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RESEARCH

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The effectiveness of generic emails versus a remote knowledge broker to integrate mood management into a smoking cessation programme in team-based primary care: a cluster randomised trial

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Abstract

Background: Knowledge brokering is a knowledge translation approach that has been gaining popularity in Canada although the effectiveness is unknown. This study evaluated the effectiveness of generalised, exclusively email-based prompts versus a personalised remote knowledge broker for delivering evidence-based mood management interventions within an existing smoking cessation programme in primary care settings.

Methods: The study design is a cluster randomised controlled trial of 123 Ontario Family Health Teams participating in the Smoking Treatment for Ontario Patients programme. They were randomly allocated 1:1 for healthcare providers to receive either: a remote knowledge broker offering tailored support via phone and email (group A), or a generalised monthly email focused on tobacco and depression treatment (group B), to encourage the implementation of an evidence-based mood management intervention to smokers presenting depressive symptoms. The primary outcome was participants' acceptance of a self-help mood management resource. The secondary outcome was smoking abstinence at 6-month follow-up, measured by self-report of smoking abstinence for at least 7 previous days. The tertiary outcome was the costs of delivering each intervention arm, which, together with the effectiveness outcomes, were used to undertake a cost minimisation analysis.

(Continued on next page)

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Results: Between February 2018 and January 2019, 7175 smokers were screened for depression and 2765 (39%) reported current/past depression. Among those who reported current/past depression, 29% (437/1,486) and 27% (345/1,277) of patients accepted the mood management resource in group A and group B, respectively. The adjusted generalised estimating equations showed that there was no significant difference between the two treatment groups in patients' odds of accepting the mood management resource or in the patients' odds of smoking abstinence at follow-up. The cost minimisation analysis showed that the email strategy was the least costly option.

Conclusions: Most participants did not accept the resource regardless of rKB strategy. In contexts with an existing KT infrastructure, decision-makers should consider an email strategy when making changes to a programme given its lower cost compared with other strategies. More research is required to improve rKB strategies.

Trial registration: ClinicalTrials.gov, [NCT03130998](https://clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/study/NCT03130998). Registered April 18, 2017, (Archived on WebCite at www.webcitation.org/6ylyS6RTe)

Keywords: Remote knowledge broker, Smoking cessation, Mood management intervention, Knowledge translation strategies

Contribution to the literature

- Implementation of remote knowledge brokers (rKB) to support integration of evidence-based treatment in primary care continues to grow, despite lack of evidence on how efficacious rKBs are. This study failed to demonstrate the superiority of a personalised rKB over generic emails. This is particularly relevant in the current situation of remote care provision and complete cessation of in-person KB activities due to the COVID-19 pandemic.
- This study provides decision-makers with relevant information to decide whether to use a rKB in systems with strong KT infrastructures including virtual components.
- Outcomes of this study also provide information related to the costs of KT strategies in general, something that is usually lacking in the published literature.

Background

There is an increased call to use evidence-based practices (EBP) in the management and delivery of primary care [1, 2]. While funding agencies and policy- and decision-makers have promoted the application of EBP within primary care settings to enhance the quality of healthcare programmes and improve patient care, implementing new research into clinical practice, and sustaining these evidence-based interventions long term, is often challenging [3–5]. Various knowledge translation (KT) strategies have been used to help build capacity and encourage the implementation of EBP within healthcare settings, including training [6, 7], technology-enabled supports [8–10], financial incentives [5, 11], policy initiatives [5] and knowledge brokering [5, 12]. In Canada, the use of a knowledge broker (KB) is a

common approach to bridge the gap between researchers and decision-makers [13, 14]. However, while KBs are well established within the private sector [1, 15, 16], evidence on their role and efficacy within healthcare settings has been largely anecdotal, and often inconclusive [12, 15, 17–20]. Given the costs and resources associated with traditional, in-person, models of knowledge brokering [20, 21], some programme implementers have shifted to remote KB (rKB) services, including virtual communities of practice (CoP), emails and phone calls [20, 22, 23]. However, the effectiveness of KBs operating from remote contexts has not been rigorously evaluated in primary care.

We conducted a cluster randomised controlled trial (RCT) to examine the effectiveness of two KT strategies in team-based multidisciplinary primary care settings (known as Family Health Teams [FHTs]) across Ontario, Canada, to increase healthcare provider (HCP) capacity in implementing an evidence-based mood management intervention within their existing smoking cessation programme. The intervention was operationalised through the Smoking Treatment for Ontario Patients (STOP) programme [24], an existing, in-person, smoking cessation treatment programme that partners with clinics across the province to provide up to 26 weeks of free nicotine replacement therapy (NRT) and behavioural counselling to treatment-seeking tobacco users. We chose this intervention as there is strong evidence demonstrating that integrating a psychosocial mood management component within smoking cessation programming can increase long-term quit rates among smokers with both current and past depression [25]. However, smokers with co-occurring depression are less likely to be treated for their tobacco use, often due to misconceptions regarding treatment approach and efficacy [26]. Thus, there was a need to develop an

121 intervention to encourage healthcare providers to inte-
122 grate mood interventions within their smoking cessation
123 practice [26, 27]. Data from the STOP programme
124 showed that 38% of FHT patients had current depres-
125 sion (determined by a score of 5 or higher on the Patient
126 Health Questionnaire-9) or self-reported past depres-
127 sion, and these participants had significantly lower 6-
128 month quit rates compared with patients without
129 depression (33% vs. 40%, $p < 0.001$) [28]. This is consist-
130 ent with the literature [25, 29, 30] which in addition
131 shows that compared with the general population, indi-
132 viduals with depression are almost twice as likely to be
133 smokers [31] and experience greater nicotine depend-
134 ence, negative mood changes and higher rates of relapse
135 when making a quit attempt [25, 29, 30].

136 The overall aim of this cluster randomised con-
137 trolled trial (RCT) was to test a mid-range theory (a
138 theory whose application is restricted to a certain
139 subset of social phenomena relevant to a particular
140 range of contexts [32]), where we hypothesised that a
141 more intense and personalised intervention (rKB)
142 would be more effective at enabling HCPs to provide
143 their patients with mood management resources when
144 needed, and ultimately help more smokers quit
145 smoking, compared with a more passive intervention
146 (generic monthly emails).

147 In this manuscript, we report on the three objectives
148 set out in our trial protocol [33]:

- 149 1. To test the hypothesis that a personalised rKB
150 (group A) would increase patients' acceptance of a
151 mood management resource relative to an active
152 control condition of generalised email-based
153 prompts (group B).
- 154 2. To test whether the personalised rKB also increased
155 participants' smoking quit rates at 6-month follow-
156 up relative to the general email prompts.
- 157 3. To quantify the costs and benefits of the rKB
158 (group A) relative to the general email prompts
159 (group B).

160 A cluster RCT, with FHT clinics as the units of ran-
161 domisation and STOP programme patients as the unit
162 of analysis, was chosen to prevent contamination that
163 would result if providers working within a clinic were
164 exposed to both arms of the trial.

165 **Methods**

166 To allow for replication of our study interventions, this
167 trial adheres to reporting standards using the template
168 for intervention description and replication (TIDieR)
169 guide [34] and the CONSORT guidelines for cluster
170 RCTs [35]. The completed TIDieR checklist is included
171 as Additional File 1. The completed CONSORT

checklist [35] for cluster RCTs is included as Additional
File 2. The study methods described here are described
in more detail in our protocol manuscript [33].

