



Iterative four-phase development of a theory-based digital behaviour change intervention to reduce occupational sedentary behaviour

Stephenson, A., Garcia-Constantino, M., McDonough, S., Murphy, M. H., Nugent, CD., & Mair, J. L. (2020). Iterative four-phase development of a theory-based digital behaviour change intervention to reduce occupational sedentary behaviour. *Digital Health*, 6, 1-15. Advance online publication. <https://doi.org/10.1177/2055207620913410>

[Link to publication record in Ulster University Research Portal](#)

Published in:
Digital Health

Publication Status:
Published online: 25/03/2020

DOI:
[10.1177/2055207620913410](https://doi.org/10.1177/2055207620913410)

Document Version
Author Accepted version

General rights

Copyright for the publications made accessible via Ulster University's Research Portal is retained by the author(s) and / or other copyright owners and it is a condition of accessing these publications that users recognise and abide by the legal requirements associated with these rights.

Take down policy

The Research Portal is Ulster University's institutional repository that provides access to Ulster's research outputs. Every effort has been made to ensure that content in the Research Portal does not infringe any person's rights, or applicable UK laws. If you discover content in the Research Portal that you believe breaches copyright or violates any law, please contact pure-support@ulster.ac.uk.

DIGITAL HEALTH

Iterative 4-phase development of a theory-based digital behaviour change intervention to reduce occupational sedentary behaviour

Journal:	<i>Digital Health</i>
Manuscript ID	DHJ-19-0283.R1
Manuscript Type:	Original Research
Date Submitted by the Author:	17-Feb-2020
Complete List of Authors:	Stephenson, Aoife; University of Ulster at Jordanstown, School of Sport Garcia-Constantino, Matias; University of Ulster at Jordanstown, School of Computing McDonough, Suzanne; Royal College of Surgeons in Ireland; University of Ulster at Jordanstown, School of Health Sciences Murphy, Marie H.; University of Ulster at Jordanstown, School of Sport Nugent, Chris; University of Ulster at Jordanstown, School of Computing Mair, Jacqueline; Edinburgh Napier University, School of Applied Sciences
Keywords:	Sedentary Behaviour, Office workers, Digital Behaviour Change, Digital Intervention Development, App development, Iterative development, Usability testing
Abstract:	<p>Introduction: As high amounts of occupational sitting have been associated with negative health consequences, designing workplace interventions to reduce Sedentary Behaviour (SB) is of public health interest. Digital technology may serve as a cost-effective and scalable platform to deliver such an intervention. This study describes the iterative development of a theory-based, Digital Behaviour Change Intervention (DBCI) to reduce occupational SB.</p> <p>Methods: The Behaviour Change Wheel (BCW) and The Behaviour Change Technique Taxonomy (BCTTv1) were used to guide the intervention design process and form a basis for selecting the intervention components. The development process consisted of 4 phases. Phase 1: Preliminary research, Phase 2: Consensus workshops, Phase 3: White boarding, Phase 4: Usability testing.</p> <p>Results: The process led to the development and refinement of a smartphone application - "Worktivity". The core component was self-monitoring and feedback of SB at work, complemented by additional features focusing on goal setting, prompts and reminders to break up prolonged periods of sitting, and educational facts and tips. Key features of the app included simple data entry and personalisation based on each individual's self-reported sitting time. Results from the "think-aloud" interviews (n=5) suggest "Worktivity" was well-accepted and users were positive about its features.</p> <p>Conclusion: This study led to the development of "Worktivity", a theory-based and user-informed mobile app intervention to reduce occupational</p>

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

	SB. It is the first app of its kind developed with the primary aim of reducing occupational SB using digital self-monitoring. This paper provides a template to guide others developing and evaluating technology-supported behaviour change interventions.



Iterative 4-phase development of a theory-based digital behaviour change intervention to reduce occupational sedentary behaviour

Abstract

Introduction: As high amounts of occupational sitting have been associated with negative health consequences, designing workplace interventions to reduce Sedentary Behaviour (SB) is of public health interest. Digital technology may serve as a cost-effective and scalable platform to deliver such an intervention. This study describes the iterative development of a theory-based, Digital Behaviour Change Intervention (DBCI) to reduce occupational SB.

