

NOVA University of Newcastle Research Online

nova.newcastle.edu.au

Morgan, Philip J.; Young, Myles D.; Barnes, Alyce T.; Eather, Narelle; Pollock, Emma R. & Lubans, David R. "Engaging fathers to increase physical activity in girls: the "Dads And Daughters Exercising and Empowered" (DADEE) randomized controlled trial" Published in the *Annals of Behavioral Medicine*, Vol. 53, Issue 1, pp. 39-52, (2019).

Available from: http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/abm/kay015

This is a pre-copyedited, author-produced version of an article accepted for publication in the Annals of Behavioral Medicine following peer review. The version of the above record is available online at: http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/abm/kay015.

Accessed from: http://hdl.handle.net/1959.13/1398770

1	Engaging Fathers to Increase Physical Activity in Girls: The 'Dads And Daughters
2	Exercising and Empowered' (DADEE) Randomized Controlled Trial
3	
4	Philip J. Morgan ^{a,b} , PhD, Myles D. Young ^{a,b} , PhD, Alyce T. Barnes ^{a,b} , PhD, Narelle Eather ^{a,b} ,
5	PhD, Emma R. Pollock ^{a,b} , BTeach/BHealth & PhysEd, & David, R. Lubans ^{a,b} , PhD.
6	
7	Affiliations: ^a Priority Research Centre for Physical Activity and Nutrition, University of
8	Newcastle, New South Wales, Australia; ^b Faculty of Education and Arts, University of
9	Newcastle, New South Wales, Australia.
10	
11	Address correspondence to: Philip J. Morgan, Priority Research Centre for Physical
12	Activity and Nutrition, University of Newcastle, University Drive, Callaghan NSW, 2308,
13	Australia. [philip.morgan@newcastle.edu.au], +612 49 217 265.
14	
15	Acknowledgements
16	This study was supported by project grants from Port Waratah Coal Services and the Hunter
17	Children's Research Foundation to the Hunter Medical Research Institute. The funding
18	bodies had no role in the design and conduct of the study; collection, management, analysis,
19	and interpretation of the data; preparation, review, or approval of the manuscript; and
20	decision to submit the manuscript for publication. We would like to thank all of the fathers
21	and daughters who contributed to this study. We would also like to thank University of
22	Newcastle undergraduate students Alice Ianni, Adrienne Bull, Angus Leahy, Jasmin
23	Courtenay, Joel Redman, Kirsten Murray, Kristen Pryor, Laura Harrison, Louisa Patel,
24	Melanie Maslin, Sarah Nieuwenhuise, Sophie Martin and Teliah Buckton for their valued
25	contributions to the study during data collection.

1

Abstract

2	Background: Existing strategies to increase girls' physical activity levels have seen limited
3	success. Fathers may influence their children's physical activity, but often spend more time
4	with their sons and rarely participate in family-based programs. Purpose: To test a novel
5	program designed to increase the physical activity levels of fathers and their daughters.
6	Methods: In a two-arm RCT, 115 fathers (29-53 years) and 153 daughters (4-12 years) were
7	randomized to: (i) the 'Dads And Daughters Exercising and Empowered' (DADEE) program,
8	or (ii) a wait-list control. Eligible fathers lived with their daughter(s) at least 3 days/week.
9	The 8-week program included weekly educational and practical sessions plus home tasks.
10	Assessments were at baseline, 2 months (post-intervention) and 9 months. The primary
11	outcomes were father-daughter physical activity levels (pedometry). Secondary outcomes
12	included screen-time, daughters' fundamental movement skills (FMS; perceived and
13	objective), and fathers' parenting practices. Results: Primary outcome data were obtained
14	from 88% of daughters and 90% of fathers at 9 months. Intention-to-treat analyses revealed
15	favorable group-by-time effects for physical activity in daughters ($P=0.02$, d=0.4) and fathers
16	(P < 0.001. d=0.7) at post-intervention, which were maintained at 9 months. At post-test and
17	follow-up, significant effects ($P < 0.05$) were also identified for daughters' FMS competence
18	(objective: d=1.1-1.2; perceived: d=0.4-0.6), a range of fathers' parenting practices (d=0.3-
19	0.8) and screen-time for fathers and daughters (d=0.4-0.8). Program satisfaction and
20	attendance were very high. Conclusions: This was the first physical activity initiative to
21	target fathers and daughters. The data supported the hypotheses and the feasibility and
22	efficacy of this approach were confirmed.

23

24 Australian New Zealand Clinical Trials Registry: ACTRN12615000022561

25 Keywords: Exercise, girls, men, fundamental movement skills, parenting, gender equity

1

Engaging Fathers to Increase Physical Activity in Girls: The 'Dads And Daughters

2 Exercising and Empowered' (DADEE) Randomized Controlled Trial 3 Participating in regular physical activity during childhood is vital for optimal growth 4 and development (1, 2). However, physical inactivity in children is a global public health 5 concern (3). Numerous studies have also highlighted that gender-prejudice negatively affects 6 girls' participation in sport and physical activity at home, at school and in the community (4, 7 5). As such, girls are less active than boys at all ages (6) and experience fewer opportunities 8 to develop physical confidence and competence (3, 7). Girls also have lower levels of cardio-9 respiratory fitness, hand-eye coordination and sports skills than their male peers (8, 9). By the 10 time girls enter secondary school, less than 10% can adequately perform key fundamental 11 movement skills (FMS, e.g., kicking, throwing, catching) (9) which are strongly associated 12 with lifelong physical activity (10).

13 Increasing girls' physical activity levels is a public health priority, though current 14 programs have seen limited success (11, 12). A recent review identified that most physical 15 activity intervention studies for children have tested school-based, mixed-sex programs over 16 a short timeframe and produced a small overall effect on girls' physical activity (11). 17 Although larger effects were observed in studies that targeted girls only (11), few have 18 implemented this strategy. Of studies that have targeted girls-only and included objective 19 measures, the evidence has been limited by poor study quality and low levels of participant 20 engagement, attendance and retention (12). Thus, innovative approaches are needed. 21 Targeting fathers to take an active role in increasing their daughters' physical activity

21 Furgeting futures to take an active fore in increasing their datginers' physical activity
22 levels may be one such innovation. Within families, fathers are often more likely than
23 mothers to initiate co-participation in physical activity with their children (13, 14). They are
24 also more likely to use play and physical activity as a bonding strategy from a very early age
25 (15) and display an interaction style characterised by vigorous, stimulating, risky and

1 competitive physical play (15). Fathers also tend to provide a better model of sports skill 2 performance, likely due to their increased opportunities and reinforcement to practice these 3 skills throughout life (3, 7, 8). For these reasons, co-participation in sport and physical 4 activity is recognized as a core context where fathers bond with their children (16). However, 5 research suggests that fathers are more likely to share physically active experiences with their 6 sons (13, 17), which reduces their daughters' opportunities for co-activity, sports skill 7 development and bonding. Of interest, qualitative research has shown that when fathers do 8 engage in co-physical activity with their young daughters, these experiences are often 9 cherished by both parties for life (18). As such, a clear rationale exists to target fathers as 10 agents-of-change to improve the physical activity levels of their daughters. 11 Despite their unique and important influence on children's health behaviors, a recent 12 review reported that fathers represent only 6% of parents in family-based interventions 13 targeting children's physical activity, diet and/or sedentary behaviors (19). This lack of 14 participation may be partially explained by the dearth of interventions specifically targeting 15 fathers, given many do not feel the need, or are uncomfortable, participating in programs predominantly attended by mothers (20, 21). Indeed, only one study has exclusively targeted 16 17 fathers (22, 23). This intervention targeted overweight fathers who participated with their 18 sons and/or daughters. In recognition of the under-representation of fathers in children's 19 health programs, the American Academy of Pediatrics have recently called for researchers to 20 increase the representation of fathers in future studies (24). Moreover, no previous 21 interventions have targeted fathers as agents of change to improve their daughters' physical 22 activity (19). Indeed, to the authors' knowledge, there have been no interventions specifically 23 targeting fathers and their daughters' in any field. 24 In the broader context where many men are insufficiently active (25) and the evidence

