Physical Activity and Mental Health

1 Title

2 The Effect of an Augmented Commercial Weight Loss Program on Increasing Physical

3 Activity and Reducing Psychological Distress in Women with Overweight or Obesity: a

4 Clustered Randomised Controlled Trial.

5 Abstract

Objective: The present study tested the effects of integrating an evidence-based physical 6 7 activity intervention within an existing commercial weight loss program to assess effects on 8 increasing physical activity and reducing psychological distress. Method and results: The CONSORT guidelines were adopted for the study. Forty nine women with overweight or 9 10 obesity (M age = 39.5, SD:12.4; M Body Mass Index = 31.02, SD: 2.10) enrolled in a six week commercial weight loss program were randomized to an intervention or a control 11 group. Participants in the control group received care as usual; participants in the intervention 12 13 group additionally received an evidence-based intervention to increase physical activity that included behaviour change techniques including implementation intentions, goal-setting and 14 self-monitoring. Weekly steps increased in the intervention group (M=31516.25; 15 SD=9310.17 to M=62851.36; SD=13840.4) significantly more (p < .001, $\eta_p^2 = .32$) than in 16 the control group (M=30207.67; SD=7833.29) to M=46969.33 (SD=9470.96), along with 17 experiencing significantly lower anxiety (p < .001, $\eta_p^2 = .15$), social dysfunction (p < .001, 18 $\eta_p^2 = .16$) and depression symptoms (p < .05, $\eta_p^2 = .08$) at follow-up. Implications: this 19 20 intervention warrants extension to those seeking to improve mental health through physical activity. 21

22 Keywords: Physical activity, health, behavior change, goal intentions, anxiety, wellbeing.

23

24 **1a. Background**

Globally, more than 1.9 billion adults are overweight (World Health Organization, 25 2014) which increases the risk of psychosocial, physiological, cardiovascular, metabolic 26 27 and musculoskeletal health problems (Shultz, Byrne & Hills, 2014). Commercial weight loss programs represent culturally popular means of achieving weight loss (Bye, Avery, & 28 Lavin, 2005; Lowe, Miller-Kovach, Fry, et al., 1999; Tsai & Wadden, 2005). Most 29 commercial programs focus on reducing caloric intake through food restriction, which 30 31 when done moderately may offer a way to achieve a negative energy balance and subsequent improvements in cardiovascular and glucoregulatory biomarkers 32 33 (Trepanowski, Canale, Marshall, Kabir & Bloomer, 2011), at least in the short term (Yanovski, 2000). However, the early stages of dietary restraint is associated with deficits 34 in central executive functioning and increases in stress (Green, Elliman, & Kretsch, 2005; 35 Kemps, Tiggemann, Marshall, 2005), which may contribute to poorer self-regulation of 36 eating behaviours (Dohle, Diel, & Hofmann, 2017). These psychological outcomes may 37 explain the poor retention rates in commercial programs (Finley, Barlow, Greenway, 38 Rock, Rolls, & Blair, 2007), in addition to the increased likelihood of weigh regain 39 following programs (Sainsbury et al., 2018), ultimately undermining any short-term 40 positive effects. Programs that focus on a healthy lifestyle by concurrently offering dietary 41 42 advice with behavioural strategies such as increasing physical activity are more effective 43 than programs that focus on dietary restriction alone, suggesting a holistic lifestyle 44 approach is warranted (Baetge et.al, 2017). Physical activity levels are usually low in adults, with 59% of male respondents aged 45 16 and over meeting the recommended levels while 49% of women reached the 46 recommended levels (British Heart Foundation, 2015). Research has established that regular 47 physical activity can improve a plethora of physiological outcomes (e.g. blood pressure, body 48

49 composition), including improved body composition (Chastin et al., 2018), and reduced

50 incidence of all-cause mortality (Stamatakis, Kelly, Strain, Murtagh, Ding & Murphy, 2018). Furthermore, it is well established that physical activity has positive associations with mental 51 52 wellbeing, and may protect against ill-being including psychological distress (Malcom et al., 2013; Biddle, Mutrie & Gorely, 2015; Mansfeild et al., 2018), defined as emotional suffering 53 characterised by somatic, social and psychological symptoms of depression and anxiety 54 (Keyes, 2002). Physical activity levels are markedly lower in populations that are overweight 55 56 or have obesity, and psychological distress is higher (Petroni et al., 2007). Many of such populations enrolled in commercial weight loss programs struggle with emotional regulation 57 58 during and after weight loss (Sainsbury et al., 2018), with those displaying more extreme weight loss often showing an increase in psychological distress (Balliot et al., 2017). 59 However, physical activity exerts a moderate effect on the reduction of depressive moods 60 61 across various clinical and non-clinical populations, and can improve emotional regulation (Rimmer, et al 2012; Cooney et al, 2013; Dunn et al, 2013). Given the above evidence, the 62 addition of physical activity may help populations with overweight or obesity regulate 63 emotional symptoms and thus reduce the likelihood of distress. However, a recent systematic 64 review (Baker et al., 2016) urged caution on the link between exercise and distress in such 65 populations, warranting additional interventions that assess the effects of physical activity on 66 67 both physical and psychosocial outcomes.