175 **Study design and setting**

176 We conducted a pragmatic cluster RCT in FHTs (clus-
177 ters) in Ontario implementing the STOP programme.
178 FHTs joining the STOP programme were required to
179 sign an Inter-Institutional Clinical Trial Collaborative
180 Agreement, by which they consent to participate in the
181 STOP study and conduct all STOP programme proto-
182 cols in accordance with the agreement. In addition,
183 HCPs delivering the STOP programme must receive
184 training from a recognised education programme. Previ-
185 ous findings show that the majority of FHT HCPs imple-
186 menting the STOP programme have attended training in
187 an intensive tobacco cessation counselling programme,
188 the Training Enhancement in Applied Counselling and
189 Health (TEACH) Core course [36], while others identi-
190 fied being trained in less intensive programmes, includ-
191 ing the Ottawa Model for Smoking Cessation [37], the
192 Best Practice Champions [38] and the Quit Using and
193 Inhaling Tobacco (QUIT) programme [24, 39]. The
194 most common professional designations of HCPs imple-
195 menting the STOP programme in FHTs are registered
196 nurse (47.8%), pharmacist (19%) and nurse practitioner
197 (12%). Other disciplines reported by STOP programme
198 implementers include registered practical nurse, respira-
199 tory educator, social worker, addiction/mental health
200 counsellors and health promoters.

201 As part of their role, HCPs are required to administer
202 an initial baseline survey to treatment-seeking tobacco
203 users who are interested in enrolling in the STOP
204 programme. This survey includes questions about the
205 patient's current tobacco use, general health and socio-
206 demographic information. HCPs are also responsible for
207 providing patients with behavioural counselling and dis-
208 pensing NRT during intake and at scheduled follow-up
209 appointments. Additional resources and referrals to
210 other FHT members can also be offered to patients
211 based on any comorbid conditions and health behav-
212 iours reported.

213 **Implementation framework**

214 This study was guided by the Interactive Systems Frame-
215 work (ISF) for Dissemination and Implementation [40].
216 ISF outlines three interactive systems to implement
217 scientific knowledge: the synthesis and translation
218 system ("which distills information about innovations
219 and translates it into user-friendly formats" [40]), the
220 support system ("which provides training, technical
221 assistance or other support to users in the field" [40])
222 and the delivery system ("which implements innovations

223 in the world of practice” [40]). Each of these systems is
224 described below.

225 Pre-implementation

226 Prior to the launch of this trial, we examined the imple-
227 mentation climate of FHTs using a survey distributed to
228 125 STOP lead implementer(s) working in FHTs. The
229 survey captured the three components of organisational
230 readiness described by Scaccia et al [22]: motivation,
231 general capacity and innovation-specific capacity. Motiv-
232 ation was defined as HCPs’ perceptions that the mood
233 management intervention was compatible with the clinic
234 values, was needed and would be useful to their patients.
235 General Capacity was defined as the infrastructure, cul-
236 ture and context within the organisation in which the
237 mood management intervention was going to be intro-
238 duced. General capacities are associated with the ability
239 to implement any innovation [41]. Innovation-Specific
240 Capacity was defined as perceived knowledge, skills and
241 abilities of HCPs to implement a mood management
242 intervention. Based on answers to this survey, FHTs
243 were grouped into two categories: most ready, and least
244 ready. Given that completing the readiness survey was
245 not a prerequisite to being randomised into the study,
246 FHTs that did not complete the survey were classified
247 together in a group labeled “unknown readiness”. For
248 this trial, FHTs in Ontario, Canada, implementing the
249 STOP programme, were the delivery system as outlined
250 in the ISF.

251 After analysing the readiness survey, we invited FHTs
252 to participate in two 60-min-long interactive webinars
253 sharing best practices for integrating mood interventions
254 into smoking cessation programming. These webinars
255 formed the basis for the support system outlined in the
256 ISF. Detailed answers from the readiness survey were
257 used to develop the content of webinars which were de-
258 livered by the PI (PS). The recordings of these webinars
259 can be accessed here: webinar 1: <https://tinyurl.com/y9qhbee5>,
260 webinar 2: <https://tinyurl.com/y8gmsfsb>. The
261 slide-decks of these webinars were part of the synthesis
262 system outlined in the ISF.

263 Trial design

264 FHTs (i.e. study clusters) were stratified by three levels
265 of organisational readiness to implement a mood
266 management intervention, and two levels of clinic size
267 (estimated annual eligible patient enrollment), resulting
268 in six strata. Within each of the six strata, a study co-
269 investigator (DB) randomised clinics using a 1:1 alloca-
270 tion ratio to either group A (tailored rKB) or group B
271 (monthly email prompts). The random assignment of
272 treatment to FHT was computer generated using the
273 ralloc command in Stata 14. All stratification and group
274 allocation were performed prior to the initiation of the

study. Participating FHTs were not informed of their al- 275
location until the trial began. All authors, except SA 276 Q3
who was the rKB and AI, SV and DB who conducted the 277
analysis, remained blinded until the last follow-up survey 278
was completed; AI, SV and DB were blinded until 279
analysis of the primary outcome. Two study staff were 280
un-blinded to allocation results so as to facilitate imple- 281
mentation of the random allocation sequence within the 282
rKB or email groups. Additional details about determin- 283
ation of the readiness and size strata as well as the 284
randomisation process can be found in our protocol 285
manuscript [33]. 286

287 Eligibility criteria

288 Cluster (FHT) level

289 Ontario FHTs who were implementing the STOP
290 programme at the time of randomisation in February
291 2018, and used the STOP portal for programme
292 operations, including patient enrollment, were eligible to
293 participate in the trial.

294 Patient level

295 Patients who provided consent to participate in the
296 STOP programme, and enrolled in person at an eligible
297 FHT with their baseline enrollment survey completed in
298 English by a HCP, using the STOP portal in real-time,
299 were eligible to participate in the study. Patients who
300 completed their baseline enrollment on paper, or in
301 French, were excluded from the trial. In order to be
302 eligible to receive the mood management intervention at
303 the time of enrollment, patients must either have re-
304 ported a past diagnosis of depression or have scored 5
305 or higher on the Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ-9)
306 a validated and widely-used screen for major depressive
307 disorder, which was already part of the baseline
308 assessment package in all FHTs participating in this
309 study [42].