25 for strategies to improve men's physical activity is weak (26), targeting co-physical activity

1 in fathers and daughters may also improve the physical activity levels of fathers (27). 2 Although many men experience a sizeable decrease in physical activity during early 3 fatherhood (28) those who maintain positive physical activity habits report newfound 4 enjoyment from family-based physical activity and desire to be a positive role model (29). 5 The primary aim of this randomized clinical trial (RCT) was to evaluate a novel 6 program designed to improve the physical activity levels of fathers and their daughters. The 7 secondary aims were to examine the impact of the program on: i) daughters' FMS 8 competency, ii) fathers' and daughters' screen-time, and iii) fathers' physical activity 9 parenting practices. We hypothesized that: i) intervention fathers and ii) intervention 10 daughters would be significantly more active at post-test (2 months) and follow up (9 11 months) than their control group counterparts. 12 Methods **Study Design** 13 14 The study was a parallel-group, two-arm RCT conducted at the University of 15 Newcastle, Australia. In January 2015, family units were randomized in a 1:1 ratio to either: 16 (i) the 'Dads And Daughters Exercising and Empowered' (DADEE) intervention, or (ii) a 17 wait-list control group. The study received institutional ethics approval and was prospectively 18 registered with the Australian New Zealand Clinical Trials Registry 19 (ACTRN12615000022561). Written informed consent was obtained from all fathers prior to 20 enrollment. The conduct of the study aligned with the CONSORT recommendations (30). 21 **Participants** 22 Families were recruited from Newcastle in New South Wales, Australia over 11 23 weeks. The primary recruitment strategy was a University media release that was featured in 24 several local news outlets (television, radio, newspaper). Fathers (including step-fathers and 25 male guardians) could enroll with one or more daughters if they were aged 18-65 and passed

a pre-exercise screening questionnaire (or provided a doctor's clearance to participate).
Daughters were eligible to participate if they were currently attending primary school from
Kindergarten to Year 6 (i.e., aged 4-12 years). In this efficacy trial, fathers were also required
to live with their daughters for at least 3 days per week to ensure sufficient time to complete
the shared home tasks.

6 The DADEE Intervention

7 The DADEE program was designed to energise fathers to become physical activity 8 role models and advocates for their daughters, and vice-versa. The intervention components 9 (Table 1) and program content (Electronic Supplementary Material 1) were informed by an 10 extensive program of qualitative and quantitative research targeting fathers (e.g., (22, 23)) 11 and mothers (e.g., (31)) to increase children's physical activity. The program included eight 12 weekly sessions with educational and practical components. Sessions were delivered at the 13 University by members of the research team and families attended on one of two nights per 14 week. To increase family support, mothers and non-enrolled siblings were invited to one of 15 the eight sessions and were told they could review the program resources at home if they 16 were interested.

17 In addition to educating families about the importance of physical activity, the 18 program engaged fathers and daughters in fun, co-physical activities targeting rough and 19 tumble play, sports skills (i.e., FMS) and aerobic and muscular fitness. The education 20 sessions gave fathers and daughters the knowledge and skills required to recognise, navigate 21 and challenge the culture of gender prejudice that permeates all aspects of girls' lives, 22 particularly in relation to participation in physical activity and sport. Fathers were also taught 23 strategies to optimize their daughters' social-emotional wellbeing and improve the quality of 24 their relationship.

25

To increase participants' autonomous motivation and perceived capabilities for long-

1 term behaviour change, the program targeted the core constructs of Self-Determination 2 Theory (i.e., autonomy, competence, relatedness) (32) and Social Cognitive Theory (e.g., 3 self-efficacy, goals, social support) (33). For a summary of which psychological mediators 4 were targeted in each intervention component, refer to Table 1. In brief, the linked concepts 5 of relatedness (i.e., desire to connect and care for others) and social support were built into 6 all aspects of the program and operationalised through the notion of 'reciprocal 7 reinforcement', where fathers were encouraged to role model positive behaviours and become 8 physical activity advocates for the benefit of their daughters, and vice-versa. To increase the 9 participants' sense of autonomy (i.e., choice and control), multiple options were provided to 10 choose from to complete program activities and the home tasks (see Table 1 for examples). 11 By ensuring fathers and daughters could select challenges that allowed them to 12 experience success, regardless of age, fitness or skill level, these variations were also 13 designed to promote participants' perceived competence (i.e., behavioral mastery) and self-14 *efficacy* for physical activity. In addition to promoting mastery, self-efficacy was also 15 targeted through the other key sources of information (33), including verbal persuasion and role modelling. To increase participants' positive outcome expectations, they were provided 16 17 with information about the physical, mental, social and emotional benefits of co-physical 18 activity and taught games that were designed to be fun and optimally challenging. Finally, 19 fathers and daughters were encouraged to set personal and family-based physical activity 20 goals and to track their progress throughout the program. 21 The program was also socioculturally-targeted to appeal specifically to fathers and

daughters (34). For example, the design of the program incorporated several features linked to father engagement in the literature including the father-only nature of the program (20), the timing of the program (after work hours) (21), and the focus on spending quality time with their daughters engaged in enjoyable co-physical activities (22). The delivery of the program

was also socio-culturally targeted, which is particularly important given fathers place
 emphasis on the credibility of the program facilitators when considering participation (35).
 All program facilitators had tertiary health and physical education qualifications and
 considerable experience delivering community interventions. The facilitators for the fathers'
 and daughters' sessions were also male and female, respectively, to increase relatability.

6 Measures

Assessments were held in January 2015 (baseline) and March 2015 (2 months, postintervention) at the University of Newcastle, Australia. Follow-up assessments planned for
May 2015 (4 months) were rescheduled to September 2015 (9 months) shortly after trial
commencement to allow for longer-term follow-up.

11 The primary outcomes were fathers' and daughter's physical activity levels, which 12 were measured using Yamax SW200 pedometers (Yamax Corporation, Kumamoto City, 13 Japan). These pedometers have been validated in children (36) and adults (37). All 14 participants were advised to wear the pedometer for all waking hours (except when it could 15 get wet or damaged) and to record their steps on a log sheet for seven consecutive days. 16 Participants daily step average at each time point was included in the final analysis if they 17 had completed at least four days, including one weekend day. To ensure that any additional 18 activity completed during the program itself did not artificially inflate the study results, the 19 post-intervention assessments were completed in the week after the final session. Pedometers 20 were selected to measure the primary outcomes as they have good construct validity for 21 measuring physical activity (38), show strong concordance with other physical activity 22 measures (39), and are more accessible than accelerometers due to the substantially reduced 23 cost per unit.