The Medical Research Council (MRC) outline that theory-based interventions demonstrate larger effects on physical activity behaviours than interventions not underpinned by a theory (Craig et al., 2013). Theory-based physical activity interventions can explain psychological mechanisms assumed to regulate the behaviour change process by identifying active techniques that can be implemented in the design and implementation of programs (Hagger & Chatzarantis, 2014). One active intervention ingredient related to physical activity is implementation intentions, which refer to 'if-then' plans. Interventions applying

implementation intentions techniques assumed to improve behaviour change by helping the
individual making critical environmental cues salient (e.g. 'if I don't enjoy exercising
alone'), and associated responses automatic (e.g. 'then I will call a friend to go for a walk').
A meta-analysis by Carraro and Gaudreau (2013) found a large unique effect of
implementation intentions, d = 1.03, on physical activity. Moreover, Bélanger-Gravel, Godin,
and Amireault (2013) showed that implementation intentions still exert a unique effect on
behaviour when integrated within existing physical activity programs.

82 1b Objectives and hypotheses

Hence, the aim of this study was to test the effects of augmenting a commercial weight loss 83 program with a theory-based module designed to boost physical activity and help emotional 84 85 regulation during dietary restriction. The theoretical component utilised in the present study was a physical activity consultation based on the work of Kirk et al (2007; see also Tanham 86 et al., 2014). The intervention consisted of four sessions lasting approximately 20 minutes 87 88 during which participants are encouraged to set goals and to self-monitor their activity that 89 was augmented in the present research by adding the behavior change technique of 90 implementation intentions (Gollwitzer, 1993).

91 Three hypotheses were tested: i) women randomized to receive the physical activity intervention will be significantly more active at follow up than those receiving the standard 92 93 version of a commercial weight loss program; ii) women randomized to receive the physical 94 activity intervention will report better emotional regulation, with reductions in anxiety, 95 depression, social dysfunction, somatic symptoms and general-ill health compared to those who received a standard version of the program at follow-up; (iii) both groups would lose 96 97 weight, with the intervention group displaying greater weight loss because of the addition of 98 physical activity.

99 **2. Method**

100 *2a Trial design*

101 The present study was conducted using a clustered randomised controlled trial, and all 102 reporting adhered to the CONSORT guidelines. Individuals enrolled in a commercial weight 103 loss program were randomised into one of two clustered groups: an intervention group who 104 received a multicomponent physical activity consultation in addition to the standard weight 105 loss program (n = 25, $M_{age} = 40.70$, SD = 12.10), and, a second control group who received 106 the standard commercial weight loss program only (n = 24, $M_{age} = 38.30$, SD = 12.80).

107 *2b Participants and sample size*

108 One hundred women attending a commercial weight loss program in a town in the Republic of Ireland were invited to take part in the study, based on the inclusion criteria of having a 109 Body Mass Index score of > 25, designating them as individuals who are overweight, or have 110 obesity (see Figure 1). Participants were invited via five separate oral recruitment 111 presentations delivered by the second author to the attendees on their first night of 112 attendance. An a priori sample size was calculated using G*POWER (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, 113 & Buchner., 2007) for a 2x2 ANOVA with a between-within groups interaction and with the 114 pre-defined criteria of medium effect size (f = 0.25), α = 0.05 and power of 90%. A medium 115 116 effect size was decided based on the meta-analysis conducted by Bélanger-Gravel et al (2013) showing positive effects of implementation intentions on increasing physical activity. 117 An a priori total sample size of 46 was calculated. 118

Fifty participants agreed to take part providing written consent, and completed data collection on two occasions (week 1 and week 6) in a quiet room on the location the weight loss programme took place in. One control participant dropped out before baseline assessment due to personal reasons. Forty-nine women with a mean age of 39.5 (*SD* = 12.4) and mean Body Mass Index of 31 (SD = 2.1) took part in the study. Ethical approval was granted by the leading Institution's Research Ethics Filter Committee.

125 *2c Randomisation*

126 *Sequence generation*

In order to have an evenly split number of participants across control and intervention groups
individuals were paired in a 1:1 ratio for randomisation, before baseline data collection and
intervention starting date.