310 Interventions

311 Mood management intervention

312 Based on their PHQ-9 score, which was automatically
313 calculated by the online portal prior to survey comple-
314 tion, patients were grouped into one of four possible
315 levels of depression severity: (1) minimal depressive
316 symptoms (PHQ-9 score ≤ 4 and a reported history of
317 depression, or PHQ-9 score 5-9); (2) major depression
318 with mild severity (PHQ-9 score 10-14); (3) major de-
319 pression with moderate severity (PHQ-9 score 15-19);
320 or (4) major depression with severe severity (PHQ-9
321 score 20 or greater) (see Fig. 1). For this study, and as
322 part of the synthesis and support systems of the ISF
323 framework, we embedded a computer decision support
324 system into the STOP portal in order to guide all HCPs
325 with delivering a mood management intervention to

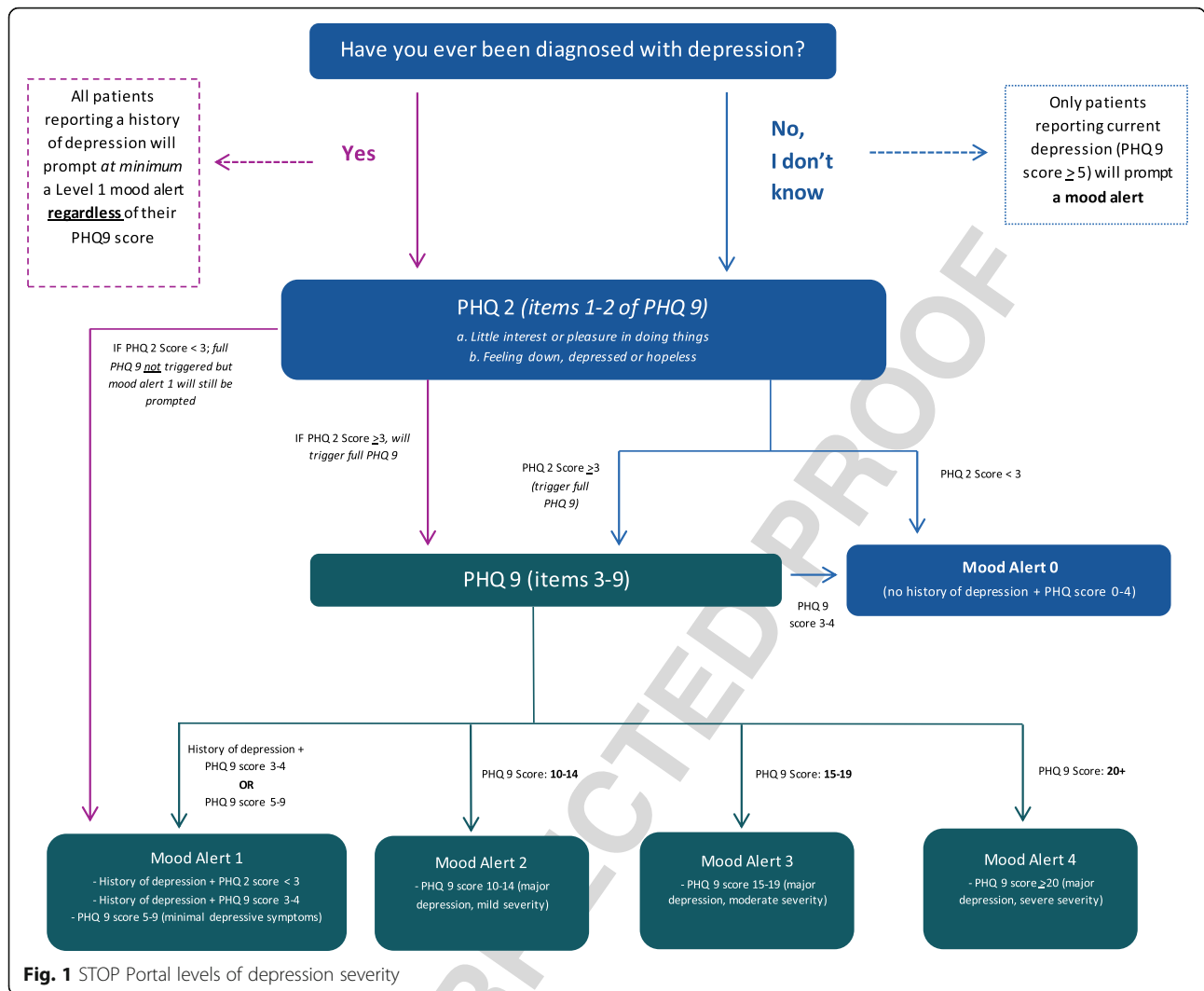


Fig. 1 STOP Portal levels of depression severity

Q12
TT.2

326 patients. The intervention included a tailored brief intervention, based on the patient’s level of depression severity and Canadian Network for Mood and Anxiety Treatments guidelines [43], and a self-help educational resource on mood management and smoking cessation (Additional file 3). The latter was adapted from the work of Munoz and colleagues [44]. The computerised alerts and online enrollment surveys were the same for patients in either intervention arm.

335 **Treatment arms**

336 The lead STOP programme implementer at each FHT allocated to group A received personalised phone and email-based support from the rKB, in order to help 338 HCPs build capacity and encourage implementation of the mood management intervention. This was conceptualised under the support system of the ISF. Within 340 group B, lead STOP programme implementers at each

FHT received a generalised monthly email containing 343 a PDF resource with information on treating smokers with mood disorders, which were part of the ISF synthesis 344 system. Topics included how to provide a brief mood intervention, working with patients with comorbid 345 conditions and managing suicidal ideation (see Additional file 4 for the first generalised email 346 we sent out). Some FHTs operated multiple clinics; in these cases, the lead implementer at each clinic 347 received the intervention. 348

The rKB held a Master’s of Science specialising in 353 research and had prior experience working in an addictions and mental health setting. The frequency of communication between each FHT and the rKB, and the content discussed, depended on the individual needs of 354 each clinic/lead implementer. For more information describing the role of the rKB implemented in this study, please refer to our manuscript [45]. 355 356 357 358 359 360

361 Outcomes

362 The study had three outcomes. The primary outcome
363 was acceptance of the mood management resource by
364 eligible patients. This dichotomous outcome was col-
365 lected via the STOP online portal and measured as posi-
366 tive if the HCP responded “Patient accepted the
367 resource” to the question “Did the patient accept or de-
368 cline the mood resource?” If the HCP indicated that the
369 “Patient declined the resource” or the HCP responded
370 “No” to the automated prompt, “Please provide this pa-
371 tient with a resource on mood management”, the pri-
372 mary outcome was negative, and interpreted as “patient
373 did not accept a mood management resource”. In 18
374 cases ($n = 8$ in group A and $n = 10$ in group B), either
375 the online portal failed to activate the mood intervention
376 pathway despite the patient being eligible for a mood re-
377 source or the system failed to record the HCPs’ response
378 to the mood management resource provision or patient
379 acceptance questions. In those cases, the primary out-
380 come was coded as negative.

381 The secondary outcome was patient smoking abstinence
382 at 6-month follow-up. Six months after enrollment into
383 the STOP programme, patients were asked to complete a
384 follow-up survey regarding their smoking status, which
385 was administered via phone by trained study staff, via
386 email using a survey link, or by HCPs during a visit to the
387 FHT. Patients had one month from their 6-month enroll-
388 ment anniversary before the survey expired. Abstinence
389 from smoking was defined as a negative response to the
390 seven-day point prevalence question, “Have you had a
391 cigarette, even a puff, in the last 7 days?” Using a seven-
392 day window to calculate point prevalence abstinence from
393 smoking is the most common time frame researchers’ use
394 [46]. In addition, the validity of self-reported abstinence
395 from smoking has been shown to be a good estimate of
396 smoking status [47].

397 The tertiary outcome was the costs of delivering each
398 intervention arm, which, together with the effectiveness
399 outcomes, were used to undertake an economic evalua-
400 tion. In turn, the objective of the economic evaluation
401 was to undertake a comparative assessment of the asso-
402 ciated costs and benefits related to delivering each inter-
403 vention arm (i.e. the tailored rKB arm and the generic
404 email arm).

