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November, 2015

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Current nutrition promotion, beliefs and barriers among cancer nurses in Australia and New Zealand

Petra G Puhringer, Alicia Olsen, Michael Climstein, Sally Sargeant, Lynnette Jones, Justin W.L. Keogh

Rationale: As many cancer patients and survivors do not meet nutritional and physical activity guidelines, healthier eating and greater levels of physical activity could have considerable benefits for these individuals. While research has investigated the cancer patients' perspective on their challenges in meeting the nutritional and physical guidelines, little research has been conducted on the role their health professionals play in this process. Cancer nurses may be ideally placed to promote healthy behaviours to their patients, but little is known about such promotion, particularly in Australasia (Australia and New Zealand). The primary aim of this study was to examine current healthy eating promotion towards patients, beliefs and barriers among cancer nurses in Australasia. Patients and Methods: We conducted an online survey to investigate cancer nurses' current healthy eating promotion practices, beliefs and barriers. Sub-group cancer nurse comparisons were performed on hospital location (metropolitan vs regional and rural) and years of experience (<25 or ≥25 years) using ANOVA and chi square analysis for continuous and categorical data, respectively to gain some insight into whether these demographic characteristics may influence healthy eating promotion. Results: A total of 123 Australasian cancer nurses responded to the survey. Cancer nurses believed they were often the major provider of nutritional advice to their cancer patients (32.5%), a value marginally less than that of dieticians (35.9%) but substantially higher than oncologists (3.3%). The majority promoted healthy eating prior (62.6%), during (74.8%) and post treatment (64.2%). Interestingly, most cancer nurses felt that healthy eating had positive effects on the cancer patients' quality of life (85.4%), weight management (82.9%), mental health (80.5%), activities of daily living (79.7%) and risk of other chronic diseases (79.7%), although only 75.5% agreed or strongly agreed that this is due to a strong evidence base. While almost one third (31.6%) of nurses stated they did not have any barriers to promoting healthy eating, a lack of time (25.8%), lack of adequate support structures (17.3%) and lack of expertise (12.2%) were cited as the most common barriers. Analysis across sub-groups indicated very few significant differences in their healthy eating promotion practices, beliefs and barriers, suggesting that these demographic characteristics have minor effects on healthy eating promotion. *Conclusion:* Australasian

cancer nurses have favourable attitudes towards promoting healthy eating to their cancer patients across multiple stages of the cancer treatment and believe that healthy eating has many benefits for their patients. Unfortunately, several barriers to healthy eating promotion were reported. If these barriers can be overcome, nurses may be able to work more effectively with dieticians and nutritionists to improve the outcomes for cancer patients.

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22 Introduction

23 Cancer rates are rising in many international countries, with Australian 2010 data indicating that within an overall population of 22 million people, there 24 25 were 116,580 new cases of cancer diagnosed that year (Australian Institute of Health and Welfare 2014). {Australian Institute of Health and Welfare & 26 Australasian Association of Cancer Registries 2010, #1109;Oefelein, 2002 27 28 #144} This very high number of new cancer cases in Australia is consistent with many other countries and may reflect many factors including ageing of 29 the population (Brown et al. 2001; Li) and improved detection (Newton & 30 Galvão 2008). In addition, a range of modifiable risk factors appear to 31 contribute to these higher cancer rates, including insufficient levels of 32 physical activity, poor dietary choices and other unhealthy lifestyle choices, 33 such as smoking (Chan et al. 2005; Coups & Ostroff 2005). 34

Earlier detection of many cancers and advancements in surgical techniques, 35 radiation therapy, chemotherapy and hormonal therapies are allowing many 36 more individuals with cancer to survive longer post-diagnosis (Etzioni et al. 37 Survival rates of 88% and 85% for prostate and breast cancer 38 2008). respectively, indicate that that 53,296 Australian men diagnosed with 39 prostate cancer and 53,051 Australian women diagnosed with breast cancer 40 41 are still alive 5 years post-diagnosis (Australian Institute of Health and Welfare & Australasian Association of Cancer Registries 2010). While survival 42 43 rates are high, cancer treatments result in many short- and long-term sideeffects that seriously affect the quality of life (QoL) and overall health and 44 wellbeing of these individuals. Many of these treatments may contribute to 45

cancer fatigue, with many of the hormonal therapies also predisposing these 46 individuals to unhealthy changes in body composition such as cachexia or 47 48 sarcopenic obesity. Cancer cachexia, is described as a multifactorial syndrome 49 involving the continual loss of skeletal muscle mass (with or without loss of fat mass) that is not 50 reversible by conventional nutritional support (Fearon et al. 2011). Sarcopenic obesity 51 is a condition characterised by significant reductions in muscle and bone 52 mass and increases in fat mass (Berger et al. 2012; Bylow et al. 2007; Genton 53 et al. 2006). Hormonal therapies (such as androgen deprivation therapy) and chemotherapy can lead to similar significant declines in body composition 54 55 that predispose cancer patients to cachexia or sarcopenic obesity (Galvao et al. 2008; Young et al. 2014). Moreover, these alterations in body weight and 56 composition may be associated with reduced functional status, the 57 development of co-morbidities such as osteoporosis, fall-related fractures, 58 59 and cardio-metabolic syndrome (Bundred 2012; Kintzel et al. 2008; Oefelein et al. 2002; Young et al. 2014), increased rates of chemotherapy toxicity 60 61 (Azim et al. 2011; Prado et al. 2008) and may be linked to decreased survival rates (Sparano et al. 2012). Many cancer patients also live with numerous 62 additional symptoms including poor sleep, urinary and sexual dysfunction, 63 and negative body image that may further impact aspects of their OoL and 64 their ability to perform self-care, work, and leisure activities (Baker et al. 65 2005; Flynn et al. 2011; Keogh et al. 2013; Ottenbacher et al. 2013). Such 66 results suggest that improved treatments may allow cancer patients to live 67 68 longer, but not necessarily better lives. Improvements in usual care practices

69 are therefore needed to increase the overall health and QoL post-diagnosis70 for all cancer populations.

