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Lessons learned from delivering an internet intervention for insomnia in an Australian public hospital outpatient setting

This is the Accepted version of the following publication

Meaklim, H, Abbott, JAM, Kennedy, GA, Murray, G, Klein, B and Rehm, Imogen (2019) Lessons learned from delivering an internet intervention for insomnia in an Australian public hospital outpatient setting. *Australian Psychologist*, 54 (3). pp. 225-234. ISSN 0005-0067

The publisher's official version can be found at
<https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/full/10.1111/ap.12374>
Note that access to this version may require subscription.

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1 **Title: Lessons learned from delivering an internet intervention for insomnia in an**
2 **Australian public hospital outpatient setting**

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5 Published on 12th November 2020 in the *Australian Psychologist*

6 doi: [10.1111/ap.12374](https://doi.org/10.1111/ap.12374)

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16 Compliance with Ethical Standards

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23

Abstract

24 Objectives: This study examined the feasibility of delivering an online cognitive behavioural
25 therapy for insomnia intervention (Sleep-e) within an Australian public hospital outpatient
26 insomnia clinic.

27 Method: This study was conducted as an open trial pilot study. Fifty-two patients waiting for
28 clinic treatment were invited to participate, with ten commencing and six completing the 7-
29 week internet intervention. Participants completed a battery of questionnaires regarding
30 their demographic information, sleep and insomnia symptoms, and provided feedback
31 about the program. Exclusion criteria were minimal, and the study allowed for participants
32 to have other health, psychiatric and sleep disorder co-morbidities.

33 Results: Post-program satisfaction results suggested that Sleep-e was easy to use;
34 participants were satisfied with it; and found it beneficial in improving sleep. Paired samples
35 *t*-tests for the intention-to-treat sample indicated reductions in participants' insomnia
36 severity ($p = .02$) and sleep onset latency ($p = .04$) from pre- to post-program. However, a
37 larger sample is needed to generalise the results to the wider population.

38 Conclusion: The findings support Sleep-e as a helpful treatment for insomnia in a public
39 hospital outpatient population for at least a subgroup of patients. However, significant
40 lessons were learned regarding the importance of educating health care providers and
41 patients about novel models of internet service delivery. Potential models of adaptive or
42 blended stepped-care are discussed to facilitate program implementation. Future research
43 should identify how to implement internet interventions more effectively in public health
44 settings to take advantage of their potential to improve clinical efficiency.

45 Keywords: insomnia, CBT, clinical/counselling psychology, internet intervention, stepped-
46 care, public hospital

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Key Points

49 What is already known about this topic

- 50 • Cognitive Behavioral Therapy for insomnia (CBT-I) is an efficacious, yet underutilised
51 treatment for insomnia
- 52 • Internet-delivered CBT-I has the ability to increase access to treatment for insomnia
- 53 • Research evidence supports internet-delivered CBT-I as an effective treatment for
54 insomnia in self-referring, highly educated, and computer literate participants and
55 has been found to be effective in participants with comorbid conditions

56 What this topic adds

- 57 • Internet-delivered CBT-I can be a helpful treatment for insomnia in a public hospital
58 outpatient population with comorbidities
- 59 • However this study highlights the need to increase exposure to and education about
60 the validity of internet interventions in order to increase patient uptake
- 61 • The potential for adaptive or blended models of stepped-care to increase treatment
62 access to CBT-I is discussed, along with facilitating patient engagement and clinical
63 efficiency

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65 Sleep disturbances are a growing public health concern with an estimated 13-33% of
66 the Australian adult population having difficulty either falling or staying asleep (Bartlett,
67 Marshall, Williams, & Grunstein, 2008; Lack, Miller, & Turner, 1988). Sleep disturbances are
68 common in times of stress, but for some people, these sleep disturbances become chronic
69 and are referred to as insomnia (Cunnington & Junge, 2016). According to the Diagnostic
70 and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders Fifth Edition (DSM-5), insomnia is a debilitating
71 sleep disorder characterised by inability initiating or maintaining sleep or early-morning
72 awakening, that occurs at least three times a week and lasts for at least three months
73 (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). The difficulties with sleep result in clinically
74 significant distress or impairments in daytime functioning, such as a pervasive sense of
75 tiredness, low energy, impaired concentration, irritability and depressed mood. Insomnia
76 therefore places a significant burden on the individual as well as the Australian economy
77 (Hillman et al., 2018; Morin & Benca, 2012).

