

1
2
3 **A randomized controlled trial of Assisted Intention Monitoring (AIM) for the**
4
5 **rehabilitation of executive impairments following acquired brain injury (ABI).**
6
7

8
9
10
11 Fergus Gracey, ClinPsyD^{1,3,5}, Jessica E Fish, PhD^{2,3}, Eve Greenfield,
12
13 BSc(Hons)², Andrew Bateman, PhD^{3,5}, Donna Malley MSt³, Gemma Hardy,
14
15 ClinPsyD^{2,3}, Jessica Ingham, ClinPsyD^{2,3}, Jonathan J Evans, PhD⁴ and Tom
16
17 Manly, PhD².

18
19
20 ¹ Department of Clinical Psychology, Norwich Medical School, University of East
21
22 Anglia, Norwich Research Park, Norwich, UK.

23
24
25 ² MRC Cognition and Brain Sciences Unit, 15 Chaucer Road, Cambridge, UK.
26
27

28
29 ³ Oliver Zangwill Centre, Cambridgeshire Community Services NHS Trust,
30
31 Princess of Wales Hospital, Cambridgeshire, UK.
32

33
34 ⁴ Institute of Health and Wellbeing, University of Glasgow, Gartnavel Royal
35
36 Hospital, Glasgow, UK.
37

38
39 ⁵ Acquired Brain Injury Rehabilitation Alliance, Cambridge, UK.
40
41

42
43 Corresponding author: Dr Fergus Gracey, Department of Clinical Psychology,
44
45 Norwich Medical School, University of East Anglia, Norwich Research Park,
46
47 Norwich NR4 7TJ.
48

49
50 Tel: +44 (0) 1603 592898 Email: f.gracey@uea.ac.uk
51
52

53
54 Word count: 4509

Tables: 2

Figures: 2

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54

1
2
3 **Abstract**
4

5
6 *Background* Acquired brain injury (ABI) can impair executive function, impeding
7
8
9 planning and attainment of intentions. Research shows promise for some goal-
10 management rehabilitation interventions. However, evidence that alerts assist
11 monitoring and completion of day-to-day intentions is limited. *Objective* To
12
13 examine efficacy of brief goal-directed rehabilitation paired with periodic SMS text
14
15 messages designed to enhance executive monitoring of intentions (Assisted
16
17 Intention Monitoring, AIM). *Methods* A randomized, double-blind, controlled trial
18
19 was conducted. Following a baseline phase, 74 people with ABI and executive
20
21 problems were randomized to receive AIM or control (information and games) for
22
23 three weeks (phase 1) before crossing over to either AIM or no intervention
24
25
26 (phase 2). Primary outcome was change in composite score of proportion of daily
27
28 intentions achieved. Fifty-nine people completed (71% male; 46% traumatic brain
29
30 injury) all study phases. *Results* Per protocol cross-over analysis found a
31
32 significant benefit of AIM for all intentions ($F(1,56) = 4.28, P = 0.04; f = 0.28; 3.7\%$
33
34 mean difference; 95% CI: 0.1-7.4%) and all intentions excluding a proxy
35
36 prospective memory task ($F(1,55) = 4.79; P = 0.033; f = 0.28$, medium effect size;
37
38 3% mean difference; 95% CI: 0.3-5.6%), in the absence of significant changes on
39
40 tests of executive functioning. Intention to treat analyses, comparing AIM against
41
42 control at end of phase 1 revealed no statistically significant differences in
43
44 attainment of intentions. *Conclusion* Combining brief executive rehabilitation with
45
46 alerts may be effective for some in improving achievement of daily intentions, but
47
48 further evaluation of clinical effectiveness and mechanisms is required.
49
50
51
52
53
54
55 Key words: Brain Injuries, Rehabilitation, Executive Function

Introduction

Impairments in executive functioning are common following acquired brain injury (ABI) involving the prefrontal cortex^{1,2}, and are associated with poorer functional and social outcomes^{3,4}. Executive processes include breaking down a complex goal into a series of ordered sub-goals that determine behaviour, holding the steps and overarching goal in mind, constraining attention and behaviour to the main goal, and weighing its priority against competing demands that may arise^{1,5-7}. When a goal cannot be executed immediately it becomes a prospective memory (PM)⁸ that does not remain at the forefront of consciousness but remains latent, to be recalled at the appropriate time ('time-based PM'), when the appropriate opportunity arises ('event-based PM') or at some future stage ('step PM'⁹). Prospective memory failure can result from memory difficulties (forgetting the plan), and executive difficulties⁸ (failure to act despite memory of one's intention, also known as 'goal neglect'¹⁰). Rehabilitation of executive functioning is therefore inherently challenging because the capacities that maximize adaptive change, including ability to transfer rehabilitation from clinic to everyday life, are compromised, resulting in reduced effectiveness of rehabilitation¹¹⁻¹³, and poorer emotional outcomes¹⁴.

Interventions for executive deficits such as Goal Management Training (GMT^{5 15}) emphasise effective implementation of intentions to varying degrees. Typically run in groups over 8 or more sessions GMT includes education to develop awareness and structured practice of goal setting, self-monitoring, and managing competing distractions¹⁶. Reviews of intervention studies favor

1
2
3 metacognitive strategy training (incorporating self-monitoring and self-
4 regulation)¹⁷ and approaches combining GMT with other strategies such as
5
6 supports for transfer into daily life¹⁶ over stand-alone goal management. The latter
7
8 review concluded 'proof of principle' was demonstrated for studies of 'content free'
9
10 cues provided at random intervals for improving goal-directed behavior during
11
12 brief (10-15 minute) complex office-based tasks^{18,19}. However, whilst the
13
14 international INCOG guideline for rehabilitation of executive impairment supports
15
16 use of metacognitive strategy training²⁰, the INCOG guideline for rehabilitation of
17
18 attention deficits¹¹ states that evidence is conflicting and further clinical outcome
19
20 studies are required. A functional imaging study failed to find beneficial effect of
21
22 periodic alerts on the Sustained Attention to Response Task (SART), but did
23
24
25
26 show reduced right dorsolateral prefrontal activation during provision of alerts.
27
28 This was interpreted by the authors as indicating that cues assisted the
29
30 maintenance of intentions by reducing reliance on specific endogenous control
31
32 processes underpinned by the right fronto-parietal control and attention networks,
33
34 involved in sustaining attention to task goals²¹. A recent trial²² found GMT
35
36 incorporating text message reminders resulted in gains on self-report and
37
38 neuropsychological measures, although the independent contribution of cueing
39
40 was not evaluated. Previous trials have used questionnaires or
41
42 neuropsychological tests rather than real-world behavioural measures to evaluate
43
44
45
46 outcome. In one exception to this Fish et al²³ evaluated transfer of training on a
47
48 naturalistic task of remembering to make phone calls at set times each day over a
49
50
51
52 2 week period. Participants with ABI learned specified times to call the study's
53