Methods: The Behaviour Change Wheel (BCW) and The Behaviour Change Technique Taxonomy (BCTTv1) were used to guide the intervention design process and form a basis for selecting the intervention components. The development process consisted of 4 phases. Phase 1: Preliminary research, Phase 2: Consensus workshops, Phase 3: White boarding, Phase 4: Usability testing.

Results: The process led to the development and refinement of a smartphone application - "Worktivity". The core component was self-monitoring and feedback of SB at work, complemented by additional features focusing on goal setting, prompts and reminders to break up prolonged periods of sitting, and educational facts and tips. Key features of the app included simple data entry and personalisation based on each individual's self-reported sitting time. Results from the "think-aloud" interviews (n=5) suggest "Worktivity" was well-accepted and users were positive about its features.

Conclusion: This study led to the development of "Worktivity", a theory-based and user-informed mobile app intervention to reduce occupational SB. It is the first app of its kind developed with the primary aim of reducing occupational SB using digital self-monitoring. This paper provides a template to guide others developing and evaluating technology-supported behaviour change interventions.

Introduction:

Office work is generally characterised by prolonged periods of sitting and contributes significantly to the overall sedentary time of office workers¹. Sedentary activities have been shown to comprise 65-82% of time at work in industrialised countries¹⁻³ with a large proportion (54-77%) of office workers' total daily sitting time occurring during their working day.^{2, 4, 5} This high occupational exposure to sedentary behaviour (SB) has broad implications for population health. Recent systematic reviews report evidence linking SB to all-cause mortality, cardiovascular disease, type 2 diabetes, metabolic syndrome and some cancers.⁶⁻⁹ Specifically relating to occupational SB, results of other systematic reviews show associations between occupational sitting and Body Mass Index (BMI), and the prevalence of type 2 diabetes, all-cause mortality and certain cancers.¹⁰⁻¹² Therefore, occupational SB has become an emergent workplace health concern.¹³

The use of digital technology to monitor and improve health is growing in popularity. A recent survey on digital health showed that 75% of consumers in the United States reported technology as important in managing their health.¹⁴ An increasing number of consumers in England also report that technologies have become more important in managing their health (up from 37% in 2016 to 48% in 2018), with the use of wearables also increasing (up from 22% in 2016 to 31% in 2018).¹⁵ Moreover, the smartphone has become intertwined into our daily lives. A recent UK survey reports that 87% of respondents own or have access to a smartphone.¹⁶ Given the widespread usage of digital health devices, there is great potential for well-designed Digital Behaviour Change Interventions (DBCIs) to facilitate positive health behaviour change.

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

There is evidence to support the use of digital technologies as intervention tools to improve health behaviours. Computer and mobile technologies have been successfully applied to improve diet and physical activity,^{17, 18} sexual health behaviours,¹⁹ weight management,²⁰ alcohol reduction¹⁸ and smoking cessation.^{21, 22} Digital technologies have also been used to reduce SB.^{23, 24} In a recent systematic review and meta-analysis, interventions using computer, mobile and wearable technologies were shown to reduce SB over the whole day as well as during working hours.²⁴ There are many features of DBCIs that make them potentially effective. They can broaden the reach and scale of behaviour change interventions, be highly personalised, and deliver information in a way that is engaging and rewarding.^{25, 26} Research also suggests that technology-based interventions can be cost effective and less labour intensive than face-to-face interventions.²⁶⁻²⁹ Although encouraging, the research describing how digital tools can be harnessed to reduce occupational SB, is still in its infancy

It has been suggested that digital interventions to reduce occupational SB may be most valuable as a platform to allow behavioral self-monitoring.³⁰ It also has been reported that existing digital interventions lack theory³¹ and that the most promising SB interventions tend to target reducing SB instead of increasing physical activity.^{32, 33} Systematic reviews have also suggested a dearth of existing theory informed digital tools, focused on reducing occupational SB and allow behavioural self-monitoring^{24, 34}, further highlighting the need to create a more appropriate digital tool.

