 287 preparation and action stages. It seems that the individual counselling intervention was 288 effective in promoting progress through stages, helping some participants to engage more

regularly in PA, and helping others to start thinking about changing from a sedentary to a

290 more active lifestyle.

291 *Results in the PA monitor (PAMG) and in the control groups (CG)*

292 Results suggest that the independent use of PA monitors did not succeed in increasing PA. 293 Students in the PAMG claimed that wearing MWK was uncomfortable and that, after a period 294 of time, it proved to be stressful for them to try to achieves the daily amount of PA set by the 295 device to reach the daily goal. As suggested in the review by Tudor-Locke and Lutes⁴⁸, PA-296 promotion programs based on the use of pedometers/accelerometers should allow participants 297 to set their own daily PA goals. The device used in our study does not allow a customization 298 of daily PA goals when used autonomously; this could have been a factor leading to the 299 ineffectiveness of this approach. According to participants' feedback, future studies should 300 consider the impact of the PA monitors wearability on perceived comfort and the possibility 301 to customizes one's PA goals. PA monitors have been successfully used in PA promotion programs^{21, 48, 49} when linked with other forms of support (e.g. the intervention of a coach or a 302 303 counsellor in combination with the monitor). The individual use of PA monitors is a less 304 expensive strategy, since it minimizes the need for human resources, but, in our study, it was 305 insufficient to increase PA levels.

Finally, as expected, participants in the CG did not change their PA habits. No significant
differences in both IPAQ-S and Actigraph measures, as well as no significant progression
through stages of changes were observed in this group.

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- 310

Conclusions

This paper presents the results of a study aimed at exploring the effectiveness of two differentstrategies in promoting PA among university students in an Italian city-based university.

Measures of self-reported PA and of stages of change supported the notion that an individual counselling program can be a successful strategy in promoting PA among university students, while accelerometer measures did not support the effectiveness of the intervention. We can assume that the increase of self-reported MVPA was not detected by accelerometers because participants increased the time spent in certain types of PA that the Actigraph cannot properly record.

319 Counselling sessions delivered via online videoconferencing were appreciated by participants 320 and helped to avoid possible logistic and timing problems that could rise when delivering a 321 face-to-face intervention. The independent use of PA monitors did not succeed in improving 322 PA levels. Further studies are needed to assess if these devices can be useful in promoting PA 323 when used autonomously by individuals.

324 *Limits and directions for future studies*

The present study presents some limitations. The sample size was small and this could hinder the generalizability of the results. An inconsistency between participants' declaration of being not regularly physically active and baseline data was found; imprecise recall/evaluation of one's PA could be implied.

329 As reported in the literature, a mismatch between PA measured by questionnaires and PA 330 recorded by the Actigraph in free-living condition was observed. Both instruments present 331 some limitations, previously discussed, and future studies should try to integrate different 332 measurement methods, to increase both objectivity and comprehensiveness of the measures. 333 Finally, based on observations conducted during the study and participants' feedback, we 334 would suggest considering for future studies the great variability of PA behaviours that may 335 occur during the academic year. University students, in contrast to other populations, have 336 often no stable routine habits throughout the year. They tend to spend more time in sedentary 338 other activities, including exercise and PA.

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468	
469	TITLE OF TABLES
470	Table I. Strategies used in individual counselling sessions.
471	Table II. Descriptive statistics, and change scores for physical activity measures over the
472	three measurement points.
473	Table III Participants' stage of change at t_{0} , and changes over time.
474	
475	TITLE OF THE FIGURE
476	Fig. 1 Participants' flowchart.