78 Fortunately, Cognitive Behavioural Therapy for Insomnia (CBT-I) is efficacious and
79 recommended as first-line treatment for insomnia (Qaseem et al., 2016; Riemann et al.,
80 2017). Despite this, CBT-I is underutilised, and people with insomnia cannot routinely access
81 this evidence-based treatment (Ancoli-Israel & Lieberman, 2004; Manber & Simpson, 2016;
82 C. M. Morin, 2017). CBT-I is underutilised for many reasons, including geographic isolation,
83 unfamiliarity with non-pharmacological treatments for insomnia, a lack of trained clinicians,
84 high cost and time of treatment, stigma around seeking help for insomnia, and insomnia is
85 often not being viewed as a 'real' problem by the medical community (Araujo, Jarrin,
86 Leanza, Vallieres, & Morin, 2017; Cheung, Bartlett, Armour, Laba, & Saini, 2018; Edinger &
87 Means, 2005; C. M. Morin, 2015, 2017; Stinson, Tang, & Harvey, 2006). To overcome these
88 barriers, CBT-I has been developed into a self-help format and delivered via the internet.
89 Internet intervention trials of CBT-I (iCBT-I) demonstrate positive effects on subjective
90 measures of sleep and insomnia symptoms, comparable to face-to-face CBT-I (Anderson,
91 Goldsmith, & Gardiner, 2014; Espie et al., 2012; Ritterband et al., 2009; Strom, Pettersson, &
92 Andersson, 2004; Suzuki et al., 2008). iCBT-I programs, therefore, offer a convenient and
93 effective treatment for insomnia.

94 Despite the convenience and efficacy of iCBT-I, the current research does have
95 limitations. For example, many iCBT-I studies generally recruit nonclinical, computer-literate

96 samples that self-refer to an internet intervention. They also generally exclude patients with
97 health, psychiatric and sleep disorder co-morbidities. However, many people with insomnia
98 have medical and psychiatric co-morbidities (Anderson et al., 2014; Jernelov et al., 2012;
99 Ritterband et al., 2009; Strom et al., 2004; Suzuki et al., 2008; van Straten et al., 2014). For
100 example, Anderson et al. (2014) screened for sleep disorder co-morbidities and excluded
101 62% ($n = 788$) of patients accessing their iCBT-I program ($n = 1281$). Recognising this
102 problem, Ritterband et al. (2017) recently conducted a large iCBT-I trial and included
103 participants with co-morbidities. Although participants were self-referred, computer literate
104 and highly educated, the results were positive and suggested iCBT-I is effective in an
105 insomnia population with comorbidities (Meaklim & Cunnington, 2018; Ritterband et al.,
106 2017).

107 Patients seeking treatment for insomnia in a public hospital setting typically have
108 comorbidities including chronic health conditions (e.g., diabetes), psychiatric diagnoses
109 (e.g., depression), and other sleep disorders (e.g., obstructive sleep apnoea) (Hebert,
110 Vincent, Lewycky, & Walsh, 2010; Vincent & Lewycky, 2009; Vincent, Walsh, & Lewycky,
111 2013). CBT-I delivered face-to-face is as helpful to patients with insomnia and co-
112 morbidities, as it is to patients with insomnia alone (Edinger et al., 2009; Smith, Huang, &
113 Manber, 2005). A recent meta-analysis by Wu, Appleman, Salazar, and Ong (2015)
114 identified that face-to-face CBT-I improves insomnia symptoms and sleep parameters in
115 patients with comorbid insomnia, as well as small improvements in comorbid
116 symptomatology. Christensen et al. (2016) found that iCBT-I reduced depression symptoms
117 in a large group of internet users experiencing both insomnia and depression, and
118 Ritterband et al. (2017) also found support for the effectiveness of iCBT-I for people with
119 comorbidities. Therefore, iCBT-I may improve sleep and comorbid symptomatology in
120 patients waiting for face-to-face insomnia treatment at a public hospital clinic.