130 *Implementation*

131 The second author generated the randomisation sequence by selecting shuffled names from a

132 list, and placing the name into an envelope encoded as intervention or control group.

133 Allocation concealment and blinding

134 Intervention participants were not blinded to treatment condition pre-baseline data collection,

as it was necessary to confirm that they would take part in the augmented programme

- including the physical activity consultations. However, both intervention and control
- 137 participants were blinded to the knowledge that they would have their data matched against
- the other group. The research team were not blinded to group allocations because of the need
- to participate in the data collection and analyses on site of the weight loss program.
- 140
- 141

Insert Figure 1 here

142 *2d Interventions*

143 Standard Weight Loss Program

Participants in both the intervention and control conditions received a weeklymulticomponent weight loss program, delivered in a group setting by a trained professional

146 weight loss practitioner. The sessions mainly focused on healthy eating and weight status. 147 The programme lead provided information on calorie intake, and other alternative low caloric 148 food choices. Participants received an eating plan to promote a healthier life and were 149 encouraged to be more active, however no physical activity plan was provided.

150 Multi-Component Physical Activity Intervention

In addition to receiving the standardised commercial weight loss programme, participants in 151 the intervention condition attended a 30-minute long group educational physical activity 152 153 session during week one that was co-delivered by the weight loss practitioner and the second author, who at the time of delivery was a Masters of Science student in Physical Activity and 154 Population Health, and individual physical activity 30-minute long consultations took place 155 in weeks two, three and four, delivered by the second author. The content of the physical 156 activity consultation session was based on a review by Kirk, Barnett, and Mutrie, (2007), and 157 included in-depth discussions about the benefits of physical activity and possible 158 discrepancies between the individual's activity levels (accessed through the data provided 159 160 from the pedometer device which was visible for the participants, see below for more details) 161 and recommended guidelines; goal setting; and problem solving for overcoming barriers to being active were then formed on the basis of this reflective discussion. Participants in the 162 intervention group completed a physical activity log each day, to enhance self-monitoring, as 163 previous research has shown monitoring to be an effective behavior change technique 164 (Michie, Abraham, Whittington, McAteer, & Gupta, 2009). The log included a section in 165 which participants formed weekly physical activity implementation intentions regarding 166 167 when, how and where physical activity would take place in the week ahead. These logs were reviewed by the researcher in consultation with the participant one week later, so that the 168 researcher checked the log details matched with what was said to be performed. 169

170 *2e Outcome measures and procedure*

171 Physical activity was assessed by measuring the mean number of steps taken across 7 days using a Digiwalker DW-200 Yamax pedometer (Yamax, Nottingham, UK). The number of 172 steps was recorded at the end of each day. The number of steps was visible to participants. 173 174 Approximately 10,000 steps per day are considered to be in line with the physical activity guidelines for health for adults (Tudor-Locke et al 2008). Anthropometric measures of height 175 176 (centimeters) and weight (kilograms) were recorded to the nearest 0.1cm and 0.1 kg using a freestanding stadiometer (Holtain Limited, Crymych, Dyfed, UK) and standard scales (Sec, 177 Hamburg, Germany) with the participant wearing indoor clothes but having emptied pockets 178 179 and removed shoes, jewellery and bulky clothing. Body Mass Index (BMI) was calculated by 180 taking body weight in kilograms and dividing by height in meters squared. Distress was assessed using the General Health Questionnaire-28 (GHQ-28). The GHQ-28 assesses three 181 psychological health factors: anxiety/insomnia, social dysfunction, severe depression, and 182 one physical health factor, namely, somatic symptoms. The GHQ-28 also provides a total 183 score for general health. 184

All participants were recruited for the intervention program meetings over a two week 185 period. Once recruited participants were informed that the study would investigate the effect 186 187 of a physical activity intervention on physical activity step counts, weight and psychological well-being and that questionnaires would be completed at two time points, in week one and 188 six weeks later. After completion of consent forms, two researchers supervised the data 189 190 collection and questionnaire completion, that included providing personalised codes to allow researchers to match participants' baseline and follow up data. Height and weight 191 measurements were taken by the researchers and all participants were given a pedometer to 192 wear for seven days. During weeks one, two, three and four, the control group continued with 193 the conventional commercial program while the intervention group received the enhanced 194

intervention. During week six, the same assessment procedure as conducted at baseline was
replicated. Following data collection, two researchers manually inputted raw data from the
pedometers and questionnaires into SPSS (version 21) software. To ensure consistency and
accuracy, the SPSS file was cleaned through randomly selecting and cross-checking 10% of
the inputted data with the raw data. A third researcher then conducted data analyses
(described below).