Participants also completed a range of secondary outcomes, which are described in
Table 2. Demographic information included participant age and fathers self-reported

employment status, education level, country of birth, and marital status. Socio-economic
status was determined using the Australian postal area index of relative socio-economic
advantage and disadvantage (40). Additional psychosocial data were also collected, which
will be reported elsewhere (41). Although assessors were blinded at baseline, this was not
achieved for all families at follow-up (e.g., participants wearing program shirts).

Participants were also asked to document any additional activities they completed
where they did not wear the pedometer (e.g., swimming), including details on intensity and
duration. These additional activities were then converted into steps using a standardized
formula based on guidelines for children and adults (e.g., 10 mins of moderate-to-vigorous
physical activity = 1200 additional steps) (42, 43), and these additional steps were then added
to the overall total for a secondary adjusted analysis.

12 Sample Size

13 The sample size was calculated to provide 80% power to detect a 1,500 step/day 14 difference in physical activity change at post-intervention for both fathers and daughters 15 (P<.05), assuming an attrition rate of 15%. For daughters, a sample size of 134 participants 16 was required, assuming a pre-post correlation of 0.58 and a baseline standard deviation of 17 3,082 steps/day (23). Similarly, 86 fathers were required, assuming a pre-post correlation of 18 0.64 and a baseline standard deviation of 2643 steps/day (23). These values were derived 19 from fathers and daughters who participated in the Healthy Dads, Healthy Kids pilot study 20 (23), which informed the current trial. The study was not powered a-priori to detect changes 21 in the secondary outcomes, which were included to complement the primary outcome data 22 and inform future research.

23 Randomization

The randomized allocation sequence was generated by a statistician who did not have
contact with participants. The allocation sequences (stratified by fathers' BMI) were

1 generated by a computer-based random number producing algorithm and stored in a restricted 2 folder. Group assignment information was pre-packed into identical, sealed opaque envelopes 3 and numbered according to the randomization schedule by a research assistant who was not 4 involved in enrolment, assessment or allocation. Families completed all assessments before 5 meeting with a research assistant who was not involved with assessments. The research 6 assistant allocated families to the next available position on the appropriate randomization 7 schedule before opening the corresponding envelope and providing details of the group 8 assignment with a standardized protocol.

9 Statistical Analysis

10 Intention-to-treat linear mixed models were conducted in SPSS 17 (IBM Corp., 11 Armonk: NY), to determine the efficacy of the DADEE intervention compared to the control 12 group ($\alpha < 0.05$). Linear mixed models are robust to the biases of missing data and include all 13 randomized participants in the analyses, consistent with an intention-to-treat approach (44). 14 The models assessed all outcomes for the impact of group (intervention vs control), time 15 (categorical) and the group-by-time interaction. Where significant, the analyses were adjusted for age, socio-economic status and the interactions of these covariates with time and group. 16 17 Cohen's d was calculated by dividing the mean difference in change by the standard 18 deviation of change (45). To allow for comparison with previous studies, two post-hoc 19 sensitivity analyses were also performed for the primary outcomes (completers only and last 20 observation carried forward ANCOVAs, adjusted for baseline values).

21

Results

22 Participant Flow

As seen in Figure 1, 115 fathers and 153 daughters completed the baseline
assessments and were randomized by family into the intervention group (57 fathers, 74
daughters) or a wait-list control group (57 fathers, 79 daughters).

Primary outcome data were obtained from 95% of fathers and 93% of daughters at post-intervention (2 months) and from 90% of fathers and 88% of daughters at follow-up (9 months). Despite strong retention in both groups, more control families returned pedometer record sheets at follow-up (97%) than intervention families (84%; χ^2 =5.1, df=1, *P*=.02). This difference was not detected when considering retention at the follow-up assessments for other outcome measures. There were no significant differences in baseline characteristics between those lost to follow-up and those retained (all P>0.05).

8 **Baseline Data**

9 The mean (SD) ages of daughters and fathers at randomization were 7.7 years (1.8) 10 and 41.0 years (4.6), respectively. The daughters' average step count (10,190 steps/day) 11 aligned closely with data observed in a recent national sample of girls aged 5-8 years (10,147 12 steps/day) and 9-11 years (10,075 steps/day) (46). The fathers' average step count (8,926 13 steps/day), was slightly higher than the average observed for adult men in the same national 14 sample (7,403 steps/day) (46). Overall, 22% of daughters and 33% of fathers were meeting 15 daily physical activity recommendations of 12,000 and 10,000 steps, respectively. Both fathers and daughters were meeting guidelines in only 10% of families. Most fathers were 16 17 employed (97%), born in Australia (89%), and were married or living with a partner (99%). 18 Families were represented from most socio-economic areas. Additional demographic data are 19 available in Electronic Supplementary Material 2.

20 Primary Outcomes

Significant and sustained intervention effects were detected for father and daughter physical activity levels (Table 3). As seen in Figure 2, the daughters' mean physical activity had increased by 1,277 steps/day in the intervention group at 2 months (post-intervention), compared to 405 steps/day in the control group (adjusted difference between groups = 875 steps/day, 95% CI, 135 to 1615). This intervention effect was also maintained at 9 months

1	(adjusted difference = 907 steps/day, 95% CI, 68 to 1747). Similarly, the mean physical
2	activity level for intervention fathers had increased by 916 steps/day at 2 months (Figure 3),
3	compared to a decrease of 458 steps/day in the control group (adjusted difference = 1374
4	steps/day, 95% CI, 622 to 2127) and this effect had increased by 9 months (adjusted
5	difference = 2048 steps/day, 95% CI, 1057 to 3040). The results were consistent with those
6	produced in the ANCOVA sensitivity analyses, though the linear mixed models produced the
7	most conservative estimates (see Supplementary Material 3). As seen in Table 3, these effects
8	were also consistent with the secondary physical activity analyses, where step counts were
9	increased to account for documented non-ambulatory activity.
10	Secondary Outcomes
11	In the daughters, a large group-by-time effect was detected for objective FMS
12	competency at post-intervention (adjusted difference = 7.8 points, 95% CI, 5.7 to 9.8), which
13	was maintained at 9 months (adjusted difference = 6.4 points, 95% CI, 4.4 to 8.3). Significant
14	and sustained intervention effects (all $P < 0.05$) were also identified for the daughters'
15	perceived FMS competence (d = 0.4-0.6), perceived sporting competence (d = $0.3-0.5$) and
16	screen-time (d = 0.5-0.8). For fathers, significant intervention effects (all $P < 0.05$) were
17	identified for MVPA (d = $0.4-0.5$), co-physical activity (d = $0.5-0.7$), physical activity

18 modelling (d = 0.4-0.7), screen-time limit setting (d = 0.3-0.5), physical activity monitoring

19 (d = 0.6-0.8) and screen-time (d = 0.4-0.5). There were no significant group-by-time effects 20 for weight status or resting heart rate in daughters or fathers.