121 iCBT-I has many potential service benefits in a public hospital setting, in addition to
122 improving insomnia. Internet interventions have the ability to decrease service costs and
123 waiting lists by reducing the need for face-to-face time with a clinician (Musiat, Goldstone,
124 & TARRIER, 2014). The Australian Department of Health recognised these potential benefits
125 on public mental health care and released mental health reforms in 2015 to encourage a
126 stepped-care approach to mental health (Department of Health, 2015). This approach

127 focuses on using internet interventions to increase access to mental health care and better
128 matching services to mental health needs. Therefore, iCBT-I is an innovative way to increase
129 patient access to CBT-I treatment, reduce clinic waiting lists and costs, and is in line with
130 government mental health reforms.

131 Insomnia has been proposed as a suitable condition for the stepped-care approach
132 (Espie, 2009). The Vincent Model model of stepped-care for insomnia outlines that iCBT-I
133 should be provided to all patients with insomnia as a first 'step'. Then patients are 'stepped-
134 up' in the treatment hierarchy based on their symptom improvement and level of need, to a
135 one-off individual face-to-face session, group therapy, and then to individually tailored CBT-I
136 sessions, if required (Vincent & Walsh, 2013). The Vincent model was trialled in an
137 outpatient insomnia clinic in Canada and the results indicated that only 19 out of 50 patients
138 referred by a physician for insomnia treatment needed more intensive treatment than iCBT-
139 I alone. This result led to a 69% improvement in service efficiency, with a large reduction in
140 the number of patients requiring more intensive CBT-I sessions than prior to the
141 implementation of the stepped-care model (Vincent & Walsh, 2013). The results of this
142 study provide strong support for the use of iCBT-I within an outpatient insomnia clinical
143 setting to improve service efficiency and potential savings on psychologist staffing costs.

144 Given the current literature on the potential of iCBT-I to improve access to CBT-I and
145 service efficiency, the current study aimed to investigate the feasibility and effectiveness of
146 delivering iCBT-I to patients waiting for insomnia treatment at an Australian public hospital-
147 based outpatient insomnia clinic.

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Method

149 Patients and procedure

150 The iCBT-i program, Sleep-e, was offered to all patients who met study inclusion
151 criteria and were waiting for treatment at an outpatient insomnia clinic in Melbourne,
152 Australia. All patients had a physician referral to receive insomnia treatment. The clinic
153 waiting list was approximately three months and patients were advised that participation in
154 the study would not impact clinic waiting times or future appointments. Inclusion criteria
155 were: (a) clinically significant symptoms of insomnia as measured by the insomnia severity
156 index (>7); (b) not currently receiving psychological treatment for insomnia; (c) depressive
157 symptoms of less than 14 as measured by the DASS-21 because severe depressive
158 symptoms may have required primary face-to-face treatment; (d) access to the internet via
159 a desktop or laptop computer; (e) adequate computer literacy to allow completion of the
160 intervention; (f) adequate comprehension of written English ; (g) aged ≥ 18 years of age; and
161 h) an Australian resident. Medication usage was permitted, and this was reported at the
162 commencement and end of the study. People who did not meet inclusion criteria, but
163 required further assistance, were provided with referral advice.

164 Patients on the waiting list for insomnia treatment had their hospital records
165 reviewed to determine potential eligibility for study participation. Suitable patients then
166 received a telephone call inviting them to participate in the study. If patients indicated their
167 interest in participating, a brief telephone screen of study eligibility was conducted to
168 confirm computer access and literacy, adequate comprehension of written English, and the
169 presence of insomnia symptoms. If patients declined the invitation, they were asked about
170 their reason for not participating. Participants who were deemed eligible after the brief
171 telephone screen received an email link to complete the pre-program assessments and
172 confirm study eligibility (e.g., ISI score > 7 ; DASS-21 depression score < 14). Of the 52
173 patients contacted to participate in the trial, 21 advised they were interested in
174 participating and were potentially eligible for the trial, and were invited to complete a series
175 of online questionnaires collecting information on demographic profile, physical and mental
176 health, sleep and insomnia symptoms to determine eligibility. Twelve participants
177 completed the online questionnaires, with ten participants formally meeting trial eligibility

178 criteria and commencing the Sleep-e intervention (Figure 1). Participants enrolled in the
179 study completed the online questionnaires again at mid-program. After the 7-week program
180 access period, participants completed another two weeks of online sleep diaries and online
181 post-program questionnaires. This research was approved by the Human Research Ethics
182 Committees (HRECs) at Austin Health and Swinburne University of Technology. The trial was
183 registered with the Australian and New Zealand Clinical Trials Registry on 18 November
184 2013: ACTRN12613001266752.