We would argue that healthy behaviours like physical activity, adequate 71 72 nutrition, weight management and smoking cessation have considerable health benefits for cancer patients and should be strongly considered to 73 74 become more routinely integrated into usual care practices. Meta-analyses 75 and systematic reviews indicate that a healthy diet is an important component of enhanced QoL among cancer patients and is positively linked 76 to many benefits including reduced levels of diabetes and obesity, 77 osteoporosis, and potentially cancer recurrence (Langius et al. 2013; Millar & 78 79 Davison 2012; Mokdad et al. 2003).

Unfortunately, a recent review indicates that too few cancer patients engage 80 in healthy eating and sufficient physical activity for health benefit (Rogers et 81 al. 2015). Adherence to specific guidelines was practiced only by a minority 82 of patients, with only 14.8% to 19.1% consuming the recommended daily 83 amount of fruits and vegetables, and between 29.6 to 47.3% engaging in the 84 advised physical activity (Blanchard et al. 2008). Unhealthy lifestyles are an 85 issue in a variety of cancer settings, especially where patients are at risk of 86 cachexia or sarcopenic obesity where the primary aim is to obtain sufficiently 87 88 balanced nutrition (particularly protein and overall calories) to maintain levels of muscle mass and perhaps to limit the gain in fat mass (Balstad et al. 89 90 2014; Chevalier & Farsijani 2014). As a result, cancers patients are more likely to increase their healthy behaviours if their oncologists and/or the other 91 health professionals in the oncology care team actively promote lifestyle 92

modification as a tertiary preventative strategy. One challenge of such a 93 paradigms shift for the health professionals is that such health promotion is 94 not often their primary area of training or practice. 95 Indeed, health 96 professionals have several concerns when charged with promoting a healthy 97 diet to their patients, ranging from the belief that diet wouldn't impact the cancer outcome, or that such discussions may be interpreted by the survivor 98 to infer that the patients' cancer is the result of their poor lifestyle choices 99 100 (Williams et al. 2015).

A diagnosis of cancer may encourage patients to change their lifestyle habits, 101 becoming more physically active, eating a better diet or guitting smoking 102 103 (Anderson et al. 2013; Demark-Wahnefried et al. 2000). Health professionals are in a position to actively promote and/or respond to questions about these 104 105 behaviours, thereby assisting their patients to make achievable lifestyle changes (Velentzis et al. 2011). Such promotion has the potential to result in 106 107 many health benefits. For example, in prostate cancer patients receiving androgen deprivation therapy who are often at risk of osteoporosis, the 108 109 promotion of sufficient calcium and vitamin D intake has been shown to be effective in reducing bone loss (Davison et al. 2012). 110

Nurses have a key role in communication between cancer patients and the wider oncology care team as they may have more contact with their patients and relatively more time per consultation for counselling their patients than oncologists. Evidence from nurses in general practice (van Dillen et al. 2014) and paediatric (Blake & Patterson 2015) settings indicate that nurses saw themselves as important health professionals in relation to promoting healthy

eating to their patients. Cancer nurses however, may face a number of barriers affecting their ability to promote healthy behaviours to their patients (Karvinen et al. 2012). Lack of guidelines and lack of time was often cited as barriers (O'Hanlon & Kennedy 2014) as well as the desire to minimise patients' distress (Miles et al. 2010) and the relative lack of access to evidence-based resources to provide to their patients (Blake & Patterson 2015).

124 There is relatively little international data on the current healthy eating 125 promotion practices, beliefs and barriers of cancer nurses. It is also apparent that almost all of the healthy behaviour (predominantly physical activity) 126 127 promotion research has been conducted in North America and Europe, with virtually no research conducted in Australasia (Australia and New Zealand). 128 The current study sought to address these limitations within the literature by 129 gaining some insight into the current healthy eating promotion practices, 130 131 beliefs and barriers of cancer nurses in Australia and New Zealand. Α secondary goal was to gain preliminary insight into whether these practices 132 133 and determinants were influenced by the location of the nurses' hospitals 134 (rural vs metropolitan) or years of work experience. It was hypothesised that cancer nurses would, in principle, support the promotion of healthy diets to 135 136 their patients and believe that healthy diet has many benefits, but that they would cite many barriers to the frequent discussion of dietary issues with 137 their patients. 138

139 Methods

140 **Participants and procedures**

Registered cancer nurses (RNs) who provide medical support to cancer 141 patients in either Australia or New Zealand were invited to participate in our 142 143 online survey. Australian cancer nurses were invited to participate via links posted on the Cancer Nurses Society of Australia (CNSA) website, while New 144 Zealand cancer nurses were invited via an email from the Cancer Nurses 145 Section of the New Zealand Nurses Organisation (NZNO). The web link or 146 147 email nurses received included a description of the research and an invitation 148 participate in the study via electronic link to an 149 (https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/healthpromotionbynurses). Additionally, any registered nurses providing health care to cancer patients were eligible 150 151 to participate; these potential participants were recruited using social media 152 (Twitter and Facebook).