1
2
3 pausing current activity to mentally review one's intentions was linked with a cue
4
5 phrase ("STOP"; Stop, Think, Organise, Plan). STOP cues were provided on
6
7
8 randomly selected days at random intervals. Cued days were associated with
9
10 significantly more, and more accurately timed, calls than non-cued days. Although
11
12 promising for potential application in rehabilitation, the effectiveness in terms of
13
14 participants' own everyday intentions and potential effect on emotional outcomes
15
16 were not evaluated. Further evaluation of the effect of combined brief GMT and
17
18 cueing on everyday goals is therefore required.
19
20
21
22
23

24 Here we report a trial examining the efficacy of Assisted Intention
25
26 Monitoring (AIM) comprising brief GMT followed by randomly-timed SMS text
27
28 messages, for improving achievement of everyday intentions. The broad aim was
29
30 to extend prior research using GMT plus periodic alerts to evaluate potential
31
32 efficacy in improving achievement of everyday intentions. The primary outcome
33
34 was a composite score of proportion of 'all intentions' achieved, made up of
35
36 different types of intention and an objectively scored proxy task (the phone task).
37
38
39

40 The primary study hypotheses were:

- 41
42 1. Proportion of all intentions achieved will be significantly greater
43
44 during AIM than control phases.
- 45
46 2. Proportion of all intentions achieved excluding the phone call task
47
48 will be significantly greater during AIM than control phases.
49
50
51
52
53
54

1
2
3 A subsidiary hypothesis was that increased goal attainment would be
4
5 associated with improved self-rated mood. Exploratory analyses were planned to
6
7 identify factors that might influence response to intervention, a necessary process
8
9 in the development of complex healthcare interventions²⁴ .
10
11

12 **Method**

13 *Ethics*

14
15
16
17
18 Ethical approval to conduct the study was provided by a National Health
19
20 Service Research Ethics Committee (study reference 08/H0306/45) and the
21
22 relevant Research and Development Department for each of the health services
23
24 involved in recruitment of participants. All participants provided written informed
25
26 consent to participate.
27
28
29
30
31

32 *Trial design*

33
34
35
36 The study employed a randomised, controlled, parallel group crossover
37
38 design with three phases (baseline phase, intervention phase 1, intervention
39
40 phase 2) each of which lasted 3 weeks, with a one week break between phases
41
42 for completion of measures (phases shown in Figure 1). Assessments and
43
44 primary analyses were conducted blind to group allocation. Following consent,
45
46 participants completed initial assessment questionnaires and neuropsychological
47
48 tests and were supported in identifying daily intentions to be monitored for the
49
50 study duration . They were then randomized to either AIM or control for
51
52 intervention phase 1 (equal numbers in each), after which they crossed over to
53
54 phase 2, during which 'AIM-first' participants received no intervention or usual
55
56

1
2
3 care and 'control-first' received AIM. A conceptually symmetrical cross-over was
4
5 not possible for the AIM-first group because messages from the study had already
6
7 been associated with reviewing intentions. The cessation of messages to the AIM-
8
9 first group in phase 2 therefore allowed examination of whether their receipt was
10
11 relevant to efficacy of goal management. This design also ensured that all
12
13 participants had access to an intervention hypothesized to be useful, minimized
14
15 the possible confounding effect of group differences on treatment effects,
16
17 provided increased power to detect effects, and allowed examination of the
18
19 maintenance of any gains in the AIM-first group.
20
21
22
23
24
25
26

27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55

FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE

A Steering Group comprising researchers, the local NHS Research and Development manager and a person who had sustained a brain injury oversaw study management. The trial was conducted in accordance with National Institute for Health Research (NIHR) Good Clinical Practice in research guidelines, was adopted by the United Kingdom Clinical Research Network (UKCRN) and registered onto their research portfolio (study ID: 5368).

Participants

Participants were recruited from UK community services in the East Anglia region, the Cambridge Cognitive Neuroscience Research Panel (CCNRP; a group of people with ABI who have agreed to be approached for relevant research

1
2
3 studies) between February 2009 and August 2011. Healthcare professionals
4
5 working with ABI patients were asked to provide potential participants with
6
7 information about the study and seek their consent to be contacted by the
8
9 research team. Members of the CCNRP were contacted directly by the
10
11 researcher.
12
13
14

15 Inclusion criteria were as follows:

- 16 • aged 18 or over
- 17
- 18 • non-progressive brain injury, acquired in adulthood
- 19
- 20 • more than one year post-injury
- 21
- 22 • clinician, carer or self-reported everyday organization and
23
24 memory problems
- 25
- 26 • able to use a mobile phone
- 27
- 28
- 29
- 30
- 31

32 Exclusion criteria:

- 33 • memory impairment of sufficient severity to limit retention of
34
35 intentions and training information (clinical judgment and
36
37 neuropsychological assessment)
- 38
- 39 • patient or carer participant with severe and enduring mental
40
41 health problem, or substance misuse or dependency, as identified by
42
43 referring clinician
- 44
- 45 • participation in a rehabilitation intervention with significant
46
47 overlap with the study intervention
- 48
- 49
- 50
- 51
- 52

1
2
3 *Interventions*
4
5

6 Interventions were delivered by a member of the research team (EG), a
7 qualified occupational therapist with significant experience in providing cognitive
8 rehabilitation interventions in both clinical and research settings with people with
9 stroke and acquired brain injury. TM, a co-author of the Goal Management
10 Training materials, provided supervision.
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19

20 Assisted Intention Monitoring (AIM)
21
22

23 Brief GMT was provided by EG in participants' homes or a community
24 setting on a one-to-one basis over 2 sessions not more than 5 days apart each
25 lasting between 90 and 120 minutes. Training materials were selected from the
26 full GMT program (as described by Levine and colleagues^{5,6,15}) and presented on
27 a laptop as a Powerpoint presentation with accompanying workbook. The slides
28 selected covered the following topics supported with discussion of examples
29 drawn from the workbook or provided by the participant:
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37

- 38 ● utility of setting goals and breaking goals into steps (Module
39 1) – e.g. breaking a large goal or problem such as planning a trip away
40 into doable steps
41
42
43
44
- 45 ● absentmindedness and 'slip-ups' (Module 2) – e.g. walking
46 into a room and forgetting what you went there for and discussion of
47 factors that can increase slips such as fatigue
48
49
50
51
52

- using the 'mental blackboard' to take note of goals and steps (Module 5) – e.g. rehearsing the mental visualization of written or pictorial checklist of steps on a 'blackboard'
- checking the status of one's intentions (Module 9), which was linked with the acronym "STOP" (Stop, Think, Organize and Plan) – e.g. discussing how periodically stopping and thinking about our intentions can help us to stay on track.