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186 **Intervention**

187 Sleep-e is an interactive iCBT-I program, containing textual information, graphics,
188 health professional videos, audio content, case examples, online and downloadable
189 worksheets, and an online sleep diary. The program comprises six modules including
190 psycho-education about sleep and insomnia (Module 1), stimulus control and sleep
191 restriction (Module 2), sleep hygiene and relaxation (Module 3), cognitive restructuring
192 (Modules 4 and 5), and relapse prevention (Module 6). All participants received a weekly
193 email during the 7-week intervention period, which included administrative and technical
194 assistance, as well as guidance and support through the treatment. Therapist-assistance
195 emails were provided by a provisionally registered psychologist (eTherapist), supervised by a
196 registered health psychologist, on the same day each week. The eTherapist was able to
197 respond to any specific questions or concerns that the participant had emailed in a second
198 email during that same week. Telephone calls were made to participants as required to
199 assist with technical or clinical issues, with an average of two phone calls being made per
200 participant throughout the program.

201 **Measures**

202 ***Demographic information.*** Participant demographic information was obtained at
203 pre-program assessment and included: gender; age; education level; marital status;
204 employment status; medication use (including sleep medications); co-morbid mental health
205 conditions; and other sleep disorders.

206 **Insomnia Severity Index (ISI).** The seven-item ISI provides a quantitative index of
207 overall sleep impairment and has been established as a valid and reliable measure (Bastien,
208 Vallieres, & Morin, 2001). Respondents rate the severity of problems with sleep onset, sleep
209 maintenance, early morning awakening, functional impairment, and distress, on a five-point
210 scale ranging from 0 (*none*) to 4 (*very severe*). Scores on the ISI range from 0 to 28, and are
211 interpreted as follows: No clinically significant insomnia (0-7); sub-threshold insomnia (8-
212 14); clinical insomnia with moderate severity (15-21); severe clinical insomnia (22-28).
213 Participants completed the ISI mid-program in addition to pre- and post-program. The
214 Cronbach's reliability coefficient for the ISI at pre-program assessment was $\alpha = 0.78$,
215 supporting the adequate reliability of the measure.

216 **The Depression Anxiety Stress Scale (DASS-21).** The DASS-21 is a 21-item self- report
217 measure of stress, anxiety, and depressive symptoms (Lovibond & Lovibond, 1995). It has
218 satisfactory internal consistency, with Espie et al. (2012) reporting internal consistency
219 scores ranging from $\alpha = .82 - .92$ (Espie et al., 2012; Lovibond & Lovibond). Respondents rate
220 21 items on a four-point scale, ranging from 0 (*did not apply to me at all*) to 3 (*applied to me*
221 *very much, or most of the time*), indicating the severity of their stress, anxiety and
222 depressive symptoms over the last week. The Cronbach's reliability coefficient for the DASS-
223 21 in the current study at pre-program assessment was $\alpha = 0.70$.

224 **Dysfunctional Beliefs and Attitudes about Sleep Scale (DBAS-16).** The DBAS-16 is a
225 16-item scale measuring sleep-related cognitions (Morin, 1993). Respondents rate their
226 level of agreement or disagreement on a six-point scale ranging from 0 (*strongly disagree*)
227 to 5 (*strongly agree*) with a range of questions about their beliefs about sleep. A higher total
228 score is associated with a higher level of dysfunctional sleep cognitions. The DBAS-16
229 discriminates between individuals with insomnia and good sleepers (Morin et al., 1993;
230 Morin, Vallieres & Ivers, 2007). Also, Morin, Vallieres, and Ivers (2007) demonstrated that
231 the DBAS-16 had adequate internal consistency for both clinical ($\alpha = .77$) and research
232 samples ($\alpha = .79$). The Cronbach's reliability coefficient for the DBAS-16 was $\alpha = 0.62$ at pre-
233 program assessment.