21 Process Outcomes

On a scale of 1 (poor) to 5 (excellent), both fathers and daughters reported mean (SD) program satisfaction scores of 4.9 (0.3). Fathers' mean (SD) satisfaction with the facilitators was 5.0 (0.3). In total, 93% of fathers and 89% of daughters attended at least seven of the eight sessions. 1

Discussion

2	This study evaluated the impact of a novel physical activity program that targeted
3	fathers and their preadolescent daughters. Compared to a control group, the program
4	increased objectively measured physical activity levels at 9 months by approximately 1000-
5	2000 steps/day in fathers and daughters, respectively. There were also sustained intervention
6	effects for numerous secondary outcomes including daughters' FMS proficiency, fathers' and
7	daughters' screen-time, several parenting constructs and co-physical activity. Process
8	evaluation data revealed very high levels of attendance, satisfaction and retention.
9	To the authors' knowledge, this was the first physical activity intervention
10	internationally that targeted fathers and daughters and only the second lifestyle intervention
11	to target fathers exclusively (19). The physical activity results are notable given the paucity
12	of successful physical activity interventions targeting girls (11, 12), men (26), fathers (47),
13	and families (48). In the current study, intervention girls maintained an increase in physical
14	activity of approximately 900 steps/day over a control group at 9 months. While modest, this
15	increase represents an important deviation from the usual physical activity decline observed
16	in girls over time (3). The challenges of reversing this trend are clear, with a recent review
17	identifying only one program for girls that significantly influenced physical activity behavior
18	(12). In the previous study (49), the intervention group still recorded a 6% decrease in MVPA
19	during the study, but MVPA levels for intervention girls had decreased by 2 minutes per day
20	less than the control group.
21	Our paternal physical activity findings were positive and comparable to those

21 Our paternal physical activity findings were positive and comparable to those 22 observed in the two previous interventions that targeted fathers (22, 23). Relative to the 23 control, DADEE fathers increased and maintained their physical activity levels by over 2,000 24 steps at 9 months, representing a large effect size. This effect size is larger than reported in 25 most physical activity interventions targeting men in general (26, 50) and may signify the

1 importance of targeting fathers exclusively with socio-culturally relevant programs (26, 34).

2 There are a number of possible explanations for our positive physical activity 3 outcomes. Perhaps most importantly, the program educated participants about the complex 4 social forces, pre-existing gender norms and feminine ideals that reduce girls' opportunity 5 and encouragement to be physically active (51). Recently, researchers have described a 6 paradox where many physical activity programs attempt to empower girls without providing 7 the necessary awareness and skills to overcome the gendered barriers that exist in the real 8 world (52). In contrast, the DADEE program had a primary focus on education, redefining 9 gender norms, developing the girls' critical thinking skills, and eliciting meaningful support 10 from their fathers as gender equity advocates. The girls were taught how to resist, question 11 and negotiate real-world physical activity barriers in empowering ways (51).

12 Second, the program targeted reciprocal reinforcement, valued outcomes and co-13 physical activity. Through engaging home-based tasks, fathers and daughters became agents 14 of change in their families to help each other become more active. This was demonstrated by 15 the intervention effect for co-physical activity, which has been identified as a key strategy to 16 increase physical activity in fathers and children (53). Notably, the program also met five key 17 recommendations for family-based physical activity programs described in a recent review: i) 18 ensure programs are socio-culturally tailored, ii) target social and psychological outcomes in 19 addition to physical activity, iii) include children as agents of change, iv) combine goal 20 setting and reinforcement techniques, and v) provide education to increase knowledge (48). 21 Third, the DADEE program operationalized self-determination theory and social 22 cognitive theory constructs and taught behavioral skills through face-to-face learning

targeting girls, which have been characterized by multiple exercise sessions per week, little
focus on behavior change, and failure to meaningfully engage parents (11, 12). Alternatively,

experiences and home-based tasks. Our approach was different to many other interventions

23

the DADEE program inspired fathers and daughters to redefine themselves, provided families
 with the necessary psychological resources to improve their activity levels and optimized
 social support systems. These strategies were recently highlighted as key pathways to
 promote long-term behavior change maintenance (54).

5 Fourth, the program greatly improved the girls' FMS proficiency, with very large 6 effect sizes detected compared to other programs in the literature (55). Reviews have clearly 7 established the association between FMS competency and physical activity (10). During the 8 program, fathers learned 'how to teach' their daughters these skills through positive parenting 9 and providing a mastery climate where all daughters could succeed. By reducing screen time 10 and improving parenting skills (e.g., limit setting, monitoring) the program may also have 11 contributed toward a more optimal physical activity home environment.

12 The acceptability of the DADEE program was established through very high levels of 13 attendance, retention and satisfaction. In contrast, poor engagement and attendance levels 14 have been major limitations of previous physical activity research with girls (12). A recent 15 review of after school-based physical activity interventions identified a dose-response relationship where participants who attended at least 40% of the intervention sessions showed 16 17 enhanced study outcomes (56). In the current study, 93% of fathers and 89% of daughters 18 attended at least seven of the eight sessions (≥88%). Although fathers rarely participate in 19 family-based research, this study has shown they are willing to engage in targeted programs 20 that are designed to meet their unique preferences and interests and provide them with 21 personally valued experiences. For researchers seeking to increase the inclusion and 22 engagement of fathers in future research, our approach to designing socio-culturally relevant 23 programs for fathers has been described elsewhere (19, 34, 57). Importantly, this tailoring 24 process applies to both program design (i.e., program content and format) and delivery (i.e., 25 facilitator characteristics and pedagogies).

1 This study addressed many limitations of previous research (11, 12, 26). Strengths 2 included: a randomized design, intention-to-treat analysis, strong retention, objective physical 3 activity data and follow-up assessments 7 months after the immediate post-intervention 4 assessments. There were also some limitations. For pragmatic and budget purposes, the 5 primary outcome was measured using pedometers, which capture total physical activity only. 6 Future research should consider the use of accelerometers to provide measures of physical 7 activity intensity and duration. This will also reduce the potential bias of a social-desirability 8 effect given participants are not required to record their pedometer steps. In addition, the 9 intervention was delivered in a university-environment by the research team and participation 10 was skewed towards more active, socio-economically advantaged and co-residing fathers and 11 daughters. Further research is needed to confirm the effectiveness and scalability of the 12 program when delivered in community settings by trained facilitators to a more diverse range 13 of families. In this pilot study, the analyses did not account for clustering at the family level, 14 though this will be addressed in future research. Finally, formal mediation analyses are 15 required to reveal greater insights into the specific mechanisms of action in the program. 16 Conclusion 17 There is limited high-quality evidence regarding efficacious strategies to promote 18 physical activity in girls (11) and men (26, 50). This was the first study internationally to 19 target the father-daughter relationship as a novel engagement mechanism to improve physical 20 activity in both groups. The sustained improvements in physical activity and multiple 21 secondary outcomes supported the study hypotheses. The acceptability of the approach was 22 supported by very high levels of program attendance, retention and participant satisfaction. 23 For clinical practice, this study provided the first experimental evidence that efforts to

24 increase physical activity behavior in preadolescent girls would benefit from a meaningful

25 engagement of fathers.

1	References
2	1. Janssen I, LeBlanc AG: Systematic review of the health benefits of physical activity
3	and fitness in school-aged children and youth. Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act. 2010, 7:40.
4	2. Eime RM, Young JA, Harvey JT, Charity MJ, Payne WR: A systematic review of the
5	psychological and social benefits of participation in sport for children and adolescents:
6	informing development of a conceptual model of health through sport. Int J Behav Nutr Phys
7	Act. 2013, 10:98.
8	3. Hallal PC, Andersen LB, Bull FC, et al.: Global physical activity levels: surveillance
9	progress, pitfalls, and prospects. Lancet. 2012, 380:247-257.
10	4. Bailey R: Physical Education and Sport in Schools: A Review of Benefits and
11	Outcomes. J Sch Health. 2006, 76:397-401.
12	5. World Health Organization: <i>Global status report on noncommunicable diseases 2014</i> .
13	Switzerland, 2014.
14	6. Ekelund U, Luan J, Sherar LB, et al.: Moderate to vigorous physical activity and
15	sedentary time and cardiometabolic risk factors in children and adolescents. JAMA. 2012,
16	307:704-712.
17	7. Trost SG, Pate RR, Sallis JF, et al.: Age and gender differences in objectively
18	measured physical activity in youth. Med Sci Sports Exerc. 2002, 34:350-355.
19	8. Telford RM, Telford RD, Olive LS, Cochrane T, Davey R: Why Are Girls Less
20	Physically Active than Boys? Findings from the LOOK Longitudinal Study. PLoS ONE.
21	2016, 11.
22	9. Hardy LL, King L, Espinel P, Cosgrove C, Bauman A: NSW Schools Physical
23	Activity and Nutrition Survey (SPANS) 2010: Full Report. Sydney: NSW Ministry of Health,
24	2010.