There is a need for the methodical development and rigorous evaluation of new, theory-supported, technology-based interventions to reduce occupational SB. However, reporting on the development phases used in creating health-related digital technology is limited.³⁵ The process of developing effective digital interventions requires numerous decisions that integrate behavioural theory, user testing, and technical and practical feasibility considerations, including interventions to address occupational SB.³⁶⁻³⁸ The importance of behaviour change theory in digital

1
2
3 technologies has been stressed,^{26, 38} and indeed recommendations on the
4 prevention and management of non-communicable diseases highlight the need for
5 research focused on behaviour change as the core component.³⁹ Research suggests
6 that internet-based interventions developed with more extensive use of theory are
7 associated with larger effect sizes than those without.⁴⁰ Despite the clear
8 recommendations for use of theory, many digital interventions lack a theoretical
9 basis to improve health behaviours, and reduce occupational sitting.^{31, 41-44}

10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20 To promote engagement with digital interventions, a “user-centred” approach is
21 essential.⁴⁵ User-Centred Design (UCD) is an iterative design process in which
22 designers involve users throughout the design process.⁴⁶ Incorporating UCD
23 principles ensures that interventions are responsive to users’ needs and preferences,
24 and are designed “from the ground-up” rather than based on developers’
25 preconceptions or rigid procurement briefs.^{45, 47} This study describes the process
26 undertaken to design and develop a digital DBCI to reduce occupational SB in office
27 workers.

28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 **Development Process and Outcomes:**

37
38 The development process reported in this paper was conducted in line with the MRC
39 guidelines for the development and evaluation of complex interventions.⁴⁸ It
40 involved the preliminary phases of intervention development as outlined in Table 1.
41 The process was managed by a collaborative planning and design team of six
42 members including behaviour change researchers, SB and physical activity experts,
43 computer scientists. The process was iterative and involved regular development
44 team meetings, repeated reviews and multiple discussions to resolve issues as they
45 arose. Excluding the time it took to conduct the systematic review and focus group
46 preliminary work (Activities a) and b), Table 1), the development process lasted
47 approximately three months.

Table 1 Schematic of development process

Phase	Activity	Outcome
1. Preliminary Research	a) Systematic Review and Meta-analysis b) Focus groups with target end users and stakeholders c) Review of BCW and BCTTv1	Understanding the behaviour and what needs to change
2. Consensus workshops	d) Additional review of wider/relevant literature e) Mind mapping f) Application of APEASE g) Selecting app components	Identify intervention options and content
3. White boarding	h) Interface design principles to design application software i) Sketches j) Wireframes	Design of prototype
4. Usability Testing	k) "Think Aloud" Interviews and iterative refinement	"Worktivity" app

BCW: Behaviour Change Wheel ⁴⁹

BCTTv1: Behaviour Change Technique Taxonomy version 1 ⁵⁰

APEASE: Acceptability, Practicability, Effectiveness and cost-effectiveness, Affordability, Safety/side-effects, Equity ⁵¹

Phase 1 Preliminary Research

Initially, a systematic review and meta-analysis of technology-enhanced interventions targeting SB reduction was conducted.²⁴ Results from this indicated that it may be possible to intervene and reduce occupational SB by approximately 40 minutes per day using technology enhanced interventions. This work was followed by a focus group study exploring the views of office workers, their managers and company board members on barriers, facilitators and strategies to reduce SB at work.³⁰ Qualitative analysis revealed that technology was generally seen to be a useful tool; particularly valuable in providing prompts and as a platform to allow behavioural self-monitoring via smartphone apps. These results informed the subsequent phases of the process as detailed in Table 1.

The Behaviour Change Wheel (BCW)⁴⁹ and The Behaviour Change Technique Taxonomy (BCTTv1)⁵⁰ were used to guide the development process and form a basis for selecting the intervention components. The BCW provides a structured, theoretical framework for designing behaviour change interventions and strategies⁵². The model has been successfully applied as a framework to develop DBCIs.^{53, 54} The BCTTv1 is an extensive hierarchically organised taxonomy of 93 distinct behaviour change techniques (BCT) which is linked to the BCW, but gives more specific description of the intervention options in the BCW and provides a way of characterising the content of behaviour change interventions at a finer grain level than in the BCW.^{26, 51} This approach was chosen to promote a systematic and comprehensive analysis of the available options using behaviour change theory and the available evidence.⁵¹ The key benefit of using this framework was to allow the designers to be comprehensive in considering all options, to intervene, and then to systematically select those that are most promising for the context.⁵²