234 **Sleep Diary.** The Consensus Sleep Diary (CORE) was developed by insomnia experts
235 in consultation with potential users (Carney et al., 2012). Respondents use the sleep diary to

236 record the time they went to bed, the time they tried to go to sleep, how long it took for
237 them to fall asleep, how many times they woke up, how long these night awakenings were,
238 time of final awakening, time they got out of bed, rating of sleep quality and any additional
239 comments. The consensus diary includes a number of relevant metrics for monitoring and
240 assessing sleep difficulties including sleep onset latency (SOL), wakefulness after sleep onset
241 (WASO), number of total awakenings (NA), total sleep time (TST), total time spent in bed
242 (TIB), sleep efficiency (SE), and sleep quality rating (SQR). In the current study, participants
243 completed the sleep diary online, as part of the Sleep-e program. Participants were
244 instructed to complete their diaries daily, upon awakening, from commencing the Sleep-e
245 program through to two-weeks' post-program. The first two weeks of sleep diary entries
246 were used for baseline sleep parameters as Module 1 which contained no active insomnia
247 treatment.

248 ***Program Satisfaction Questionnaire.*** Using a questionnaire designed by the
249 researchers, participants were asked about their experiences and satisfaction with Sleep-e
250 and their treatment adherence behaviours after completing the program or upon program
251 drop-out.

252 **Data Analysis**

253 Questionnaire and sleep diary data from pre- and post-program assessment was
254 entered into SPSS 22.0 for analysis. Preliminary assumption testing was conducted and no
255 serious violations of normality were noted. Although an original sample size of 25
256 participants was sought to achieve power at 80% ($\alpha = 0.05$) with an effect size of $d_z = 0.35$,
257 this sample size was not achieved. A post-hoc power calculation was determined by
258 GPower, and the current study achieved power of 42% ($\alpha = 0.05$) with an effect size of $d_z =$
259 0.49, as calculated from the ISI (Erdelder, Faul, & Buchner, 1996). Descriptive statistics were
260 obtained for participants' demographic and pre- to post-program data. Paired samples t -
261 tests were performed on the intention-to-treat (ITT) sample ($n = 10$ for questionnaire
262 measures, $n=9$ for sleep diary measures) to explore the changes to outcome variables from
263 pre-to post- program assessment.

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Results

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Figure 1 shows a flowchart of participation in the trial. A total of 52 patients were contacted between November 2013 and June 2014 and invited to participate. Of these, 31 declined to participate (60%). Of the 21 patients who provided informed consent and were telephone screened to be potentially eligible to participate in the study, nine never commenced Sleep-e (43%). Two patients were excluded after completing pre-program assessments as they did not meet inclusion criteria. Of the ten patients who commenced and engaged in participating in the trial, six participants completed the Sleep-e program and pre- and post-program assessments in full. The four participants that dropped out of the trial did so between Modules 1 and 4.

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The final sample comprised four males and six females, aged between 28 and 67 years ($M = 52.4$, $SD = 13.7$). Seven participants reported co-morbid conditions, including obstructive sleep apnoea ($n = 6$), restless legs syndrome ($n = 1$), mixed anxiety and depression ($n = 1$), bipolar disorder ($n = 1$), and borderline personality disorder ($n = 1$). Seven participants were currently taking medication; five to help their sleep specifically. Baseline ISI scores ranged from 11 (subthreshold insomnia) to 27 (clinical insomnia – severe) ($M = 17.5$, $SD = 4.3$, clinical insomnia - moderate). The only observed difference between program completers ($n = 6$) and non-completers ($n = 4$) was gender, with all program non-completers being female. No differences in age, education level, or symptom severity were observed between program completers and non-completers.

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Average pre- and post-program scores on study outcome measures for program completers are displayed in Table 1. There was a statistically significant decrease in insomnia severity, as measured by the ISI, from pre- to post-program assessment ($p = .02$). The eta squared statistic, $\eta^2 = .49$, indicated a large effect size. No significant change in participants' overall DASS-21 scores were found from pre- to post-program assessment ($p = .16$). Despite there being a reduction in participants' dysfunctional beliefs about sleep post-program as measured by the DBAS (average reduction of 19.7 points), this change was not statistically significant ($p = .10$). Among the sleep diary variables, participants' sleep onset latency significantly decreased ($p = .04$) from pre- to post- program assessment. Participants showed no other statistically significant improvements on the remaining sleep diary

295 measures from pre- to post-program assessment. These results should be viewed with
296 caution, however, because the ITT sample is still small, limiting the generalisability of the
297 findings.