201 *2f Statistical Methods*

Separate between group (intervention and control) t-tests were calculated as a randomisation 202 check to establish if there were differences between groups in physical activity or weight at 203 204 baseline. A 2 (Group) x 2 (Time) mixed factors Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for the 205 physical activity and weight variables was calculated to determine main and interaction effects. To ensure any significant effects were not a result of scores at baseline, separate 206 207 analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) tests were calculated. The four subscales of the GHQ-28 were analysed using a 2 x 2 mixed factors Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA). 208 209 Statistically significant effects (p<.05) were followed-up using separate 2 x 2 mixed factors ANOVA's. To ensure any significant effects for the GHQ-28 were not a result of scores at 210 baseline, separate ANCOVA tests were calculated for each sub domain. Partial eta squared 211 (η_p^2) as a measure of effect size was calculated, providing an indication of what proportion of 212 the variance in the dependent variable is attributable to the intervention. All calculations were 213 performed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21. 214

215 **3. Results**

216 *3a Participant flow and group randomisation check at baseline*

217 The CONSORT flow diagram for the study design can be found in Figure 1. The

characteristics of the sample at baseline are reported in Table 1. There was no significant

219	difference between the groups for age and no difference between the control (M = 75.43 kg,
220	SD= 7.54) and intervention groups (M = 75.32 kg, SD = 6.67) for weight <i>t</i> =.055, df=47,
221	p=.956 at baseline. There was no significant difference between the control (M =30207.67,
222	SD = 7833.29) and the intervention group ($M = 31516.25$, $SD = 9310.17$) on baseline mean
223	weekly pedometer scores t =532, df=47, p=.597), and no significant difference between the
224	control and the intervention group on any of the four GHQ-28 sub-scales at baseline
225	$F(5,43)=.464$, p=.802, $\eta_p^2 = .051$.

226

Insert table 1 here

227 3b Outcomes, estimation and harms

No negative effects or harms were reported for the standard weight loss programme, and the
augmented intervention including physical activity consultations. Effects of the intervention
on each of the outcomes are detailed below.

231 *Physical activity*

Pre and post intervention data are presented for all variables in Table 2. To investigate if the 232 number of steps per day changed as a result of the intervention, a 2 x 2 mixed factors 233 ANOVA with the independent variables of testing session (time) and for group (intervention 234 versus control) was conducted. There was a significant interaction effect between group and 235 time, F(1, 47) = 22.41, p < .001, $\eta_p^2 = .32$, with the intervention group exhibiting a greater 236 increase in pedometer scores. While both groups demonstrated an increase in mean steps over 237 time, F(1, 47) = 244.12, p < .001, $\eta_p^2 = .84$, the intervention group exhibited a larger 238 239 increase. An ANCOVA was calculated controlling for baseline pedometer scores, the difference between groups at follow up remained statistically significant where in the 240 intervention group performed more steps, F(1, 46) = 24.10, p < .001, $\eta_p^2 = .35$. 241

243

Insert Table 2 here

244 Weight

245 There was a slightly greater increase in weight loss for the intervention group. However,

- there was no significant main effect of group and no significant interaction between time and
- group. There were significant main effects of time for weight, F(1, 47) = 144, p < .001, η_p^2
- =.75, with weight significantly decreasing by 3.74 kg for the intervention and 3.39 kg for the
- 249 control groups from the first to second testing session. An ANCOVA was calculated
- 250 controlling for baseline weight levels. No statistically significant differences between groups
- were shown.
- 252 *GHQ-28*

A 2 x 2 mixed MANOVA was conducted with the four subscales of the GHQ-28 as the dependent variables. There was a significant multivariate main effect for group,

255 Wilks' $\Lambda = 3.67$, F(4, 44) = 5.42, p < .001, η_p^2 .33; time, Wilks' $\Lambda = .303$, F(4, 44) = 25.29, p

256 < .001, $\eta_p^2 = .33$, and a significant group x time interaction, Wilks' $\Lambda = .712$, F(4, 44) = 4.44,

257 p =.004, η_p^2 = .28. Separate analysis for each domain of the GHQ-28 is presented below.

258 Anxiety

A 2x2 mixed design ANOVA revealed a significant interaction between group and time for anxiety, F(1, 47) = 8.16, p < .001, $\eta_p^2 = .15$, the intervention group exhibited a greater decrease in scores compared to the control. When an ANCOVA was calculated controlling for baseline anxiety scores, the statistically significant difference between groups remained where in the intervention group scored lower F(1,46) = 51.95, p < .001, $\eta_p^2 = .53$.