153 Ethics Approval

154 Institutional approval for this study was obtained from the Bond University 155 Human Review Ethics committee (RO1651) and the University of Otago 156 Human Ethics Committee (13/260) and organizational approval obtained from 157 both the CNSA and NZNO. Ethics approval included permission to offer an 158 incentive for participation, which consisted of twenty-four, \$20 gift vouchers 159 that were randomly allocated to participants who completed the survey. All

participants provided informed consent electronically on the main surveypage prior to accessing the online survey.

162 Survey design and implementation

163 A cross-sectional, observational study was designed using an online, web-164 based questionnaire survey software (SurveyMonkey). The survey questions consisted of array, single choice, multiple choice, list dropdown, numerical 165 166 input and short answer free text. Filters and skip logic (where appropriate) 167 were utilized to expedite completion of the survey. The questionnaire was 168 initially trialled with 12 nurses, with only minor changes made to the 169 terminology or layout prior to being made available online. The Australian 170 survey was activated on October 2013 and closed on July 2014 and the New 171 Zealand survey was activated on December 2013 and also closed July 2014.

172 Study instrument

173 The online survey questionnaire was based upon two key theoretical 174 frameworks within heath behaviour research, namely the Theory of Planned 175 Behaviour (TPB) and the Social Cognitive Theory (SCT). The components of 176 the TPB comprises normative beliefs, perceived control and intentions (Azjen 1985), and whilst SCT places emphasis on thought process constructs 177 178 governing behaviour (Bandura 1986). The survey questions were designed to reflect these constructs within the two theories as well as drawing on other 179 key studies within the literature that identified determinants of healthy living 180 in cancer patients (Blanchard et al. 2002; Jones et al. 2005b). The constructs 181 and factors of these theories could be applied to how patients perceive the 182

opinion and advice of health professionals such as oncologists and cancer, in 183 184 relation to the performance of healthy behaviours (Husebo et al. 2013; Jones et al. 2005b; Keogh et al. 2010; Short et al. 2013). The questionnaire used 185 the guiding principles of TPB and SCT to assess cancer nurses' practice 186 187 towards nutrition promotion, attitudes towards beneficial effects of healthy 188 eating in cancer patients and their perceived barriers for healthy eating 189 promotion. The wider survey was divided into four major sections, these 190 being demographics of the cancer nurses and three healthy living 191 components which included healthy eating, physical activity and smoking 192 habits. The inclusion of healthy eating, physical activity and smoking questions was done so to minimise the potential for the nurses who did not 193 194 promote a specific healthy behaviour e.g. healthy eating to decline the 195 invitation to participate in the survey, only answer some of the questions in 196 the survey or to feel pressured to give response(s) that was not consistent with their actual behaviour or beliefs. In this paper, only data relevant to the 197 198 cancer nurses' healthy eating promotion habits towards their patients will be 199 reported.

Demographics obtained from the cancer nurses included age, gender, professional qualifications, years practicing, practice type (public/private), hospital location (metropolitan, regional, rural) and specialisation (cancer or tumour group). Assessment of cancer nurses' lifestyle habits consisted of single-choice questions. Items included current smoking status, whether they reported following a healthy diet on a regular basis and frequency of physical activity.

The Cancer nurses' nutrition promotion practices were examined with single choice and multiple-choice questions. Items sought to assess nurses' opinions on responsibility of healthy eating promotion in their hospital and whether they felt the dietician/nutritionist, oncologist, themselves or others were the primary person in charge. Attitudes towards healthy eating promotion during different stages of cancer treatment (pre-, during- and posttreatment) were investigated with multiple-choice items.

214 Cancer nurses' beliefs on beneficial effects of healthy eating were assessed 215 on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 4 (strongly agree) on 216 seven different factors: 1.) improves health related QoL, 2.) improves weight 217 management, 3.) improves mental health, 4.) improves activities of daily 218 living, 5.) reduces risk of cancer recurrence, 6.) reduces risk of other diseases and 7.) reduces tumour specific comorbidities. Furthermore, cancer nurses 219 220 were asked their opinion on whether they think their patients are generally uninterested in healthy eating, that promoting healthy eating is entirely up to 221 222 them (i.e. responsibility of the nurse), if they believe they should promote healthy eating and if there is a strong evidence base to promote healthy 223 eating. 224

Assessment items of the most commonly perceived barriers included lack of time, lack of adequate support structures, lack of expertise, lack of knowledge, risk to survivor, not my job and finally not having any barriers at all for healthy eating promotion (Blake & Patterson 2015; Brandes et al. 2015; Brotons et al. 2005). The respondents were asked to rank each barrier

according to their personal experience from primary barrier (3 points),
secondary barrier (2 points) to tertiary barrier (1 point).