405 Sample size

406 Previous STOP programme enrollment was used to
407 predict eligible FHTs and expected clinic enrollment to
408 perform randomisation allocation. The study was pow-
409 ered to detect an absolute risk difference of 0.06 with
410 alpha = 0.05 and power = 0.80. Sample size calculations
411 took into account the intra-cluster correlation (ICC)
412 within FHT clinics and variation in FHT sizes [48]. Pre-
413 vious work with HCPs being prompted to deliver a self-

help resource using the STOP portal provided an ex- 414
pected ICC of $\rho = 0.032$, an average annual enrollment 415
of 24 patients per clinic, and cluster size coefficient of 416
variation (CV) of 1.24 [49]. This yielded a sample size es- 417
timate of 2448 patients (1224 per arm). 418

Statistical analysis 419

Descriptive statistics were generated for patient and 420
FHT clinic level characteristics for each of the two treat- 421
ment arms. Patient characteristics were measured at en- 422
rollment, while FHT level characteristics were obtained 423
from STOP programme administrative data. Generalised 424
estimating equations (GEE) using a population-averaged 425
method, with an exchangeable correlation matrix and 426
robust standard errors, were used to examine the associ- 427
ation between treatment groups on the primary and 428
secondary outcomes and to account for clustering. The 429
study design stratification variables (organisational readi- 430
ness and size) were included as covariates in the model. 431
Other covariates were: age, gender, employment status, 432
education level, household income, smoking status, 433
willingness to quit smoking in the next 30 days, self- 434
reported First Nations, Inuit or Métis (FNIM) status, 435
past year alcohol use, past 30-day marijuana use, past 436
30-day opioid use, total PHQ score (the sum of com- 437
pleted items) and self-reported lifetime history of de- 438
pression, anxiety, schizophrenia, bipolar disorder, 439
substance use disorder, alcohol use disorder and prob- 440
lem gambling. The same set of covariates was used for 441
both the primary and secondary outcome models. All 442
covariates are measures of constructs specified in the 443
study protocol, with the exceptions of problem gambling 444
and FNIM status. Problem gambling was added in order 445
to more completely capture psychiatric morbidity, and 446
FNIM status because of the unique health challenges 447
faced by this population [50]. 448

The study protocol specified a sensitivity analysis to 449
determine whether multiple imputation should be per- 450
formed. However, due to the amount of missing data for 451
some baseline covariates (Table 1), multiple imputation 452
was used, without a previous sensitivity analysis, for both 453
models [51]. 454

The missingness models included all the variables 455
from the main analyses, as well as the number of clinical 456
visits within the first 6 months of enrollment, the total 457
amount of NRT supplied at these visits (in weeks), aver- 458
age cigarettes smoked per day at baseline, time to first 459
cigarette after waking (within 5 min, 6–30 min, 31–60 460
min, more than 60 min), number of past lifetime quit at- 461
tempts (0, 1–5, 6–10, 11+) and smoking status at other 462
programme follow-ups and clinical assessments not in- 463
cluded in the present study (follow-ups at 3 months and 464
12 months post-enrollment, and whether abstinence was 465
recorded at any clinical visit). A single missing value for 466

Q4 1.1 **Table 1** Baseline patient and FHT characteristics for main analytic sample ($n = 2763$)

	Group A (knowledge broker)	Group B (monthly emails)	Total missing
t1.2			
t1.3	Patient level	$n = 1486$	$n = 1277$
t1.4	Age in years (mean, SD)	51.1 (13.5)	50.4 (13.7)
t1.5	Male	580 (39)	473 (37)
t1.6	First Nations, Inuit or Métis	70 (5)	116 (9)
t1.7	Graduated high school	722 (50)	564 (49)
t1.8	Currently employed	533 (36)	483 (38)
t1.9	Household income above 40k	309 (37)	277 (40)
t1.10	Daily smoker	1398 (94)	1191 (93)
t1.11	Willing to set a quit date in next 30 days	1073 (84)	851 (80)
t1.12	PHQ9 (mean, SD)	4.9 (7.0)	4.2 (6.7)
t1.13	Consumed alcohol in past year	976 (66)	823 (65)
t1.14	Marijuana use in past 30 days	520 (35)	443 (35)
t1.15	Opioid use in past 30 days	376 (26)	305 (24)
t1.16	Lifetime history of depression ^a	1396 (94)	1205 (95)
t1.17	Lifetime history of anxiety ^a	1038 (71)	873 (69)
t1.18	Lifetime history of schizophrenia ^a	47 (3)	35 (3)
t1.19	Lifetime history of bipolar disorder ^a	140 (10)	99 (8)
t1.20	Lifetime history of substance use disorder ^a	187 (13)	112 (9)
t1.21	Lifetime history of alcohol use disorder ^a	192 (13)	138 (11)
t1.22	Lifetime history of problem gambling ^a	36 (2)	26 (2)
t1.23	Cluster (FHT) level	($n = 58$)	($n = 53$)
t1.24	Patient Participants per cluster (mean, sd)	25.6 (36.9)	24.1 (18.2)
t1.25	Year clinic enrolled first patient in the STOP programme		
t1.26	2011	36 (62)	29 (55)
t1.27	2012	11 (19)	10 (19)
t1.28	2013	4 (7)	3 (6)
t1.29	2014	5 (9)	3 (6)
t1.30	2015	2 (3)	5 (9)
t1.31	2016	0 (0)	3 (6)
t1.32	2017	0 (0)	0 (0)
t1.33	2018	0 (0)	0 (0)
t1.34	Local Health Integration Networks ^b (health regions in Ontario)		
t1.35	Central	2 (3)	5 (9)
t1.36	Central East	5 (9)	3 (6)
t1.37	Central West	2 (3)	1 (2)
t1.38	Champlain	6 (10)	5 (9)
t1.39	Erie-St.Clair	6 (10)	4 (8)
t1.40	Hamilton Niagara Haldimand Brant	3 (5)	5 (9)
t1.41	Mississauga Halton	3 (5)	0 (0)
t1.42	North East	6 (10)	10 (19)
t1.43	North Simcoe Muskoka	1 (2)	3 (6)
t1.44	North West	4 (7)	5 (9)
t1.45	South East	7 (12)	3 (6)
t1.46	South West	7 (12)	3 (6)
t1.47	Toronto Central	1 (2)	3 (6)
t1.48	Waterloo Wellington	5 (9)	3 (6)

t1.49 Values are numbers (percentages of non-missing) unless stated otherwise. SD standard deviation

t1.50 ^aSelf-reported lifetime history of past diagnosis

t1.51 ^bLocal Health Integration Networks (LHINs) are agencies established by the Government of Ontario to plan, coordinate, integrate and fund health services at a local level.

t1.52 They represent health regions across the province. A total of fourteen LHINs have been established across Ontario

467 the smoking status variable was also set to “daily” (the
468 value in 94% of cases) to ensure convergence of some
469 missingness models. Using Stata 16’s MI procedures, 20
470 imputed datasets were generated, the substantive models
471 were fit using each and results combined using Rubin’s
472 rules. All analyses were conducted using Stata v14 and
473 v16 [52].

474 **Economic evaluation**

475 A comparative assessment of the associated costs and
476 benefits (as defined by outcomes 1 and 2) related to de-
477 livering each arm of the intervention was conducted via
478 an economic evaluation from the perspective of the pub-
479 lic third party payer (i.e. the Ontario healthcare system),
480 in line with the guidelines of the Canadian Agency for
481 Drugs and Technologies in Health [53]. We accounted
482 for all relevant costs associated with delivering each arm
483 of the trial. Intervention costs included the costs of de-
484 veloping, maintaining and running each arm, costs of
485 personnel and training and costs of supplies and ser-
486 vices, among other things. We used the average hourly
487 wage rate (including benefits) for each staff member in-
488 volved to obtain the cost of their time allocated to the
489 intervention. Other costs, such as costs of supplies and
490 services related to the delivery of the intervention (tele-
491 communications, printing, etc.), were obtained from in-
492 stitutional expense records. All costs were expressed in
493 2018 Canadian dollars.