264 Social Dysfunction

A 2x2 mixed design ANOVA revealed a significant interaction effect between group and time for social dysfunction F(1,47) = 8.91; p < .001, $\eta_p^2 = .16$. The intervention group exhibited a greater decrease in scores compared to the control. To control for baseline social dysfunction scores an ANCOVA was calculated, the significant main effect remained F(1,46)= 33.62, p < .001, $\eta_p^2 = .42$.

270 Depression

A 2x2 mixed design ANOVA revealed a significant interaction effect between group and

time for depression F(1,47) = 4.22; p < .001; $\eta_p^2 = .08$. The intervention group exhibited a

273 greater decrease in depression scores compared to the control. An ANCOVA was calculated.

After controlling for baseline depression scores a significant main effect remained F(1,46) =

275 10.58,
$$p < .01$$
, $\eta_p^2 = .19$.

276 Somatic

A 2x2 mixed design ANOVA revealed no significant interaction effect between group and

278 time $F(1, 47)=.03, p=.87, \eta_p^2 = .001.$

279 4. Discussion

280 *4a Interpretation*

Commercial weight loss programs represent culturally significant resources for individuals 281 282 aiming to achieve weight loss, yet most programs do not include physical activity and research is inconclusive regarding program's effects on mental health. As such, the aims of 283 the present study were to test whether: (a) the physical activity levels of women with 284 overweight or obesity enrolled in a commercial weight loss program could be boosted with a 285 theory-based physical activity consultation, and (b) whether participants randomized to 286 receive the physical activity intervention reported better emotional health during dieting 287 compared to those who received a standard version of a weight loss program. The findings 288

show that for women who participated in a weight loss program receiving an enhanced multi-289 component tailored one-to-one physical activity consultation, number of steps per-day 290 increased and distress was decreased compared with people who received the standard 291 commercial weight loss program. Participants who received the intervention demonstrated 292 lower anxiety, social-dysfunction and depression at follow-up compared to the control group. 293 In addition, a larger reduction in weight was found for the intervention group. Collectively, 294 295 the findings support evidence showing the effects of physical activity interventions for increasing physical activity behaviour and reducing body weight (WHO, 2010; Biddle, 296 297 Mutrie, & Gorely, 2015), and extends the evidence that in populations with obesity, enhancing physical activity levels can improve emotional health (Baker et al., 2016). We now 298 discuss the findings offering recommendations to advance research and practice. 299

The intervention was shown to increase the number of steps performed by the 300 301 participants in the intervention group compared to the control group at follow up. The change in step count behavior can be interpreted to be a result of the physical activity consultation. 302 According to Wolf (1986), when Cohen's d = .5, (or the equivalent $\eta_p^2 = .06$ as included 303 above) this magnitude reflects a practical/clinical change. The behaviour change techniques 304 305 were operationalised through one-to-one consultations which entailed goal-setting and problem solving based on IIP's for overcoming barriers to being active each day, and the 306 keeping of physical activity logs for self-monitoring reflection and boosting the educational 307 content of the consultations. The positive effects on physical activity behaviour supports the 308 efficacy of self-monitoring and IIP's for improving daily physical activity (Michie, Abraham, 309 310 Whittington, McAteer, & Gupta, 2009; Bélanger-Gravel, Godin, and Amireault (2013) and may be considered when integrating physical activity into current commercial weight loss 311 programs (Balliot et al., 2017). 312

A more thorough research design would have allowed us to determine the direct and 313 indirect effects of the intervention's effects on physical activity behaviour as it is not clear 314 315 how much of the behaviour change can be accounted for by implementation intentions alone. For example, integrated behaviour change frameworks (Hagger & Chatzarantis, 2014) along 316 with extant evidence (Bélanger-Gravel, Godin, and Amireault (2013) suggest that physical 317 activity enhancements may be realised to a combination of conscious and non-conscious 318 319 processes, in which IIP's exert unique effects. Further research entailing the measurement of IIP's is required to determine the actual mediated or unmediated effect that the addition of 320 321 IIP's may have added.

For the intervention group on all psychosocial outcome variables (anxiety, social 322 dysfunction and depression) except somatic, the effect size (η_p^2) was above .06. This finding 323 contradicts the majority of studies that indicate that physical activity is not as effective at 324 reducing distress in populations with obesity (Baker et al., 2016). Therefore, due 325 consideration should be given to how physical activity consultations could be included to 326 enhance the health benefits of weight loss programmes (Balliot et al., 2017). It would also be 327 useful to identify how the physical activity consultation could be incorporated within current 328 healthy lifestyle programmes that do not only focus on weight loss, but the wellbeing of the 329 person in general (Breslin et al, 2013; Biddle, Mutrie & Gorely, 2014; Balliot et al., 2017). 330

There were no negative effects or harms reported for either the intervention or control group. Furthermore, the cost of augmenting the weight loss intervention with physical activity consultations was low, given a volunteer from the research team conducted the meetings. Feedback from the commercial weight loss practitioner revealed a willingness to be trained in the application of physical activity consultation techniques for bolstering the weight loss intervention within their program. The design of such training could be client centred, and cost-efficient through delivery over one day, and bolstered by further top-up

sessions (Ntoumanis, Quested, Reeve & Cheon, 2017). A thorough process evaluation would
have helped gain understanding of the overall cost, precise number of sessions, and
consultations the participants engaged in, and acceptability of the intervention from the
perspective of the participants (Jean-Naylor et al., 2002), and should be considered for further
work.