232 Statistical analyses

Data were evaluated using IBM SPSS version 22.0 and Microsoft Excel 2010 233 234 software. Demographics, nutrition promotion practices and beliefs of cancer nurses were analysed using descriptive statistics. We chose to do sub-group 235 236 comparisons across hospital location (metropolitan vs regional and rural) and years of practice (< 25 years and \geq 25 years) due to comparable sample 237 238 sizes of these sub-groups. Sub-group comparisons based on cancer nurse 239 gender (male or female), hospital type (private or public) and cancer group 240 specialization were not performed as the sample sizes of these sub-groups 241 were too unbalanced. Selected sub-group comparisons were examined using one way analyses of variance (ANOVA) for continuous variables or chi-square 242 tests for categorical variables related to the nurses' healthy eating promotion 243 244 practices, beliefs and barriers. Descriptive data are presented as mean and 245 standard deviation or counts and frequencies depending on the type of data. 246 All statistical tests were two-sided with a significance level of p<0.05 and performed with SPSS version 22. 247

248 **Results**

All registered members with a valid email address of the CNSA and NZNO received an invitation to complete the online questionnaire between October or December 2013 and July 2014. The exact response rate is unknown; however, as a guide the number of members at that time ranged from 500 to 1500 in each organization. A total of 123 registered nurses from Australia and New Zealand completed the online questionnaire.

255 Details of the demographic profiles are presented in Table 1. In summary, the 256 majority of participants (95.9%) were female, the mean age was 48.7 ± 10.5 257 years and the mean number of years in practice was 23.0 ± 11.7 years. The most common field nurses worked in was general oncology (n=48, 40%), with 258 a specialisation in gynaecological cancers being the second most common 259 group (n=21, 17.5%). The vast majority of cancer nurses were based in 260 261 public (n=102, 84%) rather than private (n=19, 16%) hospitals. The location of the hospitals was distributed almost equally with 51.7% working in the 262 263 metropolitan area and 48.3% in regional or rural hospital locations.

264 Insert table 1 about here

265 Considering their own lifestyle behaviours, the majority of the respondents 266 (88%) reported that they eat healthy on a regular basis, and were not 267 currently smoking (98%). Almost half (47%) of the sample described

themselves as physically active in that they performed at least 5 sessions ofmoderate intensity exercise for 30 minutes or more per week.

The current nutrition promotion practices of cancer nurses are summarised in 270 Table 2. Most of the cancer nurses considered the dietician/nutritionist 271 (35.9%) as the primary person responsible for providing healthy eating 272 advice to their patients; however, 32.5% of nurses considered they were the 273 274 primary person responsible for addressing their patients' nutrition concerns. 275 Almost 75% of the respondents stated that the most common time they 276 promoted healthy eating was during cancer treatment. More than half of nurses (52.8%) promoted healthy eating to their patients during all cancer 277 278 stages (pre-, during, and post-treatment).

279 Insert table 2 about here

280 Sub-group comparisons were analysed for years of practice (<25years versus 281 \geq 25years) as well as hospital location (metropolitan versus rural and regional 282 located hospitals). No significant differences in nutrition practices were 283 observed between nurses with more or less than 25 years of experience. 284 Significantly more nurses working in metropolitan areas considered the 285 nutritionist/dietician as the primary person responsible for healthy diet advice compared with nurses in rural hospitals (46.8% vs 24.1%, p=0.015, 286 287 respectively).

The current nutrition promotion beliefs are summarised in Table 3. A majority 288 289 of cancer nurses agreed or strongly agreed that healthy eating improves health-related QoL (85.4%), weight management (82.9%), mental health 290 (80.5%), activities of daily living (79.7%) and risk of other chronic diseases 291 292 (79.7%) for cancer patients. Moreover, 70.7% agreed or strongly agreed that 293 healthy eating could reduce risk of cancer recurrence and 63.4% believed 294 that healthy eating can reduce tumour specific comorbidities. While 68.3% of 295 cancer nurses believed that healthy eating has some benefits for their 296 patients, 29.3% did not respond to this guestion.

A range of other beliefs may affect the cancer nurses' promotion of healthy 297 298 eating to their patients. For example, 75.5% of the cancer nurses believed the evidence base for healthy eating promotion to their patients is strong, 299 300 with 69.9% of the nurses also feeling that their cancer patients are interested 301 in healthy eating advice. More than half (59.4%) felt that their cancer 302 nursing peers believe that all nurses should promote healthy eating to cancer patients. Interestingly, only 49% of the nurses felt that they were in control 303 304 of what healthy eating advice they provided their patients.

305 Insert table 3 about here

306 Table 4 compares the current healthy eating beliefs of the cancer nurses 307 across years of practice and hospital location (metropolitan versus rural and

regional). In general, there were few significant effects for years of practice 308 or hospital location on the cancer nurses' healthy eating beliefs. 309 The exceptions to this were that less experienced cancer nurses (<25 years of 310 practice) were significantly more likely to believe that healthy eating could 311 312 reduce tumour specific comorbidities than their more experienced 313 counterparts (p=0.042). The cancer nurses working in metropolitan hospitals 314 were also significantly more likely to believe healthy eating could have 315 positive impacts on health related QoL (p=0.046).

316 Insert table 4 about here

Table 5 provides data on the most frequently cited barriers to healthy eating 317 318 promotion. The most commonly cited barriers for not promoting healthy 319 eating were lack of time (25.8%), lack of adequate support structures (17.3%), lack of expertise (12.2%), risk to cancer patient (5.1%) and lack of 320 knowledge (4.4%); with 2.2% not considering it their job to give dietary 321 322 advice. However, almost a third (31.6%) reported no barriers in promoting a healthy diet. Sub-group analysis between nurses working in metropolitan vs. 323 324 regional/rural hospitals or with more or less than 25 years of experience reported some significant differences in the frequency of most commonly 325 cited barriers to healthy eating promotion. Compared to the less experienced 326 cancer nurses (<25 years of practice), those with \geq 25 years experience were 327 more likely to state they had no barriers in promoting healthy eating 328

329 (p=0.045). The less experienced nurses also cited a lack of knowledge 330 significantly more often as a perceived barrier to healthy eating promotion 331 than their more experienced counterparts (p<0.001). Regarding hospital 332 location, cancer nurses working in regional and rural hospitals were more 333 likely to cite a risk to the cancer patient as a barrier to healthy eating 334 promotion than those working in metropolitan hospitals (p<0.001).