The training was provided to the point where the trainer was confident the participant understood the material and the STOP acronym, so the training period varied depending on the knowledge and abilities of the participant. Participants were told that after training they would receive eight "STOP" texts each day, designed to increase the frequency of such reviews. These occurred at random points between 08:00 and 18:00 each working day. They did not occur within thirty minutes of each other or a set phone call time (see below). Messaging was provided via a reminding service²⁵ with the capacity to send SMS text messages.

Control Intervention

This involved one-to-one sessions (also provided by EG) of the same duration as AIM consisting of brain injury information²⁶ (excluding reference to executive functioning) presented using Powerpoint, and a computerized visuo-spatial game involving increasingly speeded mental rotation ('Tetris') plausibly linked to improving cognitive skills but not hypothesized to improve prospective

1
2
3 memory. Participants in the control phase also received eight daily SMS text
4
5 messages reading: 'AIM research study. Please ignore'.
6
7
8
9

10 *Measures*

13 Assessment and screening measures

14 Standardized neuropsychological assessments were completed and
15
16 demographic and injury-related data collected. The National Adult Reading Test
17
18 (NART)²⁷ was used to derive an estimate of pre-morbid general intelligence. The
19
20 Speed and Capacity of Language Processing (SCOLP)²⁸ was used to assess
21
22 speed of processing. Non-verbal reasoning abilities were assessed with the
23
24 Matrix Reasoning subtest of the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale, 3rd Edition
25
26 (WAIS-III-UK)²⁹. Immediate and delayed verbal recall was assessed using the
27
28 Logical Memory subtest of the Wechsler Memory Scales (WMS-III-UK)³⁰.
29
30 Executive functioning and attention were assessed using the Letter Fluency part
31
32 of the Verbal Fluency subtest (Delis-Kaplan Executive Functioning System; D-
33
34 KEFS)³¹, the Sustained Attention to Response Test (SART)^{32,33} and the multipart
35
36 Hotel Test¹⁸ (similar to the 6 Elements³⁴). The Coping Inventory for Stressful
37
38 Situations (CISS)³⁵ which has been validated for use with ABI^{36,37}, was included to
39
40 identify possible moderators of treatment response.
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49

50 Primary outcome

51
52
53 The primary outcome was the mean daily proportion of intentions achieved
54
55 by a participant averaged over the final two weeks of each three-week study

1
2
3 phase (consistent with previous studies^{23,25} data from the 1st week were excluded
4
5 due to novelty effects). The primary outcome measure was a composite of
6
7 participants' own, ongoing 'set' intentions, established at initial assessment with
8
9 the researcher and set for the study duration; participants' 'ad-hoc' intentions,
10
11 one-off tasks that might arise during the course of the study; seven 'fixed'
12
13 intentions set to ensure compliance with study procedures (e.g. make sure mobile
14
15 phone is with you, charged, and switched on); and the phone task²³ described
16
17 below. With the exception of the phone task, participants recorded success or
18
19 otherwise in a structured diary and relayed this information to the research team
20
21 in a daily phone call initiated by the researcher (according to preference this could
22
23 be via less frequent phone calls, no fewer than 3 per week, or via email). This was
24
25 also used to determine if goals were irrelevant (e.g. 'remembering keys and wallet
26
27 when going out' would be 'irrelevant' on a day intentionally spent indoors).

28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35 At initial assessment participants were asked to nominate 3 times of the
36
37 day when it would be convenient to make a brief call to the study's answerphone.
38
39 These had to be at least 30 minutes from a previous phone call and not set to
40
41 coincide with a memorable time of day. Participants were asked to make their
42
43 calls as close to the set-time as possible over the 9 weeks of the study phases
44
45 (i.e. time-based PM) in addition to one further phone call at an unscheduled time
46
47 each day (i.e. step PM). Participants were simply asked to state their name on
48
49 connection. Attainment and timing accuracy were scored from answerphone
50
51 records. Scheduled calls made within 5 minutes (+/-) of the target time scored 6.
52
53 This decreased by 1 for each additional five-minute discrepancy down to 1 (+/- 25
54
55

1
2
3 out) and 0 (call missed completely). Unscheduled calls gained 1 point if they were
4
5 made at all, a further point if they were more than 30-mins from another call and a
6
7 final point if they were made at a different time to the unscheduled call on
8
9 previous days of the study. Not all calls were possible on all days due to phone
10
11 malfunction, poor signal, or clash with important activity, and accordingly the
12
13 score was based on the proportion of the score achieved out of the total score
14
15 attainable that day.
16
17

18
19 For each day, the total number of relevant intentions for each participant in
20
21 each intention type (set, adhoc, fixed and phone calls) was summed and the daily
22
23 proportion attained calculated. These values were then averaged across each 2-
24
25 week assessment period.
26
27

28 29 Secondary outcome

30
31 Given expectations that the phone-call task would benefit from AIM, our
32
33 second planned comparison considered attainment of all goals excluding the
34
35 phone-call task.
36
37

38 39 Subsidiary measures

40
41
42 Subsidiary measures were administered after each baseline and
43
44 intervention phase. The Profile of Mood States³⁸ total mood disturbance (MD)
45
46 score was used to evaluate the impact of AIM on overall emotional functioning.
47
48 The Hotel Task and Verbal Fluency were used to evaluate effect of AIM on
49
50 executive functioning in the absence of cues.
51
52
53
54

Randomization

The randomization procedure was administered by the academic department of one of the authors (JJE) at a site remote from the main research site. Blocked sequences (6 and 4, via www.randomization.com) enabled equal numbers of participants to be allocated to each group. Only one investigator (JJE) was able to access the sequence and allocation, which remained concealed until the researcher delivering the interventions (EG) requested the next participant allocation code, which was provided via email. Allocations were not revealed to any other member of the study team, clinical staff in recruitment sites or participants.