343 *4b Limitations and generalisability*

344 Some potential limitations of this study should be considered. First, the favorable response to the intervention came from women who were already motivated to lose weight and able to 345 346 afford a commercial weight loss program and so caution should be adopted before generalizing the findings. Second, the length of follow-up was relatively short and it would 347 be valuable to see whether the effects can be sustained in the longer term. Third, because of 348 human resource constraints, some of the research team were required to conduct 349 randomisation, whilst also participating in intervention delivery and data collection, meaning 350 it was not possible to blind outcome assessors to group allocations. Fourth, the physical 351 activity logs were used to enhance the educational messages of the consultations, however, 352 the qualitative content of the logs were not analysed by the researchers. On reflection a log or 353 diary may have provided important additional information on the context of the types of 354 physical activity engaged in. Future research may consider screening physical activity logs or 355 using a self-report physical activity instrument alongside validated wearable devices (e.g. 356 357 pedometers, accelerometers) for better contextualising the physical activity. Nevertheless, it is encouraging that physical activity habits have been shown to develop in as few as five 358 weeks (Armitage, 2005) and so there are grounds for cautious optimism in conducting further 359 research with longer term follow-ups. 360

361 *4c Conclusion and implications*

362	This study demonstrated that the inclusion of a multi-component physical activity
363	consultation for women enrolled in a commercial weight loss program were more likely to
364	increase their physical activity, and improve their emotional health than those who attended a
365	standard version of the commercial weight loss program. These findings provide evidence to
366	support the inclusion of face-to-face physical activity consultations that comprises self-
367	monitoring, goal-setting and implementation intentions. Future developments of such
368	commercial weight loss programs may consider a more holistic programme aim beyond
369	weight loss, such as improving multiple aspects of wellbeing through a healthy lifestyle.

370

371 (Conflict	of interest
--------------	----------	-------------

372 All authors declare that we have no conflict of interest to declare.

373 *Funding*

374 No funding was sourced for this research project.

375

376 **References**

- Armitage, C, J. (2005). Can the Theory of Planned Behavior Predict the Maintenance of
 Physical Activity? *Health Psychology*, 24(3), 235-2452
- 379 Baetge, C., Earnest, C. P., Lockard, B., Coletta, A. M., Galvan, E., Rasmussen, C., &

380 Oliver, J. (2017). Efficacy of a randomized trial examining commercial weight loss

381 programs and exercise on metabolic syndrome in overweight and obese women.

382 Applied Physiology, Nutrition, and Metabolism, 42(2), 216-227.

- Baker, A., Sirois-Leclerc, H., & Tulloch, H. (2016). The impact of long-term physical
- activity interventions for overweight/obese postmenopausal women on adiposity
- indicators, physical capacity, and mental health outcomes: a systematic review.
- Journal of obesity, 2016.

387	Baillot, A., Saunders, S., Brunet, J., Romain, A. J., Trottier, A., & Bernard, P. (2018).
388	A systematic review and meta-analysis of the effect of exercise on psychosocial
389	outcomes in adults with obesity: A call for more research. Mental Health, 34, 15Z.
390	Bélanger-Gravel, A., Godin, G., & Amireault, S. (2013). A meta-analytic review of the effect
391	of implementation intentions on physical activity. Health Psychology Review. 7, (1),
392	23-54.
393	Biddle, S. J.H. & Mutrie, N. & Gorely. (2015). Psychology of Physical Activity:
394	Determinants, Well-Being, and Interventions, (3rd Ed). London, Routledge.
395	British Heart Foundation National Centre (2013) for Physical Activity and Health,
396	Loughborough University.
397	Breslin, G., Nevill, A., Donnelly, P & Murphy, M. (2013). Socio-demographic and
398	behavioural differences and associations with happiness for those who are in good and
399	poor health. International Journal of Happiness and Development, 1 (2), 142-154.
400	British Heart Foundation (2015). Physical activity statistics 2015. bhf_physical-activity-
401	statistics-2015feb%20(1).pdf. Accessed 3rd February 2016
402	Bye, C., Avery A. & Lavin J. (2005). Tackling obesity in men – preliminary evaluation of
403	men only groups within a commercial slimming organization. Journal of Human
404	Nutrition and Dietetics, 18(5), 391-394.
405	Carraro, N., & Gaudreau, P. (2013). Spontaneous and experimentally induced action and
406	coping planning for physical activity. Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 14, 228-248.
407	Cohen, J. (1988). Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences (2nd ed.). Hillsdale,
408	NJ: Lawrence Earlbaum Associates.
409	Cooney, G. M., Dwan, K., Greig, C. A., Lawlor, D. A., Rimer, J., Waugh, F. R., & Mead, G.