335 Insert table 5 about here

336 Discussion

As emerging research indicates the benefits of maintaining a healthy diet in 337 cancer patients and patients (Langius et al. 2013; Millar & Davison 2012; 338 Mokdad et al. 2003), this study sought to gain some insight into the current 339 340 nutrition promotion practices, beliefs and perceived barriers of cancer nurses 341 in Australia and New Zealand. Such insight is important as: 1.) virtually no 342 peer reviewed research on this topic has been published in Australasia; and 2.) cancer nurses often have more interaction with cancer patients and 343 344 therefore more opportunities to discuss healthy behaviours such as nutrition than other health professionals like oncologists (Blake & Patterson 2015; 345 346 Karvinen et al. 2012; O'Hanlon & Kennedy 2014).

347 Our results demonstrate that while the cancer nurses surveyed believed that 348 providing healthy eating advice to cancer patients was primarily the

responsibility of dieticians, they also felt that nurses as a profession played a very important role as well. Such views appear consistent with other studies on nurse behaviour, whereby they provide important information to cancer patients on topics as broad as sexual health (Kotronoulas et al. 2009) and the benefits of physical activity (Karvinen et al. 2012). This would suggest that the promotion of healthy eating by cancer nurses to their patients is not beyond their current scope of practice.

356 The nurses in the current study felt that oncologists were the least likely 357 health professional group (3.3%) to be the primary provider of nutritional advice to patients. Such results appear consistent with the relatively low 358 359 proportion of oncologists providing lifestyle advice, with only 28% actually recommending physical activity to any survivor at the time of consultation 360 361 (Jones et al. 2005a). The relatively minor role that oncologists appear to play in promoting healthy behaviours such as healthy eating and physical activity 362 363 to their patients may reflect a number of factors. Most notably, the primary role of oncologists and other physicians is to give their patients accurate 364 365 information about treatment options and to discuss medical issues. Due to 366 their relative lack of training in nutrition and physical activity and time constraints during consultations, they may briefly mention the importance of 367 368 healthy behaviours to patients, but leave more in-depth discussions to other health professionals, such as nurses. The cancer nurses may, therefore, be 369 able to reinforce health promotion messages initially delivered by the 370 oncologist, assisting the patients change their behaviour (van der Molen 371 1999). 372

Our results indicated that the majority of cancer nurses are promoting 373 374 healthy eating to their patients prior to (62.6%), during (74.8%) and posttreatment (64.2%), with 52.8% promoting healthy eating at every stage of 375 376 the treatment process. The promotion of healthy diet across all the 377 treatment phases is important as healthy eating has numerous benefits for 378 cancer patients, with some of these differences perhaps more important at the various treatment stages. Specifically, patients may experience 379 380 alterations in appetite and require somewhat different nutritional intakes over 381 each treatment phase in order to maintain sufficient nutritional intakes, body 382 composition and QoL (Aapro et al. 2014; Hung et al. 2013; Rock et al. 2012).

383 The relatively high rate of healthy eating promotion by cancer nurses in this study appears consistent with their beliefs around the importance of healthy 384 eating for their patients. The vast majority of the nurses in the current study 385 agreed or strongly agreed that healthy eating promotion leads to numerous 386 387 benefits for their patients, with improvement in QoL (85.4%), weight management (82.9%), mental health (80.5%), activities of daily living 388 389 (79.7%) and reducing risk of other chronic diseases (79.7%) being the most 390 common. It was however, interesting that only 75.5% of the cancer nurses agreed or strongly agreed that there is a strong evidence base for the 391 392 promotion of healthy eating to cancer patients. Collectively these results indicate that while cancer nurses believe that there is considerable evidence 393 that healthy eating has many benefits for their cancer patients, they are not 394 completely sure about the strength or extent of this evidence. This may 395 reflect the relatively limited number of studies examining specific nutritional 396

interventions within each cancer type, different treatments options or at different treatment phases. Nevertheless, healthy eating and other healthy behaviours may help to reduce risk of the long-term and late effects of cancer treatment including diabetes and obesity (Mokdad et al. 2003), osteoporosis (Millar & Davison 2012) and overall QoL (Langius et al. 2013).

Interestingly, cancer nurses thought that a high proportion (69.9%) of their 402 403 patients were interested in healthy eating. This perception is inconsistent 404 with recent data from the U.K., where one of the most consistent barriers 405 cited by nurses, surgeons, and physicians to providing lifestyle advice, was lack of cancer patient interest. Other data suggest that cancer patients would 406 407 welcome advice on health promotion and lifestyle (Anderson et al. 2013; Demark-Wahnefried et al. 2000; Keogh et al. 2014). These discrepancies 408 throughout the literature suggest that improved communication is necessary 409 to meet patients' needs. Nurses interested in improving their healthy eating 410 411 (or other healthy behaviours) communication and promotion should consider the integration of evidence-based practice, with behaviour change theories 412 413 such as the SCT shown to be an effective approach in delivering such 414 information to cancer patients (Stacey et al. 2015).