Lubans DR, Morgan PJ, Cliff DP, Barnett LM, Okely AD: Fundamental movement
 skills in children and adolescents: Review of associated health benefits. *Sports Med.* 2010,
 40:1019-1035.

Biddle SJH, Braithwaite R, Pearson N: The effectiveness of interventions to increase
physical activity among young girls: A meta-analysis. *Prev Med.* 2014, 62:119-131.

Voskuil VR, Frambes DA, Robbins LB: Effect of Physical Activity Interventions for
Girls on Objectively Measured Outcomes: A Systematic Review of Randomized Controlled
Trials. *J Pediatr Health Care*. 2016.

9 13. Zahra J, Sebire SJ, Jago R: "He's probably more Mr. sport than me" - a qualitative
10 exploration of mothers' perceptions of fathers' role in their children's physical activity. *BMC*11 *Pediatr.* 2015, *15.*

12 14. Beets MW, Cardinal BJ, Alderman BL: Parental social support and the physical
13 activity-related behaviors of youth: a review. *Health Educ Behav.* 2010, *37*:621-644.

14 15. Paquette D, Dumont C: Is father-child rough-and-tumble play associated with

15 attachment or activation relationships? *Early Child Develop Care*. 2013, *183*:760-773.

16 16. Harrington M: Sport and leisure as contexts for fathering in Australian families.

17 Leisure studies. 2006, 25:165-183.

18 17. Lamb ME: *The role of the father in child development* (5th Ed.). New York: Wiley,
2010.

20 18. Barrett EL, Morman MT: Turning Points of Closeness in the Father/Daughter

21 Relationship. *Human Comm.* 2013, *15*:241-259.

22 19. Morgan PJ, Young MD, Lloyd AB, et al.: Involvement of fathers in pediatric obesity

23 treatment and prevention trials: A systematic review. *Pediatrics*. 2017, 139.

24 20. Burgess A: Engaging fathers in their children's learning: tips for practitioners.

25 Abergavenny: Fatherhood Institute, 2006.

Bayley J, Wallace LM, Choudhry K: Fathers and parenting programmes: Barriers and
 best practice. *Community Pract.* 2009, *82*:28-31.

3 22. Morgan PJ, Collins CE, Plotnikoff RC, et al.: The 'Healthy Dads, Healthy Kids'
4 community randomized controlled trial: a community-based healthy lifestyle program for
5 fathers and their children. *Prev Med.* 2014, *61*:90-99.

Morgan PJ, Lubans DR, Callister R, et al.: The 'Healthy Dads, Healthy Kids'
randomized controlled trial: Efficacy of a healthy lifestyle program for overweight fathers

8 and their children. *Int J Obes.* 2011, *35*:436-447.

9 24. Yogman M, Garfield CF, the Committee On Psychosocial Aspects Of Child and

10 Family Health: Fathers' Roles in the Care and Development of Their Children: The Role of

11 Pediatricians. *Pediatrics*. 2016, 138.

12 25. Kohl HW, 3rd, Craig CL, Lambert EV, et al.: The pandemic of physical inactivity:
13 global action for public health. *Lancet*. 2012, *380*:294-305.

14 26. Bottorff JL, Seaton CL, Johnson ST, et al.: An Updated Review of Interventions that

15 Include Promotion of Physical Activity for Adult Men. Sports Med. 2015, 45:775-800.

16 27. Pot N, Keizer R: Physical activity and sport participation: A systematic review of the

17 impact of fatherhood. Prev Med Rep. 2016, 4:121-127.

18 28. Hull EE, Rofey DL, Robertson RJ, et al.: Influence of marriage and parenthood on

19 physical activity: a 2-year prospective analysis. J Phys Act Health. 2010, 7:577-583.

20 29. Mailey EL, Huberty J, Dinkel D, McAuley E: Physical activity barriers and

- 21 facilitators among working mothers and fathers. *BMC Public Health.* 2014, *14*:657.
- 22 30. Schulz KF, Altman DG, Moher D: CONSORT 2010 statement: updated guidelines for
- reporting parallel group randomized trials. *Ann Intern Med.* 2010, *152*:726-732.

1	31.	Barnes AT, Plotnikoff RC, Collins CE, Morgan PJ: Feasibility and Preliminary					
2	Efficacy of the M.A.D.E (Mothers And Daughters Exercising) 4 Life Program: A Pilot						
3	Randomized Controlled Trial. J Phys Act Health. 2015, 12:1378-1393.						
4	32.	Deci E, Ryan R: Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behaivor. New					
5	York:	Plenum, 1985.					
6	33.	Bandura A: Social foundations of thought and action: A Social Cognitive Theory.					
7	Englev	wood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1986.					
8	34.	Morgan PJ, Young MD, Smith JJ, Lubans DR: Targeted Health Behavior					
9	Interve	entions Promoting Physical Activity: A Conceptual Model. Exerc Sport Sci Rev. 2016,					
10	44:71-	-80.					
11	35.	Tully LA, Piotrowska PJ, Collins DAJ, et al.: Optimising child outcomes from					
12	parent	ing interventions: fathers' experiences, preferences and barriers to participation. BMC					
13	Public	e Health. 2017, 17:550.					
14	36.	Eston RG, Rowlands AV, Ingledew DK: Validity of heart rate, pedometry, and					
15	accele	rometry for predicting the energy cost of children's activities. J Appl Physiol. 1998,					
16	84:362	2-371.					
17	37.	Steeves JA, Silcott NA, Bassett DR, Thompson DL, Fitzhugh EC: Evaluation of the					
18	Omron	n HJ-720ITC Pedometer under Free-Living Conditions. Med Sci Sports Exerc. 2011,					
19	<i>43</i> :179	91-1797.					
20	38.	Tudor-Locke C, Williams JE, Reis JP, Pluto D: Utility of pedometers for assessing					
21	physic	cal activity: construct validity. Sports Med. 2004, 34:281-291.					
22	39.	Tudor-Locke C, Williams JE, Reis JP, Pluto D: Utility of pedometers for assessing					
23	physic	cal activity: convergent validity. Sports Med. 2002, 32:795-808.					
24	40.	Australian Bureau of Statistics: Census of Population and Housing: Socio-Economic					
25	Indexe	es for Areas (SEIFA), Australia, 2011. Canberra: ABS, 2013.					

1	41.	Young MD, Lubans DR, Barnes AT, et al.: Impact of a Father-Daughter Physical
2	Activ	ity Program on Girls' Social-Emotional Well-being: A Randomized Controlled Trial. In
3	revisi	on.

4 42. Tudor-Locke C, Craig CL, Beets MW, et al.: How Many Steps/Day are Enough? for
5 Children and Adolescents. *Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act.* 2011, 8.