410	E. (2013). Exercise for depression. Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews, 9,
411	[CD004366]

412 Chastin, S.F., De Craemer, M., De Cocker, K., Powell, L., Van Cauwenberg, J., Dall, P.,

- 413 Hamer, M. and Stamatakis, E., 2018. How does light-intensity physical activity
- 414 associate with adult cardiometabolic health and mortality? Systematic review with
- 415 meta-analysis of experimental and observational studies. Br J Sports Med,
- 416 pp.bjsports-2017.
- 417 Craig, P., Dieppe, P., Macintyre, S., Michie, S., Nazareth, I., & Petticrew, M. (2013).
- 418 Developing and evaluating complex interventions: the new Medical Research Council
 419 guidance. International journal of nursing studies, 50(5), 587-592.
- Dohle, S., Diel, K., & Hofmann, W. (2017). Executive functions and the self-regulation of
 eating behavior: a review. Appetite.
- Faul, F., Erdfelder, E., Lang, A.-G., & Buchner, A. (2007). G*Power 3: A flexible statistical
 power analysis for the social, behavioral, and biomedical sciences. *Behavior*
- 424 *Research Methods*, *39*, 175-191
- Finley, C. E., Barlow, C. E., Greenway, F. L., Rock, C. L., Rolls, B. J., & Blair, S. N. (2007).
 Retention rates and weight loss in a commercial weight loss program. *International*

427 *journal of obesity*, *31*(2), 292.

- Gollwitzer, P.M. (1993), "Goal achievement: The role of intentions", *European Review of Social Psychology*, *4*, 141-181.
- 430 Green, M.W., Elliman, N.A., & Kretsch, M.J. (2005). Weight loss strategies, stress, and

431 cognitive function: Supervised versus unsupervised dieting.

432 *Psychoneuroendocrinology, 30, 908–918*

433	Hagger, M. S., & Chatzisarantis, N. L. (2014). An integrated behavior change model for
434	physical activity. Exercise and Sport Sciences Reviews, 42(2), 62-69.
435	Jayakody, K., Gunadasa, S., & Hosker, C. (2013). Exercise for anxiety disorders: systematic
436	review. British Journal of Sports Medicine, 48(3), 187-196.
437	Johnstone, A. M., Faber, P., Andrew, R., , Gibney, E. R., Elia, M., Lobley, G., Stubbs, R. J.,
438	& Walker, B. R. (2004). Influence of short-term dietary weight loss on cortisol
439	secretion and metabolism in obese men. European Journal of Endocrinology 150,
440	185-194.
441	Kemps, E., Tiggemann, M. & Marshall, K. (2005). Working memory performance and
442	preoccupying thoughts in female dieters: Evidence for a selective central executive
443	impairment. Appetite, 45, 287–294.
444	Kirk, A.F., Barnett, J., & Mutrie, N. (2007). Physical activity consultation for people with
445	Type 2 diabetes. Evidence and guidelines. Diabetic Medicine, 24 (8), 809-816.
446	Koenig, L. J., & Wasserman, E. L. (1995). Body image and dieting failures in college men
447	and women: Examining links between depression and eating problems. Sex Roles, 32,
448	225–249.

Lowe, M. R., Miller-Kovach, K., Frye, N., & Phelan, S. (1999). An initial evaluation of a
commercial weight loss program: Short-term effects on weight, eating behavior and
mood. *Obesity Research*, *7*, 51-59.

Malcolm, E., Evans-Lacko, S., Little, K., Henderson, C., & Thornicroft, G. (2013). The
impact of exercise projects to promote mental wellbeing. Journal of Mental Health, 22(6),
519-527.