The current study was also interested in identifying what barriers the nurses may have in promoting healthy eating to their cancer patients. Almost one third (31.6%) of the nurses stated that they did not have any barriers to promoting healthy eating, while for those who identified barriers, the lack of time (25.8%), adequate support structures (17.3%) and expertise (12.2%) were most common. Such results appear consistent with research involving

other health professionals in promoting healthy behaviours to patients (Blake 421 & Patterson 2015; Brandes et al. 2015; Brotons et al. 2005). These barriers 422 also appeared similar to the views of 236 cancer patients regarding 423 consultations with their health professionals, with a lack of consultation time 424 425 and an inability of the health professionals to provide accurate information 426 cited as some of the major issues (Brandes et al. 2015). To overcome these issues and improve patient outcomes, more effort should be placed upon 427 428 increasing consultation times between the patient and the oncology care 429 team, providing continuing education for cancer nurses around the benefits 430 of healthy eating, and the provision of greater support structures, such as referral pathways or specific nutritional resources to provide to their patients. 431 Hospital and national healthcare policies may therefore, need to be 432 considered to reduce some of these barriers to healthy eating promotion by 433 434 the cancer nurses.

435 It was noteworthy that the years of practice (experience of the nurses) or location of the hospital in which the cancer nurses worked resulted in few 436 437 significant differences in their nutritional promotion practices, beliefs, or 438 barriers. This finding was somewhat unexpected as it was thought that more experienced nurses may be more likely to promote healthy behaviours like 439 440 healthy eating than less experienced nurses. We also expected that nurses in metropolitan hospitals would likely have greater access to specialised service 441 providers such as dieticians than nurses working in regional and rural 442 hospitals. On this basis, it was expected that the metropolitan nurses may be 443 more reluctant to work outside their primary area of expertise and be less 444

involved in promoting healthy behaviours such as healthy diet to their cancer patients. The relative lack of effect of years of practice and hospital location on the cancer nurses' healthy diet promotion practices, beliefs and barriers is a positive finding that increases the generalisability of these results and highlights the strong interest cancer nurses have in providing the best care to their cancer patients.

451 This study is not without its limitations. The sample size of 123 nurses who 452 completed the survey only represents a small proportion of the registered 453 Australasian cancer nurses. Therefore, the sample recruited in the study may not be truly representative of Australasian cancer nurses, especially those 454 455 working in private hospitals, as only 19 of the 123 respondents currently work in this sector. Nevertheless, the sample size of the current study is greater 456 than (O'Hanlon & Kennedy 2014; Spellman et al. 2014) or similar to (Daley et 457 al. 2008; Karvinen et al. 2010) other quantitative survey-based studies 458 459 examining healthy behaviour promotion by health professionals to cancer patients. 460

The results of this study add to the existing literature regarding the 461 promotion of healthy eating by health professionals to their cancer patients, 462 particularly cancer nurses working in Australasia. Specifically, there is very 463 464 limited research about healthy behaviour promotion (in general) of health professionals to cancer patients in Australasia (Spellman et al. 2014), or 465 466 international research on the role of cancer nurses in healthy behaviour promotion (Karvinen et al. 2012; Williams et al. 2013). It is hoped the results 467 of this study will encourage additional research into the current healthy 468

behaviour promotion practices of cancer nurses, while also highlighting some 469 of the barriers they face in providing this important information to their 470 patients. Based on current evidence (Langius et al. 2013; Millar & Davison 471 2012; Mokdad et al. 2003), it would appear likely that an increased promotion 472 of healthy behaviours, including a healthy diet and physical activity by health 473 474 professionals to cancer patients would result in improved survivor outcomes. Cancer nurses are ideally placed to deliver these initial messages and to refer 475 476 interested patients to dieticians or nutritionists for further healthy eating assistance. 477

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Table 1(on next page)

Sample Demographics

| Sample (n=123) | n (%) |
|---------------------------------------|------------|
| Age (years, n=121) | |
| <25 | 4 (3.3) |
| 26-35 | 10 (8.2) |
| 36-45 | 31 (25.6) |
| 46-55 | 40 (33.1) |
| 56-65 | 33 (27.3) |
| >65 | 3 (2.5) |
| Gender (n=122) | |
| Male | 5 (4.1) |
| Female | 117 (95.9) |
| Highest Educational Qualification | |
| (n=123) | |
| Registered nurse / Bachelor's Degree | 34 (27.6) |
| Diploma/ Graduate Certificate | 55 (44.7) |
| Master's Degree | 33 (26.8) |
| Cancer group specialisation (n=120) | · · · · |
| General oncology | 48 (40) |
| Gynaecological (breast, ovary) | 21 (17.5) |
| Haematology | 9 (7.5) |
| Urogenital (prostate, bladder) | 7 (5.8) |
| Palliative care settings | 7 (5.8) |
| Lung | 6 (5) |
| Gastrointestinal/colorectal | 6 (5) |
| Other (head and neck cancer, sarcoma, | 11 (9.2) |
| skin lymphoma, paediatrics) | |
| Years practicing (years, n=121) | |
| <5 | 8 (6 6) |
| 5-14 9 | 27 (22 3) |
| 15-24 9 | 27 (22.3) |
| >25 | 59 (48.8) |
| Hospital (n=121) | |
| Public | 102 (84 3) |
| Private | 19 (15 7) |
| Location (n=120) | () |
| Metropolitan | 62 (51 7) |
| Regional | 39 (32 5) |
| Rural | 19 (15.8) |
| Regular reader of professional | |
| journals (n=123) | |
| Yes | 60 (48 8) |
| No | 63 (51 2) |