298 **Table 1:** *Sleep and mental health outcome measures (mean (SD))*

Measure	Pre-program	Post-program	<i>p</i> -value
ISI	17.50 (4.27)	13.40 (6.79)	.02*
DASS-21	13.60 (4.95)	10.70 (4.72)	.16
Depression	4.80 (2.35)	3.70 (1.75)	.16
Anxiety	3.00 (2.31)	2.00 (1.33)	.17
Stress	5.80 (2.30)	4.90 (2.33)	.34
DBAS-16	99.50 (16.30)	87.70 (28.90)	.10
Sleep Diary			
SOL (hours)	.89 (.62)	.42 (.39)	.04*
WASO (hours)	.54 (.81)	.15 (.11)	.32
NA (number)	1.82 (.72)	1.40 (.75)	.40
TST (hours)	6.46 (2.25)	6.76 (2.31)	.50
TIB (hours)	9.47 (2.05)	8.31 (2.45)	.09
SE (%)	68.12 (14.38)	80.29 (15.79)	.08
SQR	2.03 (.60)	2.05 (.72)	.28

299 Note: ISI = insomnia severity index; DASS-21 = depression anxiety stress scales 21; DBAS-16 = dysfunctional beliefs and
300 attitudes and sleep scale-16; SOL = sleep onset latency; WASO = wake after sleep onset; NA = number of total awakenings;
301 TST = total sleep time; TIB = time in bed; SE = sleep efficiency; SQR = sleep quality rating. Intention-to-treat sample size
302 for the ISI, DASS-21 and DBAS-16 was $n = 10$. Intention-to-treat sample size for the sleep diary variables was $n = 9$.

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305 **Post-program satisfaction questionnaire**

306 The six program completers completed the online program satisfaction
307 questionnaire. Participants' ratings indicated they were very satisfied with the program,
308 enjoyed using it, and spent six to seven hours reading and viewing program content over the
309 course of the program. All participants rated Sleep-e as easy to use and said they would
310 recommend Sleep-e to a friend or family member with sleeping difficulties. Ratings of the
311 usefulness of information and exercises in Sleep-e varied from "somewhat useful" to "very
312 useful". Four participants reported that they worked through the whole program, but two
313 participants reported that being "too busy" and having "computer problems" prevented
314 program completion. Three participants reported receiving additional support while
315 completing the Sleep-e program, but only one stated what type of support that was (general
316 psychological support). Three out of the six program completers reported taking
317 medications (including the use of sleeping medications) at program completion, including
318 melatonin, temazepam, and Seroquel. Participants' medications were the same at baseline.

319 The aspects of the program that participants most liked included: program content
320 (e.g., its clarity and the interactive activities provided); sleep diary; getting answers about
321 their sleep problem; modules were easy to use; and their increased understanding of their
322 sleep. The aspects of the program that they liked the least included: sleep restriction;
323 recording information in the sleep diary; and not being able to do the program on an iPad or
324 tablet device. Participants were asked to select features that may have helped them engage
325 more with Sleep-e and selected SMS reminders, email correspondence with a therapist and
326 phone contact with a therapist.

327 Participants were offered the opportunity to provide recommendations for program
328 improvement. Suggestions included: fixing technological issues; reducing the amount of
329 content and homework activities in some modules; more opportunity for therapist contact;
330 and interaction with other participants completing the program. All non-completing
331 participants were contacted via email and phone and offered the opportunity to complete
332 the post-program satisfaction survey or to provide feedback to the research team.

333 Unfortunately, no non-completers provided feedback about their experience with the
334 program or reason for dropping out.

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Discussion

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The current study explored the feasibility and effectiveness of iCBT-I delivered to patients waiting for treatment at an Australian public hospital outpatient insomnia clinic. The study addressed these aims by exploring participant feedback on program satisfaction, usability and experience with the program, recruitment to the study, and also analysing demographic, survey and sleep diary measures.

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Of the ten participants who consented to participate, six participants completed the Sleep-e program, thus demonstrating that CBT-I can be delivered in an online format to at least a *subgroup* of patients from a public hospital insomnia clinic. No clear demographic details, apart from female gender in a very small sample size, differentiated program completers from non-completers. Overall participant feedback among treatment completers was positive. Participants reported that Sleep-e was: easy to use; they were satisfied with the program; found it helpful in improving their sleep and daytime symptoms of insomnia; and planned to keep using the strategies that they found useful. Participants did acknowledge that adhering to the program could be challenging. Several participants also experienced IT issues. Questionnaire and sleep diary data suggests that program completers did experience improvements in insomnia despite the majority of participants having a co-morbid sleep or psychiatric condition. The improvements in insomnia symptoms did not appear to be solely attributable to the use of medications, as medication usage was similar at both pre- and post-program assessment. Overall, Sleep-e was viewed as an acceptable and helpful treatment by those who completed it.