494 **Ethics approval**

495 This study was approved by the Research Ethics Board
496 at the Centre for Addiction and Mental Health (protocol
497 number 065-2016) as well as registered on [ClinicalTrials.gov](https://www.clinicaltrials.gov)
498 (ID: NCT03130998).

499 **Results**

500 **Pre-intervention-readiness survey**

501 The readiness survey was shared with all FHTs who
502 were actively participating in the STOP programme and
503 had a lead implementer in place at the time the survey
504 was sent out ($n = 125$). Eighty-four FHTs completed the
505 readiness survey (67% response rate). Results showed
506 that 68% of providers were motivated to implement a
507 mood management intervention as part of smoking ces-
508 sation programming in their FHT clinic (score of 5 or
509 higher; mean 5.38, SD 1.81); 63% reported their organ-
510 isation had the general capacity to implement a mood
511 management intervention (mean 5.28, SD 1.67); but only
512 31% believed that their organisation had the specific ca-
513 pacity to do so (mean 3.85; SD 1.96).

514 FHTs were grouped into two categories: most ready
515 (high readiness; $n = 44$), and least ready (low readiness;
516 $n = 40$). Given that responding to the readiness survey
517 was not an eligibility criteria for participation in the trial,

FHTs who were eligible to participate in this trial but
518 did not answer the questionnaire ($n = 39$) were classified
519 together in a group labeled “unknown readiness”. 520

521 **Intervention**

522 At the time of randomisation, 153 FHTs were participat-
523 ing in the STOP programme and assessed for eligibility
524 (28 of these FHTs had not been shared the readiness
525 survey since they did not have an active STOP imple-
526 menter at the time or joined the STOP programme after
527 the survey was sent out). These clinics had enrolled at
528 least one patient, in English, with valid consent, during
529 the pre-study period. Additional eligibility criteria were
530 applied to this sample, including the clinic being oper-
531 ational at the time of randomisation, and using the
532 STOP portal during the pre-study period and enrolling
533 at least one patient with depressive symptoms. This re-
534 sulted in 123 FHTs being randomised into the trial.
535 Sixty-two FHTs were randomised to group A (rKB) and
536 61 FHTs were randomised to group B (generalised
537 emails). Fifty-eight FHTs from group A and 53 FHTs
538 from group B enrolled at least one eligible patient into
539 the study. Figure 2 shows our CONSORT flow diagram,
540 including the number of FHTs enrolled, allocated to
541 each intervention and included in our primary and sec-
542 ondary data analyses. Table 1 shows the number and
543 types of practices who were enrolled, allocated and an-
544 alysed in the study. The study sample included 2763 eli-
545 gible patients; $n = 1486$ from group A and $n = 1277$
546 from group B. The observed ICC was $\rho = 0.14$, and the
547 average enrollment was 25 patients per clinic across 111
548 FHTs.

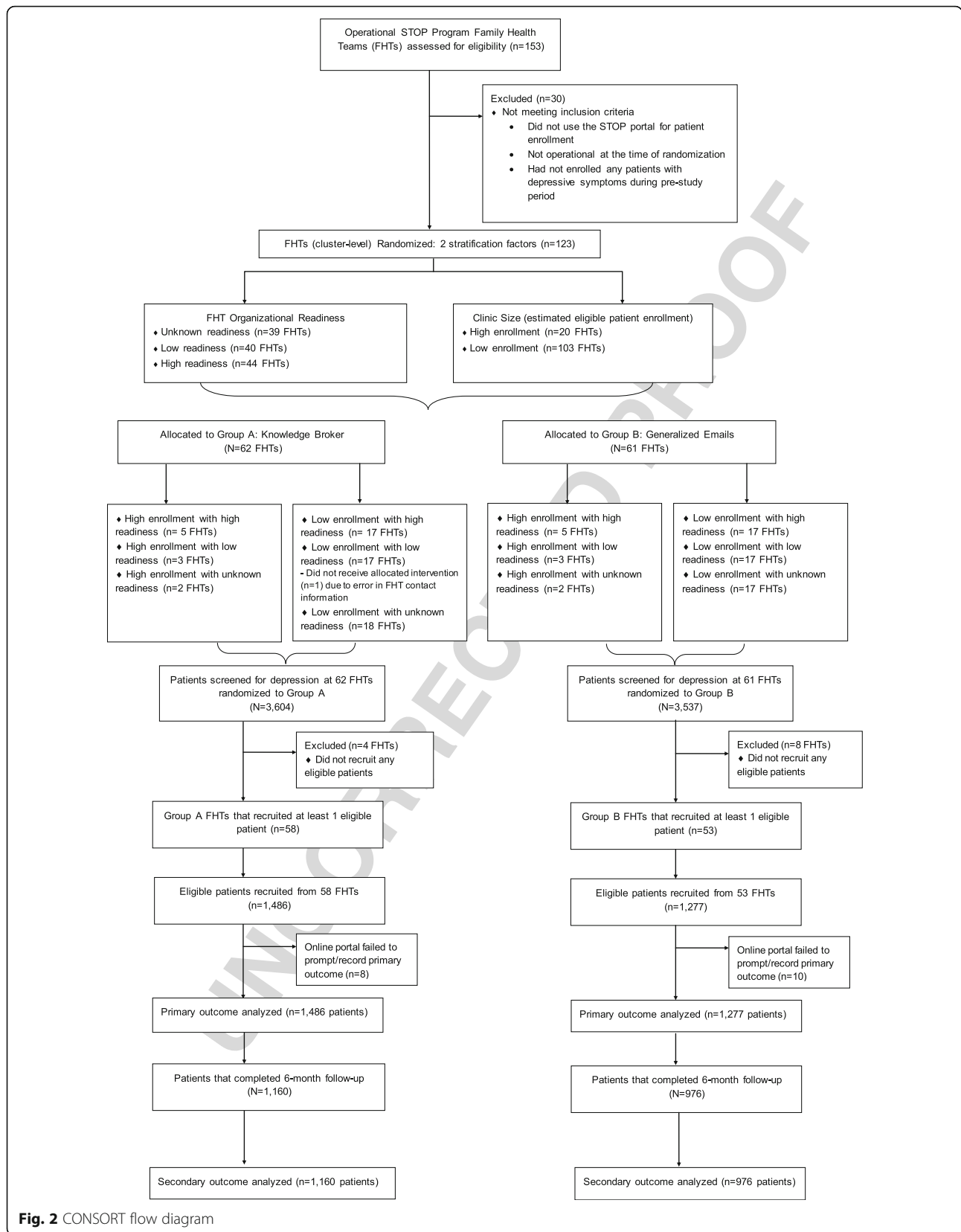
549 There were minor differences in self-identification as
550 First Nations, Inuit or Métis, high school completion,
551 willingness to set a quit date in the next 30 days, and
552 lifetime history of substance use disorder. There were
553 few notable differences between FHTs, with the excep-
554 tion of FHTs in group A having started implementing
555 the STOP programme slightly earlier and having less
556 representation from the northern areas of Ontario. The
557 FHT characteristic and the patient demographics, sepa-
558 rated by treatment group, are presented in Table 1.