Table 2(on next page)

Nutrition promotion practices and sub-group comparison for years of practice and hospital location

'Numbers may not equal 123 due to missing data or missing response. ' 'Multiple-choice answers were possible. Metro = Metropolitan. *p<0.05; group differences based on Pearson Chi-squared analysis

| 1 | Table 2 Nutrition pro | omotion practices and | sub-group compariso | on for years of practice | and hospital location. |
|---|-----------------------|-----------------------|---------------------|--------------------------|------------------------|
|---|-----------------------|-----------------------|---------------------|--------------------------|------------------------|

| | n=123 ⁱ (%) | | Years of pract n=121 (%) | ice | | ion | |
|--|----------------------------|------------------|-----------------------------|---------|--------------------------|---------------------------------------|---------|
| | | <25years n=60 | ≥25years n= 61 (50 4) | p-value | Metro n= 62 (51 7) | Rural & Regional n=58 (48-3) | p-value |
| In your opinion, who is | the primary | (49.0) | (30.4) | | | (40.3) | |
| person responsible for he in your hospital? | ealthy eating | | | | | | |
| Me | 40 (32.5) | 17 (28.3) | 23 (37.7) | 0.273 | 17 (27.4) | 23 (39.7) | 0.171 |
| Nutritionist/Dietician | 43 (35.0) | 25 (41.7) | 17 (27.9) | 0.111 | 29 (46.8) | 14 (24.1) | 0.015* |
| Oncologist | 4 (3.3) | 3 (5.0) | 1 (1.6) | 0.301 | 0 (0) | 4 (6.9) | 0.099 |
| Other | 20 (16.3) | 12 (20.0) | 8 (13.1) | 0.308 | 10 (16.1) | 9 (15.5) | 0.717 |
| I don't know | 6 (4.9) | 2 (3.3) | 4 (6.6) | 0.414 | 4 (6.5) | 2 (3.4) | 0.691 |
| Please indicate in which cancer treatment health promoted ^{i i} | ch stage of y eating is | | | | | | |
| Pre Treatment | 77 (62.6) | 40 (66.7) | 37 (60.7) | 0.492 | 37 (59.7) | 40 (69.0) | 0.289 |
| During Treatment | 92 (74.8) | 49 (79.0) | 43 (70.5) | 0.150 | 46 (74.2) | 45 (77.6) | 0.664 |
| Post Treatment | 79 (64.2) | 43 (69.4) | 36 (59.0) | 0.144 | 40 (64.5) | 39 (67.2) | 0.753 |
| Every stage | 65 (52.8) | 34 (54.8) | 31 (50.8) | 0.519 | 32 (51.6) | 33 (56.9) | 0.562 |
| I don't know | 10 (8.1) | 4 (6.5) | 6 (9.8) | 0.527 | 7 (11.3) | 3 (5.2) | 0.226 |

ⁱNumbers may not equal 123 due to missing data or missing response. ⁱ Multiple-choice answers were possible. Metro = Metropolitan. *p<0.05; group differences based on Pearson Chi-squared analysis 2

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Table 3(on next page)

Current beliefs of cancer nursers regarding healthy eating for cancer patients

*all questions rated on a 4-point Likert scale with 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = agree and 4 = strongly agree. Metro = Metropolitan. Numbers may not equal 123 due to missing data

| What benefits may healthy eating have for your cancer patients?* | Strongly Agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree | No response |
|--|-------------------|-----------|-----------|----------------------|-------------|
| n=123 ⁱ | n (%) | n (%) | n (%) | n (%) | n (%) |
| Improve health related quality of life | 62 (50.4) | 43 (35.0) | 2 (1.6) | 0 | 16 (13.0) |
| Improve weight management | 64 (52.0) | 38 (30.9) | 3 (2.4) | 0 | 18 (14.6) |
| Improve mental health | 51 (41.5) | 48 (39.0) | 6 (4.9) | 0 | 18 (14.6) |
| Improve activities of daily living | 48 (39.0) | 50 (40.7) | 6 (4.9) | 0 | 19 (15.4) |
| Reduce risk of cancer recurrence | 31 (25.2) | 56 (45.5) | 15 (12.2) | 1 (0.8) | 20 (16.4) |
| Reduce risk of other chronic diseases | 44 (35.8) | 54 (43.9) | 4 (3.3) | 0 | 21 (17.1) |
| Reduce tumour specific comorbidities | 25 (20.3) | 53 (43.1) | 20 (16.3) | 2 (1.6) | 23 (18.7) |
| No benefits | 0 | 3 (2.4) | 9 (7.3) | 75 (61.0) | 36 (29.3) |
| My cancer patients are generally uninterested | 4 (3.3) | 13 (10.6) | 73 (59.3) | 13 (10.6) | 20 (16.3) |
| Whether or not I promote healthy eating to my | 18 (14.6) | 42 (34.1) | 25 (20.3) | 13 (10.6) | 25 (20.3) |
| My fellow nurses believe I should be | 14 (11.4) | 59 (48.0) | 18 (14.6) | 4 (3.3) | 28 (22.8) |
| promoting healthy eating to my cancer patients There is a strong evidence base suggesting I should promote healthy eating to my cancer patients | 41 (33.3) | 52 (42.3) | 3 (2.4) | 1 (0.8) | 26 (21.1) |