Analysis and sample size calculation

Hypotheses 1 and 2 were tested with cross-over analyses conducted on the complete dataset on per protocol basis using repeated measures ANOVA, the within-subject factor being study phase (post-intervention 1 vs. post intervention 2), between-subject factor group (control-first vs AIM-first) with baseline scores as a covariate. Significant group by phase interaction effects were taken as indicating relative efficacy of the AIM intervention. A power calculation for this design carried out using G Power³⁹ with $\alpha = 0.05$, 80% power, 2 groups and 1 covariate based on detection of a medium-large effect size (as previously found²⁴, and to identify potentially clinically meaningful response), indicated a sample size between 52 ($f = 0.40$) and 67 ($f = 0.35$) would be required, we therefore sought to recruit 60 participants. The same analysis was conducted on Hotel and Verbal

1
2
3 Fluency test data to explore effect of AIM on executive functioning. Group
4
5 comparisons post intervention phase 1 between AIM-first and control-first groups,
6
7 on both intention to treat (ITT; including data from all participants analyzed
8
9 according to their initial group assignment regardless of whether or not they
10
11 withdrew) and per protocol (PP; analyzing data only from participants who
12
13 completed intervention in accordance with protocol) bases, were also conducted.
14
15 Significant correlates of response to intervention ($P \leq 0.015$, α corrected for
16
17 multiple comparisons) were identified for inclusion in a multiple regression.
18
19
20
21
22
23
24

25 **Results**

26 *Participant characteristics*

27
28
29 Enrolment and allocation information is provided in Figure 1. Eligibility
30
31 screening was carried out for 93 people, 74 proceeded to randomisation, and 60
32
33 participants completed the study, with 58 participants completing the trial and all
34
35 outcome measures, one further person completed only the daily intention diary,
36
37 and another completed only the POMS. In the PP group, cause of injury was
38
39 predominantly Traumatic Brain Injury (TBI; 27, 46%) or stroke (21, 35%). Severity
40
41 of injury was obtainable for 15 (55%) of TBI participants (severe 11, 41%;
42
43 moderate, 2, 7%; mild 2, 7%). Notable differences (PP and ITT) were found in
44
45 pre-injury employment and time since injury, and (ITT only) work hours (see Table
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55 1).

1
2
3 *Hypotheses 1 and 2: Cross-over analyses*
4
5
6

7
8
9 Hypotheses 1 and 2 were tested with repeated measures ANOVA to
10 identify presence of group by time interaction effects in favor of AIM, as planned.
11 Mauchly's Test of Sphericity for equality of variances were not significant and
12 missing data were excluded. Figure 2 shows changes in performance for AIM-first
13 and control-first groups across all phases, for all intentions and also all intentions
14 excluding the phone call task. For hypothesis 1, the repeated measures ANOVA
15 yielded a statistically significant group by time interaction ($F(1,56) = 4.28, P =$
16 $0.04; f = 0.28$, medium effect size; 3.7% mean difference; 95% CI: 0.1-7.4%);
17 participants achieved a greater proportion of intentions during the AIM
18 intervention relative to control. For hypothesis 2 the ANOVA was repeated without
19 the phone-call data and again indicated greater goal attainment with AIM ($F(1,55)$
20 $= 4.79; P = 0.033; f = 0.28$, medium effect size; 3% mean difference; 95% CI: 0.3-
21 5.6%). Analysis of phone task data replicated the previously reported advantage
22 of cueing on this task ($F(1,56) = 9.904; P = 0.003; f = 0.41$, large effect size; 7%
23 mean difference, 95% CI 2-11.8%).
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37

38
39
40
41 In terms of subsidiary analyses, no significant group by time interaction
42 effect was found for the POMS MD score ($F(1,55) = 0.091; P = 0.76; f = 0.04$,
43 negligible effect) nor measures of executive functioning (Hotel Test: $F(1,52) =$
44 $0.080; P = 0.78; f = 0.03$, no effect; Verbal Fluency: $F(1,51) = 0.719; P = 0.4; f =$
45 0.12 , small effect).
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56

Group differences post intervention phase 1

Data summarizing group differences post intervention phase 1 are provided in Table 2. For analysis, missing data were excluded, and Levene's test for equality of variances was not significant. No significant differences on 'all intentions' were identified with ITT ($P = 0.87$; 1% mean difference, 95% CI: -9 - 11%) or PP analyses ($P = 0.688$; 1.4% mean difference, 95% CI: -5.6% - 8.8%; $d = 0.11$, negligible effect; 7% observed power). A significant difference in favor of AIM was found on the phone task with PP ($t(57) = 2.031$; $P = 0.047$, 9% mean difference, 95% CI: 0% - 18%; $d = 0.53$, medium effect size; 51% observed power) but not ITT analysis ($P = 0.43$; 5% mean difference, 95% CI: -8% - 18%).

Exploratory analyses

To examine factors that may have influenced response to treatment, simple correlations between possible predictor variables (age, time since injury, avoidant coping style, POMS MD) and change (AIM - Control difference for all intentions and phone task) were conducted. The only near-significant correlation (at corrected $P \leq 0.015$) was between POMS MD at baseline and change in achievement of all intentions ($r = 0.28$; $P = 0.032$), multiple regression was therefore not conducted. Differences between injury etiology groups' (TBI $n = 27$, stroke $n = 21$, other ABI $n = 11$) response to intervention were explored with

1
2
3 repeated measures ANCOVA (group x injury type x phase; covariates were
4
5 baseline performance and time since injury). Significant interactions were
6
7
8 detected between study phase, injury type and group ($F(2,51) = 5.62, P = 0.006$)
9
10 for the phone task. Tukey's post-hoc pairwise comparisons revealed significant
11
12 differences between the TBI and 'other ABI' groups (mean difference .20; $P =$
13
14 0.014), with the TBI group showing the hypothesised response to intervention on
15
16 the phone task, the stroke group appearing to drop with removal of AIM more than
17
18 benefitting from AIM, and the 'other ABI' group appearing to do worse with AIM.
19
20 Given a previous study found a drop in performance after removal of reminders
21
22 for stroke, but not TBI participants⁴⁰ a one-way ANOVA comparing the three injury
23
24 type groups was conducted. No significant group differences in pre-intervention
25
26
27
28 executive functioning were found (Hotel Task: $F(2, 54) = 0.169, P > 0.05$; Verbal
29
30 Fluency: $F(2, 53) = 0.014, P > 0.05$).
31
32
33

34 35 **Discussion**

36 37 38 *Interpretation*

39
40
41 This study examined whether AIM intervention was associated with
42
43 enhanced attainment of daily intentions for people with self or clinician-reported
44
45 everyday organizational problems and objective executive impairment following
46
47 ABI. The results show that participants achieved their everyday intentions at a
48
49 significantly higher frequency during the AIM phases of the study than the control
50
51 conditions. The findings build upon the body of work that shows randomly
52
53 occurring periodic cues to prompt 'mental review' of intentions may contribute to
54
55