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Despite the positive feedback on Sleep-e, perhaps the most significant lesson learned from this study was regarding the challenge of implementing iCBT-I within an existing outpatient clinic. This has implications for the feasibility of iCBT-I interventions in outpatient settings. Sixty percent of patients ($n = 31$) contacted to participate declined, were unable to participate, or were not contactable. The main reasons reported for declining participation were: (1) patients were unable to use or did not have access to a computer or the internet; (2) they preferred face-to-face treatment; or (3) they just did not want to participate. Nine patients provided informed consent but did not commence the Sleep-e program. This was perhaps a failure of appropriate education and marketing to

366 patients to try, and clinic staff to promote, a novel alternative to the clinic's 'service-as-
367 usual'. The process for study recruitment was for patients to be contacted by phone by the
368 student researcher. Without prior exposure to internet interventions, or an introduction
369 from the senior clinical psychologist or administration staff, patients may not have deemed
370 the online study to be as valid as seeing the senior psychologist who had extensive
371 experience in working with people with insomnia. Musiat et al. (2014) identified that
372 despite the potential of internet interventions to increase access to mental health care,
373 public perceptions that it is inferior to face-to-face treatment with a health professional are
374 prevalent. Raising awareness of internet interventions amongst healthcare providers and
375 administrative staff may increase public perception of the validity of internet interventions
376 in health care settings (Musiat et al., 2014).

377 The demographic profile of the outpatient insomnia clinic may have contributed to
378 the lack of uptake of the iCBT-I program. The outpatient insomnia clinic is part of a
379 repatriation hospital, with patient's average age being over 50 years. The clinic provides a
380 free service so that patients' employment status and financial resources do not prevent
381 their treatment access. Vincent and Walsh (2013) identified that being older and
382 unemployed predicted the use of more intensive insomnia services in their study of
383 stepped-care for insomnia. In the current study, patients of the insomnia clinic may have
384 preferred to wait for face-to-face treatment, given they had decided to seek specialist help,
385 and may not have felt comfortable using an internet intervention. Also, older and
386 unemployed patients may have more time available to attend appointments and wish to
387 access an in-person service (Vincent & Walsh, 2013). The results of this study suggest that
388 an insomnia clinic with a younger, employed and computer literate group of participants
389 may be a better target for stepped-care insomnia services.

390 As acknowledged earlier, there were difficulties with study attrition. Participant
391 attrition typically occurred after the introduction of sleep restriction and stimulus control.
392 This high attrition rate is consistent with Vincent and Lewycky (2009), who reported a higher
393 attrition rate for their physician referred (47%) compared to community-recruited patients
394 (18%) to their iCBT-I study. It is important to note that in Vincent and Lewycky's study, all
395 patients were referred by a physician. Unfortunately, all participants who dropped out of

396 Sleep-e declined to discuss their reason for dropping out, which makes it difficult to draw
397 conclusions for study attrition or dissatisfaction with the program. However, the
398 behavioural components of CBT-I are known to be challenging and counterintuitive (e.g.,
399 sleep restriction instructions are to spend less time in bed when you are not sleeping well)
400 (Vincent, Lewycky, & Finnegan, 2008). It is critical for patients to understand the science
401 behind behavioural interventions to implement and adhere to them, and this may be a
402 significant challenge for iCBT-I programs. Potential solutions to increase participant
403 engagement and understanding include adaptive or blended models of internet
404 interventions, with clinician contact via both video-conferencing and emails interspersed
405 throughout the internet intervention. This approach has been piloted in generalised anxiety
406 disorder and preliminary findings suggest a strong therapeutic alliance is helpful to
407 engagement (Rehm et al., 2017).

408 Lack of feedback from intervention non-completers is a common problem in
409 research. One challenge with gathering this information is that it is often the study recruiter
410 who contacts participants to collect this data and participants may not want to provide
411 negative feedback to the person that recruited them to the trial. Future research could
412 utilise a non-investigator to contact non-completing participants for their feedback. In
413 addition, researchers may need to provide greater incentives, such as gift vouchers, to
414 encourage participants to complete any satisfaction-related measures (irrespective of the
415 more general post-assessment treatment outcome measures), given the importance of their
416 input to improve interventions.