6 43. Tudor-Locke C, Craig CL, Brown WJ, et al.: How Many Steps/day are Enough? For
7 Adults. *Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act.* 2011, 8.

8 44. White IR, Horton NJ, Carpenter J, Pocock SJ: Strategy for intention to treat analysis
9 in randomised trials with missing outcome data. *Br Med J*. 2011, *342*:d40.

10 45. Cohen J: Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences (2nd Ed.). Hillsdale,

11 NJ: Lawrence Earlbaum Associates, 1988.

46. Australian Bureau of Statistics: Australian Health Survey: Physical Activity, 2011-12
(No. 4364.0.55.004) 2013.

47. Young MD, Morgan PJ: Paternal physical activity: An important target to improve the
health of fathers and their children. *Am J Lifestyle Med.* 2017.

16 48. Brown HE, Atkin AJ, Panter J, et al.: Family-based interventions to increase physical

17 activity in children: a systematic review, meta-analysis and realist synthesis. Obes Rev. 2016.

18 49. Webber LS, Catellier DJ, Lytle LA, et al.: Promoting physical activity in middle

19 school girls: Trial of Activity for Adolescent Girls. *Am J Prev Med.* 2008, 34:173-184.

20 50. George ES, Kolt GS, Duncan MJ, et al.: A Review of the Effectiveness of Physical

21 Activity Interventions for Adult Males. *Sports Med.* 2012, *42*:281-300.

22 51. Spencer RA, Rehman L, Kirk SF: Understanding gender norms, nutrition, and

23 physical activity in adolescent girls: a scoping review. Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act. 2015, 12:6.

24 52. Rauscher L, Cooky C: Ready for anything the world gives her? A critical look at

sports-based positive youth development for girls. *Sex Roles*. 2016, 74:288-298.

Lloyd AB, Lubans DR, Plotnikoff RC, Morgan PJ: Paternal Lifestyle-Related
 Parenting Practices Mediate Changes in Children's Dietary and Physical Activity Behaviors:
 Findings From the Healthy Dads, Healthy Kids Community Randomized Controlled Trial. J
 Phys Act Health. 2015, *12*:1327-1335.

5 54. Kwasnicka D, Dombrowski SU, White M, Sniehotta F: Theoretical explanations for
6 maintenance of behaviour change: a systematic review of behaviour theories. *Health Psychol*7 *Rev.* 2016, *10*:277-296.

8 55. Morgan PJ, Barnett LM, Cliff DP, et al.: Fundamental movement skill interventions in
9 youth: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Pediatrics*. 2013, *132*:e1361-1383.

10 56. Beets MW, Beighle A, Erwin HE, Huberty JL: After-school program impact on

11 physical activity and fitness: a meta-analysis. Am J Prev Med. 2009, 36:527-537.

12 57. Morgan PJ, Young MD: The Influence of Fathers on Children's Physical Activity and

13 Dietary Behaviors: Insights, Recommendations and Future Directions. Curr Obes Rep. 2017.

14 58. Michie S, Richardson M, Johnston M, et al.: The Behavior Change Technique

15 Taxonomy (v1) of 93 Hierarchically Clustered Techniques: Building an International

16 Consensus for the Reporting of Behavior Change Interventions. Ann Behav Med. 2013,

46:81-95.

18 59. Godin G, Shephard RJ: A simple method to assess exercise behavior in the

19 community. Can J Appl Sport Sci. 1985, 10:141-146.

20 60. Plotnikoff RC, Taylor LM, Wilson PM, et al.: Factors associated with physical

- 21 activity in Canadian adults with diabetes. Med Sci Sports Exerc. 2006, 38:1526-1534.
- 22 61. Davison KK, Li K, Baskin ML, Cox T, Affuso O: Measuring parental support for

23 children's physical activity in white and African American parents: The Activity Support

24 Scale for Multiple Groups (ACTS-MG). *Prev Med.* 2011, *52*:39-43.

1	62.	Lee SM, Nihiser A, Strouse D, et al.: Correlates of children and parents being
2	physic	ally active together. J Phys Act Health. 2010, 7:776-783.

G3. Larios SE, Ayala GX, Arredondo EM, Baquero B, Elder JP: Development and
validation of a scale to measure Latino parenting strategies related to children's obesigenic
behaviors. The parenting strategies for eating and activity scale (PEAS). *Appetite*. 2009, *52*:166-172.

7 64. Ulrich DA: *Test of gross motor development. Examiner's manual* (2 Ed.). Austin,
8 Texas: PRO.ED, 2000.

9 65. Barnett LM, Ridgers ND, Zask A, Salmon J: Face validity and reliability of a pictorial

10 instrument for assessing fundamental movement skill perceived competence in young

11 children. J Sci Med Sport. 2015, 18:98-102.

12 66. Marsh HW, Richards GE, Johnson S, Roche L, Tremayne P: Physical Self-

13 Description Questionnaire - Psychometric Properties and a Multitrait-Multimethod Analysis

of Relations to Existing Instruments. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology*. 1994, *16*:270305.

16 67. Hardy LL, Booth ML, Okely AD: The reliability of the Adolescent Sedentary Activity
17 Questionnaire (ASAQ). *Prev Med.* 2007, *45:*71-74.

18 68. Smith JJ, Morgan PJ, Plotnikoff RC, et al.: Smart-phone obesity prevention trial for

19 adolescent boys in low-income communities: the ATLAS RCT. Pediatrics. 2014, 134:e723-

20 731.

de Onis M, Onyango AW, Borghi E, et al.: Development of a WHO growth reference
for school-aged children and adolescents. *Bull World Health Organ.* 2007, *85:*660-667.

Figure Captions





Figure 2. Intention-to-treat analysis of daughters' physical activity change by treatment group. Data are means and 95% confidence intervals.



Daughters' Physical Activity

Figure 3. Intention-to-treat analysis of fathers' physical activity change by treatment group. Data are means and 95% confidence intervals.



Intervention component	Description	Physical activity behavior change techniques ^a	Targeted theoretical mediators	
Group sessions	 Fathers and daughters attended 8 x 90-min sessions over 8 weeks. Sessions included: <i>Combined education session (15-min)</i>: Engaging introduction to the session with father-daughter icebreakers and a brief overview of the session content. <i>Father-only education session (30-min)</i>: Information delivered by a male researcher with experience in men's health promotion and health and physical education qualifications (PJM). Key topics covered in these sessions are outlined in Electronic Supplementary Material 1. <i>Daughter-only education session (30-min)</i>: Led by two female researchers with health and physical education qualifications (ATB, EP). The content included age appropriate strategies to become more active with a focus on developing one key socialemotional skill each week (see Electronic Supplementary Material 1) <i>Combined practical session (45-min):</i> The practical sessions were designed to increase the daughters' intrinsic motivation for physical activity by providing them with novel and engaging physical activity experiences in a supportive and positive environment. The practical included fun and active father-daughter games and challenges targeting rough and tumble play, sports skills (i.e., FMS) and aerobic and muscular fitness. 	 Social support (practical, emotional) Increase positive emotions ^b Instructions on how to perform the behavior Information about consequences (health, social + environmental, emotional) Demonstration of the behavior Graded tasks Credible source Identification of self as role model Framing/reframing Verbal persuasion about capability 	 Social support / relatedness (SCT/SDT) Autonomy (SDT) Self-efficacy / perceived competence (SCT/SDT) Outcome expectations (SCT) Goals (SCT) 	
Fathers resources	<i>Dads' log book</i> : Fathers completed tasks to promote physical activity behavior (e.g., SMART goal setting, physical activity monitoring) and nurture the father-daughter relationship. <i>Dads' folder</i> : Copies of each week's session slides.	 Goal setting (behavior) Action planning Self-monitoring of behavior Self-incentive Non-specific incentive Social support (practical, emotional) 	 Goals (SCT) Social support / relatedness (SCT/SDT) 	

Table 1. Description of intervention components in the DADEE program.