1
2
3 improved performance on tasks requiring attentive control of goal directed
4
5 behaviour^{18,19,23}. The results suggest that any benefit of the training offered in AIM
6
7
8 was only detectable when participants were receiving cues. Whilst this
9
10 comparison has a confound of the extra time since training it forms some
11
12 indication that generalization from training is likely to be enhanced when
13
14 participants are reminded about it in everyday life. There were no training effects
15
16 on executive neuropsychological tests (during which cues were not present)
17
18 suggesting treatment effects are due to compensatory management of, rather
19
20 than improvement in, executive difficulties. A recent trial²² found that combined
21
22 group GMT and reminders resulted in improvements to neuropsychological
23
24 functioning sustained at 6 month follow-up, suggesting potential benefits of
25
26 increased intervention time. Fish et al⁴⁰ reported independent maintenance of
27
28 routines after prolonged experience of timed specific reminders, which was
29
30 evident for TBI participants but not those with stroke, attributed to better executive
31
32 functions in the former group. In the current study we did not find such group
33
34 differences in executive functioning although it is important to note the smaller
35
36 group sizes, participant selection on the basis of poor organisational skills rather
37
38 than memory, and the use of cues that occurred at random rather than fixed times
39
40 each day. Further investigation of the treatment duration and intensity required for
41
42 internalisation of metacognitive or mnemonic cues over time is thus warranted.
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50

51 Comparing groups post intervention phase 1 there was no evidence of
52
53 significant benefit of the AIM intervention versus placebo on achievement of
54
55 intentions or mood (ITT and PP analyses), or performance on the phone task (ITT

1
2
3 analyses only), although PP analysis found a benefit of AIM for the phone task. At
4
5 the most conservative level, this result indicates rejection of the study hypotheses.
6
7

8
9 However, the study was not designed with this analysis in mind, and hence these
10 comparisons were under-powered to detect anything other than large effects. The
11
12 PP analysis of the effect of training on the phone task at end of phase one did
13
14 yield favorable results, as did the adequately powered primary cross-over
15
16 analysis. We have therefore cautiously rejected the null hypothesis, bearing in
17
18 mind the study limitations, in particular threats to the comparability of groups after
19
20 cross-over.
21
22

23
24
25
26 There were no significant effects of AIM on POMS mood disturbance
27
28 scores, suggesting a simple model of enhanced attainment of intentions leading
29
30 to improved mood may be wrong.
31
32

33 34 35 36 *Limitations*

37
38 At 20%, drop out rates were high, contributing to selection bias and limiting
39
40 generalizability of results. It is likely that this attrition is attributable to aspects of
41
42 the protocol (daily goal-attainment recording, daily phone calls and long
43
44 assessment sessions), not the intervention itself. The cross-over design was
45
46 justified to provide an opportunity for both groups to receive the AIM intervention,
47
48 for the AIM-first group to have a meaningful control phase, for withdrawal of alerts
49
50 to be monitored in one arm, and to provide increased power to detect effects of
51
52 undergoing the intervention. However, this design combined data from the
53
54
55

1
2
3 different control phases, compromising the comparability of arms after the point of
4
5 cross-over. Furthermore it was not possible to examine efficacy of the intervention
6
7 at follow up.

8
9
10 Randomization produced groups well-matched on primary and secondary
11
12 outcome measures, neuropsychological functioning or other demographic
13
14 variables but which differed on time-post injury and employment. Whilst any effect
15
16 is less problematic for the within-subjects cross-over analysis it may have
17
18 influenced post-intervention phase 1 analyses. Regarding precision of
19
20 measurement, the evaluation of real-world impact of the intervention relied upon
21
22 participants' own ratings in contrast to the phone task, which provided an
23
24 objective metric of attainment, and therefore may have been a more sensitive
25
26 measure. Whilst the study was appropriately powered for the analysis of the
27
28 cross-over data, the subsidiary and exploratory analyses should be interpreted
29
30 with caution. Finally, a number of statistical analyses were used to address main
31
32 and subsidiary hypotheses and exploratory analyses. In order to reduce likelihood
33
34 of false positive results, we limited the number of analyses used to test the
35
36 primary hypotheses, and specified the directions of predicted relationships. The
37
38 exploratory findings are reported as tentative.
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46

47 *Generalizability*

48
49 The current study included elements of evaluation of effectiveness such as
50
51 referral on the basis of clinician, carer or self-identified problems, intervention
52
53 deliverable within health services, and evaluation of 'real world' outcomes.
54
55
56

1
2
3 However, the delivery of intervention was not tailored to each individual on the
4
5 basis of specific needs or ongoing response to intervention, and a placebo control
6
7 condition was included, limiting clinical generalization. Many participants had
8
9 difficulty with identifying and articulating intentions in precise terms, and results
10
11 suggested differences in effects depending on etiology, therefore careful thought
12
13 is needed in clinical application. The relatively brief two-session goal management
14
15 training adopted here (in comparison with the 14 or more hours of face-to-face
16
17 GMT training typically reported ¹⁶) might be considered insufficient for many with
18
19 ABI. Future evaluation of clinical effectiveness, should consider a more extended
20
21 and tailored period of strategy and self-regulation training ^{16,17,22} and inclusion in
22
23 the intervention of additional components that enhance likelihood of transfer of
24
25 strategies ^{16,22,41-43}.
26
27
28
29
30
31
32

33 **Conclusions**

34
35
36 The results of this trial show some support for the efficacy of combining a
37
38 brief goal management intervention and cueing. Findings are consistent with
39
40 previous 'proof of principle' studies, and have been extended to show some
41
42 improvement in subjective reports of goal attainment in everyday life. However,
43
44 when only the initial training period was considered, and when intention to treat
45
46 was taken into account effect sizes were small or negligible, and not supportive of
47
48 the efficacy of AIM. The challenge of identifying intentions that are both easy to
49
50 measure and meaningful to participants may have made detection of effects more
51
52 difficult. Given the potential effectiveness of AIM, the costliness of
53
54 neuropsychological rehabilitation interventions, and difficulty transferring skills
55
56

1
2
3 from rehabilitation to everyday life, further investigation of periodic cues to
4
5 enhance realization of intentions in everyday life following rehabilitation is
6
7
8 warranted.
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45

1
2
3 **Acknowledgements**
4

5 We are grateful to Dr Adam Wagner for additional statistical advice, Prof
6 Barbara Wilson for consultation, all the participants and the staff who took part
7 and supported recruitment and Alyssa Hewson for formatting and proofing the
8 manuscript. This paper presents independent research funded by the National
9 Institute for Health Research (NIHR) under its Research for Patient Benefit (RfPB)
10 Programme (Grant Reference Number PB-PG-0107-12011). FG and DM were
11 also supported by the National Institute for Health Research (NIHR)
12 Collaborations for Leadership in Applied Health Research and Care (CLAHRC)
13 for Cambridgeshire and Peterborough. TM and JEF were supported by the
14 Medical Research Council (MC-A060-5PQ20). The views expressed are those of
15 the author(s) and not necessarily those of the NHS, the NIHR or the Department
16 of Health.
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30