417 Information technology (IT) difficulties were identified as a potential barrier to
418 participation in the Sleep-e program in this participant group. Several participants cited
419 trouble with using or accessing the internet/computer as their reason for not participating.
420 Many patients at the insomnia clinic were aged over 50 and had limited computer skills to
421 engage in this type of intervention. Future research could investigate if providing increased
422 IT support to patients with low computer literacy could increase recruitment to internet
423 interventions. Incorporating IT-based strategies into general health care (e.g., doctors
424 referring patients to health websites) may be a way to improve familiarity with online health
425 interventions and increase the rate of uptake of online interventions.

426 Lastly, a major caveat in interpreting the results from this study is that it was
427 underpowered. The study had a small sample size, which increases the likelihood of type II
428 errors and limits the generalisability of the findings to the wider population. Whilst the
429 researchers attempted to increase recruitment sites to enlist more participants to the study,
430 this unfortunately did not progress due to time constraints of the student researcher.
431 Nevertheless, ITT analysis did reveal a significant reduction in insomnia severity and reduced
432 sleep onset latency at program completion, which does provide some initial support to
433 Sleep-e being a useful treatment for insomnia for at least a least a *subgroup* of patients
434 from a public hospital insomnia clinic.

435 **Improving uptake of iCBT-I in a hospital setting.**

436 It is crucial for the future of Australian public health care to take advantage of
437 technology to increase service efficiency. Long clinic wait-lists are unhelpful to both hospital
438 administration and patients. Finding ways to eliminate hospital wait-lists and reduce the
439 amount of time required to treat patients effectively is an essential area of future research.

440 Some possible areas for improving the uptake of iCBT-I are increasing education and
441 marketing about online interventions to health care providers and patients. Ensuring health
442 care providers are aware of the strong research and benefits of online interventions could
443 facilitate increases in patients' views of the acceptability of these interventions (Apolinario-
444 Hagen, Vehreschild, & Alkoudmani, 2017; Musiat et al., 2014). Some practical suggestions to
445 increase recruitment specific to this study include providing written marketing material to
446 participants by clinical and administration staff, for example. Offering face-to-face
447 information sessions may also boost patients' perceptions of program credibility and
448 provide them with a more direct opportunity to ask questions.

449 Non-completers of Sleep-e dropped out after the introduction of the sleep
450 restriction and stimulus control. More frequent therapist contact via telephone or
451 videoconferencing may have been helpful during these first modules to help patients
452 understand and adhere to the behavioural strategies, or to escalate to more intensive
453 services at this time, if required. Another alternative may be to trial Sleep-e within insomnia
454 clinics attended by patients of different age and employment profiles. Trialing blended or
455 adaptive stepped-care models may also be of use, where patients are triaged according to

456 their level of need, unique skills and capabilities, the seriousness of their problem, and
457 personal preferences for treatment. This may assist researchers to identify the types of
458 services that stepped-care models for insomnia are best suited to, and receive the return on
459 investment in increased clinical efficiency and reduced clinic service costs . Exploring
460 different models of stepped-care for insomnia is consistent with the Australian
461 Government's plan for a stepped-care approach to mental health programs and services
462 encouraging the use of internet interventions as a method of promoting timely access to
463 mental health care (Department of Health, 2015).

464 **Summary**

465 Outpatients who completed the iCBT-I program, Sleep-e, reported positive program
466 experiences and improvements in sleep and daytime insomnia symptoms. This suggests
467 there is a place for online interventions in public hospital insomnia clinics to reduce waiting
468 lists and also prepare patients to maximise face-to-face therapy, when and if, they attend an
469 insomnia clinic. Significant lessons were learned about the importance of educating health
470 care providers and patients to use a novel models of internet service delivery and choosing
471 the right type of insomnia service for the implementation of internet interventions. Future
472 research should aim to identify how to integrate psychological internet interventions more
473 effectively in public health settings, to take advantage of their potential to improve service
474 efficiency. Exploring further which patients benefit most from internet interventions and
475 whether adaptive or blended stepped-care are the more successful model of delivery for
476 online health interventions is crucial for future iCBT-I research.

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