Table 1. Description of intervention components in the DADEE program.

Daughters resources	 Em Power Folder: Included weekly physical activity tasks daughters could complete with their fathers to earn unique 'Em Power' collector cards. The challenges were designed to increase physical activity, foster positive social-emotional development and improve the father-daughter relationship. Word of the Week Tasks: Daughters earned stickers by completing one of four tasks designed to improve their understanding of various social-emotional skills (e.g., self-control, persistence, positivity, resilience, critical thinking, kindness). Daughters' folder: Copies of each week's session slides 	 Material incentive (behavior) Instructions on how to perform the behavior Graded tasks Self-talk Increase positive emotions ^b 	 Social support / relatedness (SCT/SDT) Goals (SCT) Autonomy Self-efficacy / perceived competence (SCT/SDT)
Family resources	 Sports skills program: Included a suite of fun, engaging and age-appropriate games for fathers and daughters to play at home to improve the daughter's sports skills (i.e., kicking, catching, throwing (over- and underarm), bouncing, striking). Sport equipment pack: Pack included: 1x soccer ball, 1x basketball, 1x tee-ball set (adjustable stand, bat, ball), 1x handball, 1x beanbag, 6x cones). Pedometer: Families received one Yamax SW200 pedometer to assist with physical activity monitoring. DADEE app: To encourage long-term behavior maintenance, families were provided with access to a web-based app at the conclusion of the program, which included all of the 'Em Power' challenges given to daughters' during the program. The app also included information on the key skill components for each object control FMS. Other resources: T-shirts, water bottles, backpack, sports directory (description and contact information of local sporting clubs/activity centers). 	 Increase positive emotions ^b Graded tasks Instructions on how to perform the behavior Self-talk Prompts/cues Adding objects to the environment 	 Social support / relatedness (SCT/SDT) Self-efficacy / perceived competence (SCT/SDT) Autonomy (SDT) Goals (SCT)

^a Techniques refer to those outlined in the 'behavior change technique taxonomy' (v1) (58). ^b Technique to be included from behavior change taxonomy (v2).

Outcome	Description
Fathers only	
MVPA	Average weekly moderate-to-vigorous physical activity (MVPA) was measured with a modified version of the <i>Godin Leisure Time Exercise Questionnaire</i> (59). In addition to average number of weekly MVPA bouts, the participants also indicated the average bout length (60). These values then were multipled to give an overall measure of weekly MVPA.
Physical activity parenting practices	Parenting practices were measured with several validated scales including physical activity modelling (61) and co-physical activity (days per week where father and daughters were physically active together) (62). Fathers also completed items from the <i>Parenting Strategies for Eating and Activity Scale</i> to assess their control, limit setting, discipline and monitoring in relation to their daughter's physical activity and screen time (63).
Daughters only	
Fundamental movement skills (FMS)	FMS competency was assessed with six object control skills described in the validated <i>Test of Gross Motor Development</i> (kicking, catching, striking a stationary ball, stationary dribble, overhand throw [TGMD-2] and underhand throw [TGMD-3]) (64). After watching a live demonstration, daughters were filmed performing each skill twice. For each skill, daughters received a score of 1 or 0 for the presence or absence of various performance criteria (e.g., ball is caught by hands only). The combined scores for both attempts across all skills represented the overall object control score.
Perceived competence ^a	Perceived FMS competence was measured with a validated pictorial scale for young children based on skills measured with the TGMD-2 (65). To align with the objectively- measured FMS skills, an additional item was added to measure the underhand throw (TGMD-3). Daughters were presented with two pictures featuring a girl providing a 'good' or 'poor' demonstration of each skill and asked to choose which picture was most like them. If they selected the 'good' demonstration they were asked if they were 'really good' or 'pretty good' at the skill. If they selected the 'poor' demonstration they were asked if they were 'sort of good' or 'not that good'. Scores were combined across the six skills to provide an overall measure of perceived FMS competence. Perceived sporting competence was also measured with the sports competence scale of the <i>Physical Self-Description Questionnaire</i> (66).
Fathers and daug	ghters
Screen-time ^b	Screen time was assessed with a modified version of the <i>Adolescent Sedentary Activity Questionnaire</i> (67). Fathers were asked to report the total time they spent sitting using screens (of any kind) for anything outside of work (or homework when reporting for daughters) on each day in the previous week. This adapted measure has shown good sensitivity to change in previous behavior change research with adolescents (68).
Weight status	Weight was measured in light clothing, without shoes on a digital scale to 0.01 kg (model CH-150kp, A&D Mercury Pty Ltd, Australia). Height was measured using the stretch stature method on an electronic stadiometer to 0.1 cm (model BSM370, Biospace, USA). For daughters, BMI-z scores were calculated by using the LMS method (World Health Organization growth reference centiles) (69).
Resting pulse	Resting pulse was assessed for fathers and daughters using POLAR H7 heart rate sensors. Participants were fitted with the sensor before being seated to complete questionnaires. After five minutes rest, participants resting pulse was recorded every ten seconds for one minute using the 'Polar Team' app. The average of the six measures was used for analysis.
Process measures	Process outcomes included average attendance, program satisfaction and study retention.

Table 2. Secondary outcomes measured in the DADEE study.

^a Daughters' questions were interviewer administered one-on-one to ensure comprehension. ^b Daughter screen time reported by fathers in relation to eldest enrolled daughter.