31
32
33
34
35 **Conflict of Interest Statement**

36 The Authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest. TM is a
37 contributing author to Goal Management Training but receives no income from its
38 commercialisation. AB is the manager of the NeuroPage reminding service, but
39 receives no personal income from the service.
40
41
42
43
44
45

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51

References

1. Stuss DT. Traumatic brain injury: relation to executive dysfunction and the frontal lobes. *Current opinion in neurology*. 2011;24(6):584-589.
2. Burgess PW, Veitch E, de Lacy Costello A, Shallice T. The cognitive and neuroanatomical correlates of multitasking. *Neuropsychologia*. 2000;38(6):848-863.
3. Hanks RA, Rapport LJ, Millis SR, Deshpande SA. Measures of executive functioning as predictors of functional ability and social integration in a rehabilitation sample. *Archives of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation*. 1999;80(9):1030-1037.
4. Spitz G, Ponsford JL, Rudzki D, Maller JJ. Association between cognitive performance and functional outcome following traumatic brain injury: a longitudinal multilevel examination. *Neuropsychology*. 2012;26(5):604-612.
5. Levine B, Schweizer TA, O'Connor C, et al. Rehabilitation of executive functioning in patients with frontal lobe brain damage with goal management training. *Front Hum Neurosci*. 2011;5:9.
6. Levine B, Robertson IH, Clare L, et al. Rehabilitation of executive functioning: An experimental–clinical validation of Goal Management Training. *Journal of the International Neuropsychological Society*. 2000;6(3):299-312.
7. Lezak MD. *Neuropsychological Assessment*. 4th ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press; 2004.

- 1
2
3 8. Fish J, Wilson BA, Manly T. The assessment and rehabilitation of
4 prospective memory problems in people with neurological disorders: a review.
5
6 *Neuropsychological Rehabilitation*. 2010;20(2):161-179.
7
8
9
10 9. Ellis JA. Memory for future intentions: Investigating pulses and steps. . In:
11 Gruneberg MM, Morris PE, Sykes RN, eds. *Practical aspects of memory: Current*
12 *research and issues (Vol. 1)*. Chichester: Wiley; 1988:371-2376.
13
14
15
16 10. Duncan J, Emslie H, Williams P, Johnson R, Freer C. Intelligence and the
17 Frontal Lobe: The Organization of Goal-Directed Behavior. *Cognitive Psychology*.
18 1996;30(3):257-303.
19
20
21
22 11. Ponsford J, Bayley M, Wiseman-Hakes C, et al. INCOG recommendations
23 for management of cognition following traumatic brain injury, part II: attention and
24 information processing speed. *The Journal Of Head Trauma Rehabilitation*.
25 2014;29(4):321-337.
26
27
28
29
30
31 12. Velikonja D, Tate R, Ponsford J, McIntyre A, Janzen S, Bayley M. INCOG
32 recommendations for management of cognition following traumatic brain injury,
33 part V: memory. *The Journal of head trauma rehabilitation*. 2014;29(4):369-386.
34
35
36
37
38 13. Brands I, Kohler S, Stapert S, Wade D, van Heugten C. How flexible is
39 coping after acquired brain injury? A 1-year prospective study investigating coping
40 patterns and influence of self-efficacy, executive functioning and self-awareness.
41 *J Rehabil Med*. 2014;46(9):869-875.
42
43
44
45
46
47
48 14. Krpan KM, Levine B, Stuss DT, Dawson DR. Executive function and coping
49 at one-year post traumatic brain injury. *Journal of Clinical and Experimental*
50
51

- 2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
15. Robertson IH, Manly T, Stuss DT, et al. Rehabilitation of Executive Functioning in Patients with Frontal Lobe Brain Damage with Goal Management Training. *Frontiers Human Neuroscience*. 2011;5.
 16. Krasny-Pacini A, Chevignard M, Evans J. Goal management training for rehabilitation of executive functions: A systematic review of effectiveness in patients with acquired brain injury. *Disability and Rehabilitation: An International, Multidisciplinary Journal*. 2014;36(2):105-116.
 17. Cicerone KD, Langenbahn DM, Braden C, et al. Evidence-Based Cognitive Rehabilitation: Updated Review of the Literature From 2003 Through 2008. *Archives of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation*. 2011;92(4):519-530.
 18. Manly T, Hawkins K, Evans J, Woldt K, Robertson IH. Rehabilitation of executive function: facilitation of effective goal management on complex tasks using periodic auditory alerts. *Neuropsychologia*. 2002;40(3):271-281.
 19. Manly T, Heutink J, Davison B, et al. An electronic knot in the handkerchief: "Content free cueing" and the maintenance of attentive control. *Neuropsychological Rehabilitation*. 2004;14(1-2):89-116.
 20. Tate R, Kennedy M, Ponsford J, et al. INCOG recommendations for management of cognition following traumatic brain injury, part III: executive function and self-awareness. *The Journal of head trauma rehabilitation*. 2014;29(4):338-352.
 21. O'Connor C, Robertson IH, Levine B. The prosthetics of vigilant attention: random cuing cuts processing demands. *Neuropsychology*. 2011;25(4):535-543.
 22. Tornas S, Lovstad M, Solbakk AK, et al. Rehabilitation of Executive Functions in Patients with Chronic Acquired Brain Injury with Goal Management

1
2
3 Training, External Cuing, and Emotional Regulation: A Randomized Controlled
4
5 Trial. *J Int Neuropsychol Soc.* 2016;22(4):436-452.
6
7

8 23. Fish J, Evans JJ, Nimmo M, et al. Rehabilitation of executive dysfunction
9 following brain injury: "Content-free" cueing improves everyday prospective
10 memory performance. *Neuropsychologia.* 2007;45(6):1318-1330.
11
12

13 24. Council MR. Developing and evaluating complex interventions: new
14 guidance. London: Medical Research Council; 2008.
15
16
17
18

19 25. Wilson BA, Evans JJ, Emslie H, Malinek V. Evaluation of NeuroPage: a
20 new memory aid. *Journal of Neurology, Neurosurgery & Psychiatry.*
21 1997;63(1):113-115.
22
23