559 Between February 2018 and January 2019, 7175 pa-
560 tients were screened for depression and 2765 (39%) re-
561 ported current and/or past depression. The primary
562 outcome is presented in Table 2. Overall, 29% (437/
563 1486) and 27% (345/1277) of patients accepted the mood
564 management resource in group A and group B, respec-
565 tively. The adjusted GEE showed that there was no sig-
566 nificant difference between the two treatment groups in
567 the odds of eligible patients receiving the mood manage-
568 ment resource.

569 The secondary outcome is also presented in Table 2.
570 The rate of response to the 6-month follow-up survey

F2

T2



f2.1
f2.2

Fig. 2 CONSORT flow diagram

571 was 77% (2136/2763 eligible patients completed the
 572 survey between August 2018 and August 2019). The
 573 remaining participants did not respond to repeated
 574 contact attempts by email and phone. The response rate
 575 was similar in both groups (group A, 1160/1486, 78.1%;
 576 group B, 972/1277, 76.1%; $\chi^2 = 1.48, p=0.22$). The crude
 577 quit rate from smoking cigarettes at follow-up was
 578 29.7% (345/1160 patients) in group A and 28.5% (279/
 579 976 patients) in group B. Twenty-three percent of pa-
 580 tients did not complete the 6-month follow-up survey
 581 and were therefore missing the secondary outcome.
 582 After MI, these proportions were 27.8% (95% CI = 25.4–
 583 30.2%) in group A and 27.5% (95% CI = 24.8–30.3%) in
 584 group B. The adjusted GEE showed that there was no
 585 significant difference between the treatment groups in
 586 the patients’ odds of smoking abstinence at follow-up.

587 Finally, the tertiary outcome, which was used in the
 T3 588 economic evaluation, is presented in Table 3. Given that
 589 there was no difference in outcomes between arms,
 590 undertaking a cost-effectiveness analysis was no longer
 591 feasible. Instead, we conducted a cost-minimisation
 592 analysis, which compares the costs between two inter-
 593 ventions with equivalent outcomes. The costs of deliver-
 594 ing the tailored rKB (group A) and the generalised email
 595 (group B) arms were categorised into costs, which were
 596 specific to each arm and those common to both arms.
 597 The costs of delivering the tailored rKB included train-
 598 ing the rKB, preparing study instruments, communicat-
 599 ing with HCPs of each clinic and preparing FHT-specific
 600 data to share with HCPs (\$11,839.81), while the costs of
 601 delivering the generalised emails included costs with the
 602 preparation of resources, communicating with FHTs and
 603 training research staff and students (\$10,611.17). Costs
 604 common to both arms (\$25,744.25) included costs asso-
 605 ciated with meetings with co-investigators and vendors
 606 to discuss the study design and implementation; devel-
 607 oping study instruments for data collection, analysis and
 608 evaluation of outcomes; preparing screening tools and
 609 treatment guidelines associated with delivering mood in-
 610 terventions; disseminating an online webinar to FHTs to

increase their capacity in delivering the intervention; 611
 communications to funders, stakeholders and study 612
 participants; and developing and analysing a readiness 613
 survey distributed to FHTs before and after the initiative 614
 to assess the organisational readiness to implement the 615
 mood intervention in practice. Overall, our analysis 616
 suggests that the generalised email arm is the cost- 617
 minimizing arm, costing \$1228.65 less than the tailored 618
 rKB arm (Table 3). 619

For the cost-minimisation analysis, we conducted a 620
 sensitivity analysis that included the costs we encoun- 621
 tered in the study that are not necessarily required to 622
 implement the intervention, but that may be under- 623
 taken if additional work is required to tailor the inter- 624
 vention in other settings or jurisdictions. Specifically, 625
 in this sensitivity analysis, we included the costs asso- 626
 ciated with: 627

1. The development of the study’s protocol which 628
 required undertaking literature reviews to 629
 determine the best available evidence in the field 630
 and conducting a readiness survey to assess FHTs’ 631
 readiness to adopt a mood management 632
 intervention as part of the STOP programme. 633
2. The development of a suicide risk assessment 634
 protocol for non-clinical research staff, which was 635
 implemented 6 months after the initiation of the 636
 trial to examine long-term changes in depression 637
 severity (measured via PHQ-9 score) among pa- 638
 tients enrolled in the STOP programme. Thus, we 639
 also included the cost associated with undertaking 640
 literature reviews as well as the cost of implement- 641
 ing the suicidal ideation protocol in a sensitivity 642
 analysis. 643

Discussion 644

For this study, we tested a mid-range theory, where we 645
 hypothesised that a more intense and personalised inter- 646
 vention (rKB) would be more effective at enabling HCPs 647
 to provide their patients with mood management 648

t2.1 **Table 2** Adjusted odds ratio and 95% confidence intervals for the primary and secondary outcomes

t2.2	Outcomes ^a	No. (%) in group A (knowledge broker)	No. (%) in group B (monthly emails)	Intra-cluster correlation coefficient ^b	Adjusted odds ratio ^c (95% CI)	P value
t2.3	Primary: Patient accepted the mood	437/1486 (29)	345/1277 (27)	0.141	0.93 (0.60, 1.43)	0.73
t2.4	resource at enrollment (n = 2763)					
t2.5	Secondary: Patient quit smoking at 6-	345/1160 (30)	279/976 (29)	0.010	1.11 (0.91, 1.35)	0.32
t2.6	month follow-up (n = 2136)					

t2.7 ^aThe primary outcome was derived from healthcare providers’ response to the online STOP portal prompt at patient enrollment. The secondary outcome was
 t2.8 measured at patients’ 6-month follow-up. The secondary outcome model was limited to patients who responded to the 6-month outcome survey

t2.9 ^bBased on unadjusted models

t2.10 ^cBoth models were adjusted for study stratification variables (organisational readiness and size) and the following patient-level variables measured at enrollment:
 t2.11 age; gender; self-reported First Nations, Inuit or Métis status; employment status; education level; household income; smoking status; willingness to quit smoking
 t2.12 in the next 30 days; past year alcohol use; past 30-day marijuana use; past 30-day opioid use; sum PHQ-9 score and self-reported lifetime history of depression,
 t2.13 anxiety, schizophrenia, bipolar disorder, substance use disorder, alcohol use disorder and problem gambling

t3.1 **Table 3** Cost minimisation analysis

t3.2		Generic email arm ^a (A)	Tailored rKB arm ^b (B)	Both arms (C)	Generic email arm total (A) + (C)	Tailored rKB arm total (B) + (C)	Difference [(B) + (C)] – [(A) + (C)]
t3.3	Intervention costs ^c	10,611.17	11,839.81 ^d	25,744.25 ^e	36,355.42	37,584.06	1228.65
t3.4	Literature review and	–	–	5779.33	5779.33	5779.33	0
t3.5	intervention preparation costs						
t3.6	Suicidal ideation protocol costs	–	–	3953.87	3953.87	3953.87	0
t3.7	Total costs	10,611.17	11,839.81	35,477.45	46,088.62	47,317.26	1228.65

t3.8 ^aParticipants in the generic email arm received monthly messages (related to smoking and depression) exclusively via emailt3.9 ^bParticipants in the rKB arm received personalised support through phone and email-based check-inst3.10 ^cIntervention costs for the generic emails arm included costs with the preparation of resources, communicating with FHTs and training research staff and students; Intervention costs for the Tailored rKB arm included training the rKB, preparing study instruments, communicating with HCPs of each clinic and preparing FHT-specific data to share with HCPst3.11 ^dThis value includes delivery-related costs (not intervention costs) of the tailored remote knowledge broker arm (11,819.81) and the cost of telecommunications (emails, phone calls) (20.00)t3.12 ^eThis value includes the cost of delivering both arms (22,167.25), the cost of running two webinars (1650.00) and the cost of mailing materials to participating Family Health Teams (1927.00)