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Table 4(on next page)

Comparison of cancer nurses' believes towards healthy eating across sample demographics

Data presented as mean ±SD. ⁱall items rated on 4-point Likert scale, with 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = agree and 4 = strongly agree. Metro = Metropolitan. * p<0.05, group differences based on one way analysis of variance (ANOVA)

| What benefits may healthy eating have for | Years | s of | pract | ice | | Location | | |
|---|-------|------|-------|-----|--------|---------------|---------------|--------|
| your cancer patients? ¹ | | <25 | | | р | Metro | Rural & | р |
| | years | | years | | | | Regional | |
| Improve health related quality of life | 3.2 | ± | 2.9 | ± | 0.254 | 3.3 ± 1.1 | 2.9 ± 1.3 | 0.046* |
| | 1.1 | | 1.4 | | | | | |
| Improve weight management | 3.2 | ± | 2.9 | ± | 0.200 | 3.2 ± 1.1 | 2.9 ± 1.4 | 0.158 |
| | 1.1 | | 1.4 | | | | | |
| Improve mental health | 3.1 | ± | 2.7 | ± | 0.149 | 3.1 ± 1.1 | 2.8 ± 1.4 | 0.231 |
| | 1.1 | | 1.4 | | | | | |
| Improve activities of daily living | 2.9 | ± | 2.8 | ± | 0.547 | 3.1 ± 1.0 | 2.7 ± 1.5 | 0.140 |
| | 1.2 | | 1.4 | | | | | |
| Reduce risk of cancer recurrence | 2.8 | ± | 2.5 | ± | 0.270 | 2.8 ± 1.1 | 2.5 ± 1.3 | 0.173 |
| | 1.1 | | 1.4 | | | | | |
| Reduce risk of other chronic diseases | 3.0 | ± | 2.6 | ± | 0.159 | 3.0 ± 1.2 | 2.6 ± 1.4 | 0.111 |
| | 1.2 | | 1.4 | | | | | |
| Reduce tumour specific comorbidities | 2.7 | ± | 2.2 | ± | 0.042* | 2.6 ± 1.3 | 2.3 ± 1.3 | 0.169 |
| | 1.1 | | 1.4 | | | | | |
| No benefits | 0.9 | ± | 0.7 | ± | 0.135 | 0.9 ± 0.6 | 0.7 ± 0.6 | 0.184 |
| | 0.6 | | 0.6 | | | | | |
| My cancer patients are generally uninterested in | 1.8 | ± | 1.6 | ± | 0.257 | 1.8 ± 0.9 | 1.6 ± 0.9 | 0.248 |
| healthy eating ^{i i} | 0.8 | | 1.0 | | | | | |
| Whether or not I promote healthy eating to my | 2.1 | ± | 2.1 | ± | 0.849 | 2.2 ± 1.3 | 2.0 ± 1.3 | 0.401 |
| cancer patients is entirely up to me ^{i i} | 1.3 | | 1.4 | | | | | |
| My fellow nurses believe I should be promoting | 2.2 | ± | 2.2 | ± | 0.882 | 2.2 ± 1.2 | 2.2 ± 1.4 | 0.946 |
| healthy eating to my cancer patients ^{i i} | 1.2 | | 1.4 | | | | | |
| There is a strong evidence based suggesting I | 2.6 | ± | 2.7 | ± | 0.744 | 2.7 ± 1.4 | 2.6 ± 1.4 | 0.842 |
| should promote healthy eating to my cancer | 1.4 | | 1.4 | | | | | |
| patients ⁱ i | | | | | | | | |

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Table 5(on next page)

The most frequently cited nutrition promotion barriersⁱ

ⁱPoints given on 3-point rating scale: highest rated barrier 3 points, lowest rated barrier 1 point. ⁱⁱNumbers may not equal 123 due to missing data among groups. *p<0.05, **p<0.01, group differences based on Chi-squared analysis.

| N=123 | I do not have barriers in promoting healthy eating | Lack of time | Lack of adequate support structures | Lack of expertise | Risk to patient | Lack of knowledge | Not my job |
|-----------------------|--|--------------|--|----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|------------|
| Total n ⁱⁱ | 142 | 116 | 78 | 55 | 23 | 20 | 10 |
| (%) | (31.6) | (25.8) | (17.3) | (12.2) | (5.1) | (4.4) | (2.2) |
| Location | | | | | | | |
| Metropolitan | 73 | 63 | 49 | 30 | 4 | 11 | 5 |
| | (30.8) | (26.6) | (20.7) | (12.7) | (1.7) | (4.6) | (2.1) |
| Rural & Regional | 69 | 53 | 29 | 22 | 20 | 7 | 4 |
| - | (33.2) | (25.5) | (13.9) | (10.6) | (9.6) | (3.4) | (1.9) |
| P value | 0.658 | 0.820 | 0.088 | 0.520 | 0.0004 ** | 0.501 | 0.890 |
| Years of practice | | | | | | | |
| <25 years | 63 | 59 | 39 | 36 | 9 | 19 | 6 |
| - | (26.7) | (25.0) | (16.5) | (15.3) | (3.8) | (8.1) | (2.5) |
| >25 years | 79 | 54 | 39 | 19 | 14 | 1 | 4 |
| - | (37.4) | (25.5) | (18.5) | (9.0) | (6.6) | (0.5) | (1.9) |
| P value | 0.045* | 0.901 | 0.621 | 0.058 | 0.192 | 0.0001** | 0.646 |

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