24 26. Wilson BA, Bateman A, Evans JJ. The Understanding Brain Injury (UBI)
25 Group. In: Wilson BA, Gracey F, Evans JJ, Bateman A, eds. *Neuropsychological
26 Rehabilitation: Theory, Models, Therapy and Outcome.* Cambridge: Cambridge
27 University Press; 2009:68-80.
28
29
30
31
32

33 27. Nelson HE. *The National Adult Reading Test (NART): test manual.* NFER-
34 Nelson; 1982.
35
36
37

38 28. Baddeley A, Emslie H, Nimmo-Smith I. *The speed and capacity of
39 language processing.* 1992.
40
41

42 29. Wechsler D. *Wechsler adult intelligence scale-third edition-UK.* London:
43 The Psychological Corporation.; 1999.
44
45

46 30. Wechsler D. *Wechsler Memory Scale—3rd edition.* San Antonio TX:
47 Psychological Corporation; 1997.
48
49

50 31. Delis DC, Kaplan E, Kramer JH. *Delis–Kaplan executive function system.*
51 New York: Psychological Corporation; 2001.
52
53
54

- 1
2
3 32. Manly T, Robertson IH. Chapter 55 - The Sustained Attention to Response
4 Test (SART). In: Laurent I, Geraint R, John K. TsotsosA2 - Laurent Itti GR, John
5
6 KT, eds. *Neurobiology of Attention*. Burlington: Academic Press; 2005:337-338.
7
8
9
10 33. Robertson IH, Manly T, Andrade J, Baddeley BT, Yiend J. 'Oops!':
11 Performance correlates of everyday attentional failures in traumatic brain injured
12 and normal subjects. *Neuropsychologia*. 1997;35(6):747-758.
13
14
15 34. Burgess P, Alderman N, Emslie H, Evans J, Wilson B, Shallice T. The
16 simplified six element test. *Behavioural assessment of the dysexecutive*
17 *syndrome*. Bury St. Edmunds, UK: Thames Valley Test Company. 1996.
18
19
20 35. Endler NS, Parker JDA, Ridder DTD, van Heck GL. *Coping inventory for*
21 *stressful situations*. Swets Test Publ; 2004.
22
23
24
25
26
27
28 36. Brands IMH, Köhler S, Stapert SZ, Wade DT, van Heugten CM.
29 Psychometric properties of the Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations (CISS) in
30 patients with acquired brain injury. *Psychological Assessment*. 2014;26(3):848-
31 856.
32
33
34
35
36 37. Simblett SK, Gracey F, Ring H, Bateman A. Measuring coping style
37 following acquired brain injury: A modification of the Coping Inventory for Stressful
38 Situations Using Rasch analysis. *British Journal of Clinical Psychology*. 2014.
39
40
41
42 38. McNair D, Lorr M, Droppleman L. Revised manual for the Profile of Mood
43 States. *San Diego, CA: Educational and Industrial Testing Services*.
44
45 1992;731:732-733.
46
47
48
49 39. Faul F, Erdfelder E, Lang A-G, Buchner A. G* Power 3: A flexible statistical
50 power analysis program for the social, behavioral, and biomedical sciences.
51
52 *Behavior research methods*. 2007;39(2):175-191.
53
54

- 1
2
3 40. Fish J, Manly T, Emslie H, Evans JJ, Wilson BA. Compensatory strategies
4 for acquired disorders of memory and planning: differential effects of a paging
5 system for patients with brain injury of traumatic versus cerebrovascular aetiology.
6
7
8 *Journal of Neurology, Neurosurgery & Psychiatry.* 2008;79(8):930-935.
9
10
11 41. Khoyratty NB, Wang Y, O'Gorman JG, et al. Forming implementation
12 intentions improves prospective memory in early psychosis. *Psychiatry Res.*
13
14 2015;228(3):265-271.
15
16
17 42. Kersten P, McPherson KM, Kayes NM, Theadom A, McCambridge A.
18
19 Bridging the goal intention-action gap in rehabilitation: a study of if-then
20 implementation intentions in neurorehabilitation. *Disabil Rehabil.*
21
22 2015;37(12):1073-1081.
23
24
25 43. Cuberos-Urbano G, Caracuel A, Valls-Serrano C, Garcia-Mochon L,
26
27 Gracey F, Verdejo-Garcia A. A pilot investigation of the potential for incorporating
28 lifelog technology into executive function rehabilitation for enhanced transfer of
29 self-regulation skills to everyday life. *Neuropsychol Rehabil.* 2016:1-13.
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49

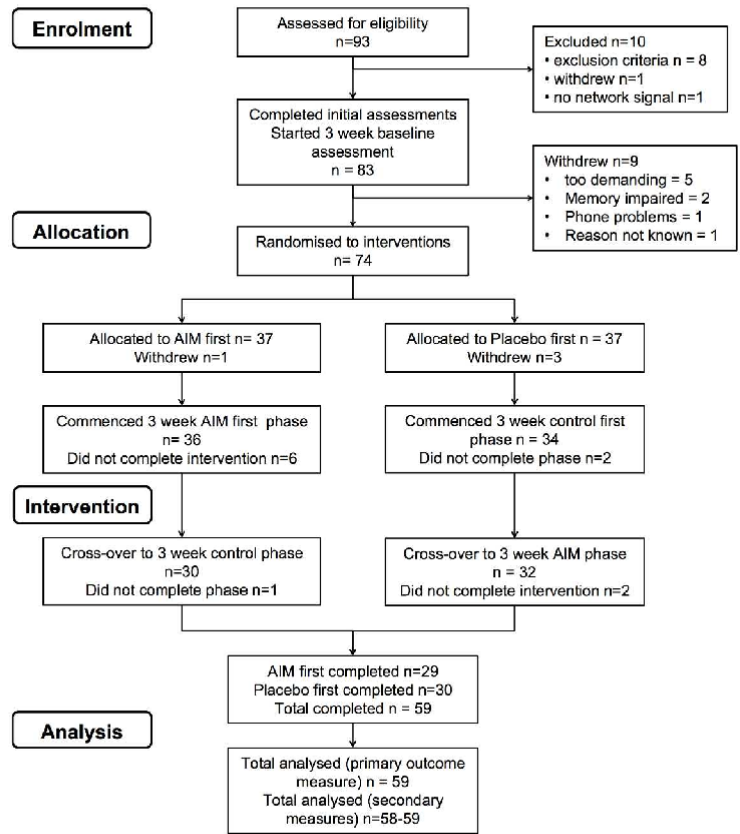


Figure 1: Trial flow chart showing numbers of participants referred, excluded, randomised to intervention, completed and analysed.