Q5] t3.16

649 resources when needed, and ultimately help more
 650 smokers quit smoking, compared with a more passive
 651 intervention (generic monthly emails). The results of this
 652 adequately powered study show that our mid-range the-
 653 ory was not supported; we failed to detect a statistically
 654 significant difference between a personalised rKB and a
 655 generic email-based intervention at facilitating the deliv-
 656 ery of a mood management intervention into an existing
 657 smoking cessation programme within primary care set-
 658 tings (namely FHTs). The results of this trial also failed
 659 to detect a significant difference between a personalised
 660 rKB and a generic email-based intervention on patient
 661 smoking cessation at 6-month follow-up. The cost mini-
 662 misation analysis showed that an email intervention is
 663 less costly of these two KT strategies. These results need
 664 to be understood within the context in which they took
 665 place. Prior to implementing the mood management
 666 intervention, the STOP programme already had a strong
 667 infrastructure that incorporated many virtual KT com-
 668 ponents, including online continuing education courses
 669 available through the Training Enhancement in Applied
 670 Counselling and Health (TEACH) Project [36], an active
 671 Listserv, and a CoP with bimonthly meetings for HCPs
 672 to learn and exchange new information related to to-
 673 bacco addiction treatment. These strategies are well
 674 known to improve knowledge and clinical practice be-
 675 haviours [54] as they allow HCPs to mutually engage in
 676 processes such as *de-centralised decision-making* and
 677 *thinking together* [55]. In addition to the existing KT in-
 678 frastructure, for this trial, we also offered two webinars
 679 to train HCPs and embedded a computer decision sup-
 680 port system to guide all HCPs with delivering a mood
 681 management intervention to patients with current and
 682 past mood disorders. Although the rKB offered both
 683 knowledge and tailored support beyond that of a CoP, it
 684 is possible that the existing KT resources available to
 685 STOP implementers, including the integration of a

686 decision support system, were already providing some of
 687 the benefits of a KB. Thus the addition of the rKB may
 688 have led to an oversaturation of information for HCPs
 689 [56], hence revealing no statistically significant differ-
 690 ence. Therefore, in settings where there is a strong KT
 691 infrastructure the added cost of a rKB might not be jus-
 692 tified. In this study, less than 30% of patients who could
 693 benefit from a mood management intervention received
 694 it, highlighting the need for effective implementation
 695 strategies and a theoretical understanding of how to in-
 696 crease the adoption of a mood management interven-
 697 tion. Given that our pre-implementation results, which
 698 were based on Scaccia et al.'s $R = MC^2$ theory [57],
 699 showed that most HCPs were motivated to implement a
 700 mood management intervention but needed help with
 701 specific capacity, we might want to explore cognitive
 702 theories that can influence the adoption of EBPs. One
 703 psychological theory that could be explored further is
 704 the parallel dual processing models of reasoning [58, 59]
 705 which suggests that two cognitive modes of information
 706 processing are in constant operation as humans reason;
 707 one is a fast, experiential mode and the other one is a ra-
 708 tional conscious mode [58, 59]. The rKB and emails may
 709 have influenced the more rational, conscious mode, but
 710 offered little for the experiential mode. Finding imple-
 711 mentation strategies that influence both might be an im-
 712 portant way to facilitate the uptake of evidence into
 713 practice.

714 Our results differ from previous studies, which found
 715 that KBs were effective at enhancing HCP capacity [60]
 716 and improving practice change, compared with the pas-
 717 sive dissemination of hardcopy and electronic instruc-
 718 tions [61], and were also successful in facilitating the
 719 implementation of EBPs [62]. However, these studies
 720 were based on face-to-face meetings with stakeholders
 721 [60–62], rather than remote methods of communication
 722 reported in our study. This lack of in-person meetings

723 may have, in part, contributed to the differences ob-
724 served from earlier research. Previous authors explor-
725 ing technology-based KT strategies in healthcare have
726 reported challenges, including lack of engagement and
727 low prioritisation by end users [18, 20, 22, 63]. It is
728 possible that the success of KB interventions, beyond
729 that of email-based interventions, require at least an
730 initial face-to-face interaction in order to establish a
731 meaningful connection and thoroughly explain the
732 initiative, before shifting to remote methods of
733 brokering [20].

734 Despite this notion, findings from our trial are com-
735 parable with results from an RCT conducted by Dobbins
736 et al., who found that an in-person KB was not more ef-
737 fective than tailored messaging, for promoting evidence-
738 informed decision-making in public health [64]. Similar
739 to the authors' remarks, we consider that KB success
740 may be influenced by the prioritisation of research evi-
741 dence within an organisation, whereby stakeholders with
742 low perceived research culture and priorities may benefit
743 from a KB more than those with high research culture
744 [64]. We also consider that within the context of FHTs
745 delivering smoking cessation treatment, simple KT inter-
746 ventions may be just as effective as more complex, mul-
747 ticomponent KT strategies [64, 65]. Although the email
748 intervention (group B) was generalised across FHTs, and
749 less personalised than the rKB, both strategies contained
750 relevant and accessible information for the HCP, which
751 are important for facilitating practice change [64]. Given
752 that many clinicians working in primary care are often
753 faced with competing priorities and limited time, the
754 monthly email resources may have provided just the
755 right amount of digestible information, which HCPs
756 could review on their own time, rather than having to
757 dedicate time toward formal phone check-ins with the
758 rKB. In addition, more in-depth tools and resources
759 shared by the rKB may have been too rigorous for HCPs
760 working within an interdisciplinary environment,
761 whereby more intensive interventions would be offered
762 by mental health specialists.

763 The evidence we provided related to costs and out-
764 comes associated with mood management interventions
765 within smoking cessation programming demonstrates
766 that the generalised email arm is the cost-minimizing
767 arm compared with the tailored rKB arm. Given that
768 once email content is prepared there are no costs of
769 scaling it up, whereas offering support from a rKB does
770 incur more costs as additional clinics are included,
771 implementing an email-based KT intervention may be
772 more feasible to integrate within interdisciplinary pri-
773 mary care organisations. This result might inform future
774 policy decisions regarding the cost-effectiveness of mood
775 management interventions within single-payer health-
776 care systems.

Strengths and limitations

777 One of the main strengths of our trial was the pragmatic
778 design testing the real-world effectiveness of the rKB
779 intervention, and the large sample size utilised, which in-
780 cluded 123 FHTs across Ontario and 2763 patients.
781 Conducting an implementation readiness assessment
782 also allowed us to tailor our KT materials (webinars,
783 emails and rKB) to the needs of HCPs in order to in-
784 crease uptake in both groups. In addition, by stratifying
785 FHTs based on implementation readiness, we were able
786 to account for the differences in organisational readiness
787 between both groups.
788

789 A limitation to our study design was the lack of a con-
790 trol arm (i.e. no intervention at all), which would have
791 provided an additional comparison to assess the effect-
792 iveness of both the rKB and the general emails for pro-
793 viding implementation support to HCPs. However, this
794 was not the planned purpose of the trial and would have
795 required a larger sample size. In addition, given the evi-
796 dence supporting the integration of mood interventions
797 within smoking cessation programming [25], and results
798 from our readiness survey, where only 31% of HCPs re-
799 ported having the specific capacity to implement mood
800 management treatment, we felt it was important to pro-
801 vide all FHTs with some form of intervention support,
802 varying in intensity, rather than no intervention at all.
803 Finally, few programmes would introduce an automated
804 treatment pathway with no support or training whatso-
805 ever, and including this as the control condition might
806 therefore provide a somewhat artificial comparison.