- 455 Mansfield, L., Kay, T., Meads, C., Grigsby Duffy, L., Lane, J., John, A., ... & Payne, A.
- 456 (2018). Sport and dance interventions for healthy young people (15-24 years) to promote
- 457 subjective wellbeing: A systematic review.
- 458 Meads, D. M., Hulme, C. T., Hall, P., & Hill, A. J. (2014). The cost-effectiveness of
- 459 primary care referral to a UK commercial weight loss programme, Clinical Obesity, 4 (6),
- 460 324-332
- Michie, S., Abraham, C., Whittington, C., McAteer, J., & Gupta, S. (2009). Effective
 techniques in healthy eating and physical activity interventions: A meta-regression. *Health Psychology*, 28(6), 690-701.
- 464 Mintel (2014). Dieting in 2014? you're not alone 29 million Brits have tried to lose weight
- 465 in the last year. Retrieved 3rd February 2016.http://www.mintel.com/press-

466 centre/social-and-lifestyle/dieting-in-2014-you-are-not-alone

- 467 Naylor, P. J., Wharf-Higgins, J., Blair, L., Green, L., & O'Connor, B. (2002). Evaluating the
 468 participatory process in a community-based heart health project. Social Science &
 469 Medicine, 55(7), 1173-1187.
- 470 Ntoumanis, N., Quested, E., Reeve, J., & Cheon, S. H. (2017). Need supportive
- 471 communication: Implications for motivation in sport, exercise, and physical activity.
- 472 Persuasion and Communication in Sport, Exercise, and Physical Activity. Abingdon,
- 473 UK: Routledge.
- 474 Rimmer J, Dwan K, Lawlor DA, et al., (2012). Exercise for depression. *Cochrane Database*475 *Systematic Review*, *11*:CD004366. 10.
- 476 Ripple, J. M. (1998). Improved psychological well-being, quality of life, and health practices
 477 in moderately overweight women participating in a 12-week structured weight loss
 478 program. Obesity Reviews, 6 (3), 208-18

479	Sainsbury, K., Evans, E. H., Pedersen, S., Marques, M. M., Teixeira, P. J., Lähteenmäki, L.,
480	& Sniehotta, F. F. (2018). Attribution of weight regain to emotional reasons amongst
481	European adults with overweight and obesity who regained weight following a weight loss
482	attempt. Eating and Weight Disorders-Studies on Anorexia, Bulimia and Obesity, 1-11.
483	Shultz, S. P. Byrne, N.P., & Hills, A. P. (2014). Musculoskeletal Function and Obesity:
484	Implications for Physical Activity. Current Obesity Reports 3(3), 355-360
485	Stamatakis, E., Kelly, P., Strain, T., Murtagh, E. M., Ding, D., & Murphy, M. H.
486	(2018). Self-rated walking pace and all-cause, cardiovascular disease and cancer
487	mortality: individual participant pooled analysis of 50 225 walkers from 11
488	population British cohorts. Br J Sports Med, 52(12), 761-768.
489	Tanham, J., Murphy, M.H. & Breslin, G. (2014). Using financial incentives to increase
490	physical activity, weight loss and well-being: a randomized control trial. Working
491	Papers in the Health Sciences, 1 (9), 1-5.
492	Tiggemann, M. (1994). Dietary restraint as a predictor of reported weight loss and affect.
493	Psychological Reports, 75, 1679–1682.
494	Tiggemann, M. (1997). Dieting in moderation: The role of dietary restraint in the relationship
495	between body dissatisfaction and psychological wellbeing. Journal of Health
496	Psychology, 4, 501–507.
497	Tudor-Locke, Yoshiro Hatano, Robert P. Pangrazi, and Minsoo Kang (2008). Revisiting
498	"How Many Steps Are Enough?' Official Journal of the American College of Sports
499	Medicine S537-S543.
500	Trepanowski, J. F., Canale, R. E., Marshall, K. E., Kabir, M. M., & Bloomer, R. J. (2011).
501	Impact of caloric and dietary restriction regimens on markers of health and longevity in

humans and animals: a summary of available findings. *Nutrition journal*, *10*(1), 107.

503	Tsai, A, G. & Wadden, T, A. (2005). Systematic Review: An Evaluation of Major
504	Commercial Weight Loss Programs in the United States. Ann Intern Med 142 (1) 56-
505	66.
506	Wolf, F. M. (1986). Meta-analysis: Quantitative methods for research synthesis. Beverly
507	Hills, CA: Sage.
508	World Health Organization (2010). Global recommendations on physical activity for health
509	http://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/10665/44399/1/9789241599979_eng.pdf retrieved
510	3rd February 2016.
511	World Health Organization (2014). Obesity and Overweight, Fact Sheet no. 311. Retrived
512	from http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs311/en
513	Zawadzki, M. J., Smyth, J. M., Costigan, H. J. (2015). Real-Time Associations Between
514	Engaging in Leisure and Daily Health and Well-Being. Annals of Behavioral
515	Medicine. 49 (4), 605-615.

Physical Activity and Mental Health