FIGURE 1

190x275mm (300 x 300 DPI)

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49

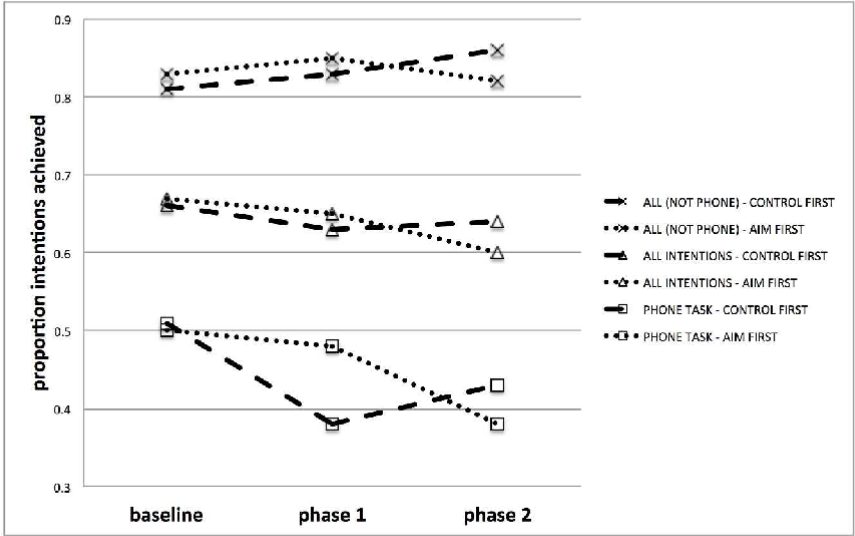


Figure 2: Proportion of intentions achieved for AIM first and control first groups, at baseline, end of intervention phase 1 and end of intervention phase 2 for all intentions, all intentions minus phone task and phone task.

FIGURE 2
297x209mm (300 x 300 DPI)

	Per protocol			
	(ITT)		(PP)	
Intention to treat	Control First (n=34)	AIM first (n=36)	Control first (n=30)	AIM first (n=29)
Sex				
Male	23	23	21	21
Female	11	13	9	8
Etiology				
CVA	12	11	11	10
Infection	1	2	1	2
TBI	16	17	14	13
Tumor	4	6	4	4
Missing	1	0	0	0
Vocational situation				
Paid work	10	7	9	6
Retired	4	8	4	8
Voluntary	8	3	7	2
Unemployed	11	18	10	13
Missing	0	0	0	0
Work hours				
Full-time	7**	4	6	3
Part-time	11	4	9	3
Unemployed	16	28	15	23
Missing	0	0	0	0
Pre-injury employment				
Professional	21**	12	19**	10
Elementary / service	10	23	10	19
Unemployed	1	0	1	0
Missing	2	1	0	0
Mean age (S.D.)	50.18 (12.76)	46.36 (14.88)	49.76 (12.94)	47.79 (14.72)
Mean years of Education (S.D.)	12.47 (2.65)	12.69 (2.92)	12.43 (2.67)	12.79 (3.01)
Mean time since Injury (S.D.)	8.62** (8.60)	4.89 (5.02)	9.15** (8.70)	5.00 (5.03)

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54

D-KEFS Letter fluency^a	7.94 (3.65)	7.97 (4.01)	7.67 (3.58)	7.86 (4.02)
WMS-III LM I^a	9.12 (3.44)	9.11 (3.56)	8.97 (3.61)	8.83 (3.52)
WMS-III LM II^a	9.24 (3.57)	8.94 (3.87)	9.07 (3.63)	8.55 (3.71)
NART^a	103.94 (14.42)	101.00 (12.89)	102.73 (14.83)	102.00 (11.55)
SCOLP Speed of comprehension^a	8.85 (3.54)	8.36 (3.25)	8.81 (3.67)	8.45 (3.29)
SCOLP Spot the word^a	10.82 (3.33)	9.88 (2.91)	10.63 (3.47)	10.03 (2.91)
WAIS-III Matrix reasoning^a	11.79 (3.03)	12.31 (3.25)	11.73 (2.97)	12.93 (2.96)

INTENTION TO TREAT	Control first (n=34) Mean (S.D.)	AIM first (n=36) Mean (S.D.)	Mean difference (95 % CI) P
---------------------------	---	-------------------------------------	------------------------------------

Primary outcome

Overall intention attainment	0.63 (0.21)	0.64 (0.17)	0.01 (-0.09-0.11) P=0.87
------------------------------	-------------	-------------	--------------------------------

<i>Missing Values-Frequency (%)</i>	3 (9%)	4 (11%)	
-------------------------------------	--------	---------	--

Secondary outcome

Mean daily proportion of non-phone intentions achieved	0.83 (0.17)	0.85 (0.13)	0.05 (-0.06-0.10) P=0.62
--	-------------	-------------	--------------------------------

<i>Missing Values-Frequency (%)</i>	3 (9%)	4 (11%)	
-------------------------------------	--------	---------	--

Mean daily proportion phone score	0.42 (0.28)	0.47 (0.24)	0.05 (-0.08-0.18) P=0.43
-----------------------------------	-------------	-------------	--------------------------------

<i>Missing Values-Frequency (%)</i>	4 (12%)	4 (11%)	
-------------------------------------	---------	---------	--

POMS MD	47.3 (37.9)	47.2 (40.6)	-0.02 (-19.37-19.34) P=1.00
---------	-------------	-------------	-----------------------------------

<i>Missing Values-Frequency (%)</i>	2 (6%)	2 (6%)	
-------------------------------------	--------	--------	--

PER PROTOCOL	Control first (n=30) Mean (S.D.)	AIM first (n=29) Mean (S.D.)	Mean difference (95% CI) P-value
---------------------	---	-------------------------------------	---

Primary outcome

Overall intention Attainment	0.63 (0.21)	0.65 (0.18)	0.014 (-0.056-0.084) P=0.35
------------------------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------------------------

<i>Missing Values-Frequency (%)</i>	0	0	
-------------------------------------	---	---	--

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57

Secondary outcome

Mean daily proportion of non-phone intentions achieved ^x	0.83 (0.18)	0.85 (0.13)	-0.011 (-0.065-0.042) P=0.68
<i>Missing Values-Frequency (%)</i>	1 (3%)	0	
Mean daily proportion phone calls	0.38 (0.27)	0.48 (0.24)	3.38 (0.001-0.179) P=0.047
<i>Missing Values-Frequency (%)</i>	0	0	
POMS MD	2.83 (20.3)	-0.55 (25.6)	3.38 (-8.78 – 15.54) P=0.58
<i>Missing Values-Frequency (%)</i>	1 (3%)	0	