807 A second limitation was that our primary outcome
808 measure did not provide a full picture of how the rKB
809 versus the generalised emails may have impacted HCP
810 decision-making over the intervention period. For in-
811 stance, the rKB may have improved HCPs' knowledge
812 and skills in delivering mood interventions within smok-
813 ing cessation treatment and influenced the implementa-
814 tion of FHT policies related to mood management.
815 However, while these are important outcomes, in order
816 for the mood management intervention to work, smok-
817 ers with current or past depression must *accept* the
818 intervention; thus, we chose this as our primary
819 outcome.

820 Although HCPs were assigned to two different treat-
821 ment groups, we did not account for whether HCPs in
822 group A were reached by the rKB and did not ascertain
823 whether HCPs in group B actually read their monthly
824 emails. However, given that the purpose of this study
825 was to implement and examine mood management
826 interventions in a real-life pragmatic treatment
827 programme, our outcomes are likely more generalizable
828 to real-world treatment settings where HCPs may be
829 busy and not necessarily responsive to the communica-
830 tions they receive. Our secondary outcome was also not

831 available for the 23% of patients who did not complete a
 832 6-month follow-up. Another limitation is that patients
 833 who completed their baseline enrollment on paper, or in
 834 French, were excluded from the trial. Although there is
 835 no reason to think that their response to the interven-
 836 tion would have differed from those of included patients,
 837 their removal reduces the representativeness of the final
 838 sample. There is also the possibility of contamination of
 839 knowledge; HCPs working in FHTs assigned to group A
 840 might share some of the KB insights with HCPs from
 841 group B, and similarly, HCPs from group B might for-
 842 ward emails with HCPs working in FHTs assigned to
 843 group A. This contamination could have potentially
 844 compromised the effect of the trial, leading to a more
 845 conservative reporting estimate of the study's overall ef-
 846 fect. To our knowledge, however, as detected during a
 847 rKB phone call, only one HCP was exposed to both arms
 848 of the trial, that is they were employed at both a FHT
 849 assigned to group A and a FHT assigned to group B.
 850 Further, the occurrence of HCPs concurrently working
 851 at two STOP FHTs is low, and unlikely to have an im-
 852 pact on our results.

853 **Conclusions**

854 This large study contributes to the implementation sci-
 855 ence literature by empirically testing a mid-range imple-
 856 mentation theory (that active implementation strategies
 857 are more effective than passive ones) and showing that
 858 in the particular context it was tested, this theory was in-
 859 accurate. In addition, the results of this study show that
 860 the passive strategy is less costly to implement and sus-
 861 tain over the long term. More research is needed to
 862 examine if which contexts (e.g. sites without an existing
 863 KT infrastructure) active implementation strategies are
 864 more effective than passive ones. The study also pro-
 865 vides a real-world example of how the Interactive Sys-
 866 tems Framework for Dissemination and Implementation
 867 can be used in practice to guide implementation.

868 Future research could examine if dosage, number of
 869 interactions and /or total time spent, between the rKB
 870 and HCPs was a contributing factor in the success of the
 871 intervention. Patient involvement in requesting the
 872 intervention should also be studied to increase the over-
 873 all implementation of this evidence-based practice in
 874 primary care settings. Finally, future work will also
 875 examine if HCPs continue to offer the mood interven-
 876 tion to patients despite the cessation of the rKB and the
 877 emails.

878 **Supplementary Information**

879 The online version contains supplementary material available at <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13012-021-01091-6>.

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883
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Additional file 1. TIDieR checklist.

Additional file 2. CONSORT checklist.

Additional file 3 Mood Management Resource – *Self-awareness: managing your mood*. Description of data: A self-management resource offered to patients as part of the mood management intervention.

Additional file 4. Sample of generalized monthly email. Description of data: Sample of the first generalized monthly email that was sent to the lead implementer(s) at FHTs allocated to Group A.

Abbreviations

AFHTO: Association of Family Health Teams of Ontario; CAMH: Centre for Addiction and Mental Health; CIHR: Canadian Institute for Health Research; CoP: Community of Practice; EBP: Evidence-based practice; FHT: Family Health Team; GEE: Generalised estimating equations; HCP: Healthcare provider; KB: Knowledge broker; KT: Knowledge translation; NRT: Nicotine replacement therapy; PHQ-9: Patient Health Questionnaire; RCT: Randomised controlled trial; rKB: Remote knowledge broker; STOP: Smoking Treatment for Ontario Patients; TEACH: Training Enhancement in Applied Counselling and Health

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Authors' contributions

PS and NM conceptualised, designed and supervised the study. LZ, AR, CM and DB provided input on the study design. SA provided remote knowledge brokering services, developed study materials and collected and analysed data from Family Health Teams under the supervision of NM. AI, SV and DB analysed the primary and secondary outcome data. CO and CB conducted the cost-benefit analysis. NM, SA, AI, SV and CdO drafted the manuscript. All authors participated in the critical revision of the manuscript and read and approved the final manuscript.

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Availability of data and materials

The datasets generated and/or analysed during the current study are not publicly available due to the fact that they contain personal health information, but are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

Ethics approval and consent to participate

The study was reviewed by the research ethics board at the Centre for Addiction and Mental Health (approval number: 065/2016). Patient consent for participation in the STOP smoking cessation programme was obtained at the time of enrollment.

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests concerning this manuscript. However, some authors have general disclosures to report. PS reports receiving grants and /or research support from the Centre for Addiction and Mental Health, Health Canada, Ontario Ministry of Health and Long-term care (MOHLTC), Canadian Institutes of Health Research (CIHR), Canadian Centre on Substance Use and Addiction, Public Health Agency of Canada (PHAC), Ontario Lung Association, Medical Psychiatry Alliance,

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949 Extensions for Community Healthcare Outcomes, Canadian Cancer Society
 950 Research Institute (CCSRI), Cancer Care Ontario, Ontario Institute for Cancer
 951 Research, Ontario Brain Institute, McLaughlin Centre, Academic Health Sci-
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 956 Fund Inc., Patient-Centered Outcomes Research Institute, ABBVie and Bristol-
 957 Myers Squibb. Further, PS reports receiving consulting fees from Pfizer Inc./
 958 Canada, Evidera Inc., Johnson & Johnson Group of Companies, Medcan
 959 Clinic, Inflexion Inc., V-CC Systems Inc., MedPlan Communications, Kataka
 960 Medical Communications, Miller Medical Communications, Nvision Insight
 961 Group and Sun Life Financial. Through an open tender process, Johnson &
 962 Johnson, Novartis, and Pfizer Inc. are vendors of record for providing smok-
 963 ing cessation pharmacotherapy, free or discounted, for research studies in
 964 which PS is the principal investigator or co-investigator. NM and LZ reports
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