Outcome	Group	Baseline	2-month change from baseline (Mean, 95%CI)		9-month change from baseline (Mean, 95%CI)			
		Mean (SE)	Within-group ^a	Mean difference between groups ^b	p-value [Cohen's d]	Within-group ^c	Mean difference between groups ^b	p-value [Cohen's d]
Primary outcomes								
Steps/day								
Daughters	Treatment Control	10323 (307) 10056 (297)	+ 1277 (744, 1811) +403 (-110, 916)	+875 (135, 1615)	0.02 [0.38]	+ 711 (86, 1335) -197 (-758, 364)	+907 (68, 1747)	0.03 [0.35]
Fathers ^d	Treatment Control	8952 (411) 8899 (408)	+ 916 (382, 1450) -458 (-988, 71)	+1374 (622, 2127)	<0.001 [0.68]	+1050 (330, 1771) -998 (-1679, -317)	+2048 (1057, 3040)	<0.001 [0.77]
Secondary outcomes								
Adjusted steps/day ^e								
Daughters	Treatment Control	11433 (351) 11805 (339)	+ 1619 (993, 2245) -393 (-992, 205)	+2013 (1147, 2879)	<0.001 [0.75]	+ 1425 (646, 2204) -158 (-865, 548)	+1583 (532, 2635)	<0.001 [0.48]
Fathers	Treatment Control	10490 (519) 10452 (514)	+ 960 (249, 1671) -533 (-1234, 169)	+1493 (494, 2491)	<0.001 [0.56]	+1343 (429, 2256) -919 (-1784, -54)	+2262 (1004, 3250)	<0.001 [0.67]
Fathers' MVPA (mins/week)	Treatment Control	148 (16) 175 (16)	+ 63 (36, 90) +8 (-19, 35)	+55 (16, 93)	0.005 [0.53]	+ 68 (35, 111) +4 (-39, 46)	+65 (4, 125)	0.010 [0.40]
Daughters sport competence								
<i>Object control score</i> (TGMD) ^f	Treatment Control	20.2 (0.6) 20.4 (0.6)	+9.5 (8.1, 11.0) +1.8 (0.4, 3.2)	+7.8 (5.7, 9.8)	<0.001 [1.23]	+9.7 (8.3, 11.1) +3.4 (2.0, 4.7)	+6.4 (4.4, 8.3)	<0.001 [1.05]
Perceived FMS competence	Treatment Control	3.0 (0.1) 3.1 (0.1)	+0.4 (0.3, 0.5) +0.1 (0.0, 0.2)	+0.3 (0.1, 0.4)	<0.001 [0.58]	+0.4 (0.2, 0.5) +0.2 (0.1, 0.3)	+0.2 (0.0, 0.4)	0.002 [0.39]
Perceived sports competence	Treatment Control	4.4 (0.1) 4.6 (0.1)	+ 0.3 (0.1, 0.5) -0.1 (-0.3, 0.1)	+0.4 (0.1, 0.7)	0.006 [0.45]	+ 0.4 (0.2, 0.6) +0.1 (-0.1, 0.3)	+0.3 (0.0, 0.6)	0.02 [0.33]
Screen time (weekday)								
Daughters (min/day)	Treatment Control	107 (7.0) 84 (7.0)	-48 (-59, -37) -17 (-27, -6)	-31 (-47, -16)	<0.001 [0.77]	-45 (-57, -32) -14 (-27, -2)	-30 (-48, -13)	<0.001 [0.64]
Fathers (min/day)	Treatment Control	121 (7) 110 (7)	-36 (-48, -25) -19 (-30, -7)	-18 (-34, -1)	0.03 [0.40]	-38 (-51, -25) -31 (-44, -18)	-7 (-26, 11)	0.10 [0.14]
Screen time (weekend)			· · · /					
Daughter (min/day) ^f	Treatment Control	198 (12) 166 (12)	-71 (-89, -52) -39 (-57, -21)	-32 (-57, -6)	0.02 [0.46]	-79 (-101, -58) -42 (-63, -21)	-38 (-67, -8)	0.03 [0.47]

Table 3. Changes in Primary and Secondary Outcomes for Study Participants.

Outcome	Group	Baseline	2-month change from baseline (Mean, 95%CI)			9-month change from baseline (Mean, 95%CI)		
		Mean (SE)	Within-group ^a	Mean difference between groups ^b	p-value [Cohen's d]	Within-group ^c	Mean difference between groups ^b	p-value [Cohen's d]
Fathers (min/day)	Treatment	172 (11)	-50 (-67, -33)			-52 (-73, -31)		
	Control	148 (10)	-11 (-28, 6)	-39 (-63, -15)	0.002 [0.61]	-42 (-63, -22)	-10 (-39, 19)	0.002 [0.13]
Physical activity parenting practices								
Co-PA (days/week) ^f	Treatment Control	2.1 (0.2) 1.9 (0.2)	+ 0.7 (0.4, 1.1) -0.2 (-0.6, 0.2)	+0.9 (0.4, 1.5)	<0.001 [0.65]	+0.6 (0.2, 1.0) -0.2 (-0.6, 0.2)	+0.8 (0.2, 1.4)	0.003 [0.51]
Modelling ^f	Treatment Control	2.8 (0.1) 2.8 (0.1)	+ 0.4 (0.3, 0.5) +0.1 (-0.1, 0.2)	+0.3 (0.2, 0.5)	<0.001 [0.66]	+ 0.3 (0.1, 0.4) +0.0 (-0.1, 0.2)	+0.3 (0.0, 0.5)	0.003 [0.43]
Limit setting	Treatment Control	3.6 (0.1) 3.8 (0.1)	+ 0.4 (0.3, 0.6) +0.1 (-0.1, 0.3)	+0.3 (0.1, 0.6)	0.011 [0.48]	+ 0.4 (0.2, 0.6) +0.1 (-0.1, 0.3)	+0.3 (0.0, 0.6)	0.04 [0.34]
Monitoring	Treatment Control	3.2 (0.1) 3.4 (0.1)	+0.6 (0.4, 0.8) +0.2 (0.0, 0.4)	+0.5 (0.2, 0.7)	<0.001 [0.62]	+ 0.6 (0.4, 0.8) -0.1 (-0.3, 0.2)	+0.6 (0.3, 0.9)	<0.001 [0.77]
Disciplining	Treatment Control	2.7 (0.2) 2.9 (0.2)	-0.3 (-0.6, 0.1) -0.5 (-0.9, -0.2)	+0.3 (-0.2, 0.7)	0.23 [0.23]	-0.4 (-0.7, 0.0) - 0.6 (-1.0, -0.2)	+0.2 (-0.3, 0.7)	0.47 [0.18]
Control	Treatment Control	2.7 (0.1) 3.0 (0.1)	-0.6 (-0.9, -0.3) -0.5 (-0.8, -0.2)	-0.1 (-0.5, 0.3)	0.66 [0.08]	-0.5 (-0.7, -0.2) -0.4 (-0.7, -0.1)	-0.1 (-0.5, 0.3)	0.89 [0.06]
Weight status								
Daughters (BMI-z)	Treatment Control	0.48 (0.11) 0.60 (0.11)	-0.06 (-0.10, -0.02) -0.05 (-0.09, -0.01)	-0.01 (-0.07, 0.05)	0.74 [0.05]	-0.41 (-0.48, -0.33) -0.38 (-0.45, -0.32)	-0.02 (-0.12, 0.08)	0.91 [0.06]
Fathers (BMI)	Treatment Control	27.9 (0.5) 27.3 (0.5)	-0.2 (-0.3, 0.0) -0.2 (-0.3, 0.0)	+0.0 (-0.2, 0.2)	0.82 [0.04]	+ 0.2 (0.0, 0.5) +0.1 (-0.1, 0.3)	+0.2 (-0.1, 0.5)	0.57 [0.20]
Resting pulse								
Daughters $(bpm)^f$	Treatment Control	98.4 (1.4) 95.5 (1.3)	-5.3 (-8.1, -2.5) -3.7 (-6.4, -1.0)	-1.6 (-5.5, 2.2)	0.41 [0.13]	-4.3 (-7.2, -1.3) -4.0 (-6.8, -1.3)	-0.2 (-4.3, 3.8)	0.67 [0.02]
Fathers (bpm) f	Treatment Control	67.2 (1.3) 68.6 (1.3)	-0.5 (-2.3, 1.4) -1.8 (-3.6, 0.1)	+1.3 (-1.3, 4.0)	0.32 [0.19]	-1.2 (-3.4, 1.1) -0.8 (-3.0, 1.5)	-0.4 (-3.5, 2.8)	0.45 [0.05]

Table 3. Changes in Primary and Secondary Outcomes for Study Participants.

^a 2-month value minus baseline. ^b Within-group difference (intervention) minus within-group difference (control). ^c 9-month value minus baseline. ^d Adjusted for SES. ^e Adjusted to include additional activity completed without wearing pedometer (e.g., swimming). ^f Adjusted for age. Bold denotes a significant difference.