Phase 1 outcomes: Prolonged occupational SB was established as the problem to be addressed due to the negative health consequences associated with prolonged

1
2
3 sitting. ^{8, 10} Reducing total time spent in SB at work was therefore established as the
4 primary target behaviour of the intervention, achieved through reductions in time
5 spent sitting, number of prolonged sitting bouts, increases in interruptions to sitting
6 and transitions from sitting to standing. Individual desk-based office workers were
7 identified as the target population.
8
9
10
11

12
13
14 The needs and preferences of the target population and key stakeholders were
15 identified in a previous study through focus groups discussions with office workers,
16 managers and board level employees.²⁴ Their identified needs and preferences, as
17 well as practical barriers and facilitators to reducing SB at work, were used to frame
18 the intervention and guide the proposed approaches and content. Specifically, we
19 focused on a personalised approach, minimising impact on work tasks, highlighting
20 opportunities to break SB during the work day so as not to compromise productivity,
21 and educating employees regarding the negative health consequences associated
22 with prolonged SB. Their preferences for digital interventions with low user burden,
23 delivered in a personalised, accurate and non-patronising fashion were also
24 considered.
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35

36 **Phase 2 Consensus Workshops**

37 Phase 2 (a)

38 *Consensus on strategy type*

39
40
41
42
43 Consensus workshops were held with the research team to amalgamate and discuss
44 findings of stage one, gain expert opinions, and draw upon evidence from existing
45 literature, and lasted approximately one hour in duration. Mind mapping sessions
46 were held as part of these workshops with members of the design team to define the
47 requirements of the DBCI. The APEASE criteria (Acceptability, Practicability,
48 Effectiveness and cost-effectiveness, Affordability, Safety/side-effects, Equity) was
49 used when making decisions about which technology strategy would be most
50 appropriate. ⁵¹ Decisions were made based on consensus amongst the group.
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

7

1
2
3
4
5 **Phase 2 (a) outcomes:** In our previous work, digital reminders/prompts and self-
6 monitoring of SB were identified as possible intervention strategies.^{24, 30} The
7 research team considered available technologies that could be used to facilitate
8 these strategies in the workplace.
9
10
11

12 13 14 *Digital reminders/prompts*

15
16 Websites and computer-based prompts were not selected as they are not portable.
17 Portability was deemed to be an important factor as a portable platform allowed
18 users to interact with the intervention when they were away from their desk e.g. off
19 site or in a meeting.
20
21
22

23 24 25 *Self-monitoring of SB*

26
27 The most promising SB interventions tend to target reducing SB instead of increasing
28 physical activity.^{32, 33} As wearable or mobile app based activity trackers (e.g. Fitbit,
29 Apple Health App) use an accelerometer to measure movement (i.e. PA and/or step
30 counts), they do not accurately capture non-movement (i.e. SB and/or posture)
31 because they use low step counts per minute as a proxy for SB.⁵⁵ A recent scoping
32 review of devices for self-monitoring sedentary time highlighted that there were only
33 a small number of devices capable of providing SB feedback, none of which were
34 originally designed to measure SB.⁵⁶ While inclinometers that can measure SB and
35 posture are available (e.g. ActivPAL™), these are designed for research purposes,
36 lack a user-friendly interface, and are not appropriate for everyday consumer use.
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44

45
46
47 The research team concluded that a smartphone app that allows individuals to
48 monitor their SB by self-report would overcome the device-based measurement
49 issues mentioned above. Mobile phones are ubiquitous, portable, small and light.⁵⁷
50 In addition, mobile apps to reduce SB were deemed potentially acceptable in our
51 previous qualitative work.³⁰ The research team also had expertise in app
52 development; therefore a smartphone app was the chosen technology strategy.
53
54
55
56
57

58
59 8
60

1
2
3
4
5 Phase 2 (b)

6 *Consensus on intervention functions*

7
8
9
10 The selection of intervention functions for inclusion in the app components was
11 informed by:

- 12
13
14
15 1. The intervention functions of the BCW framework ⁵¹.
- 16
17
18
19 2. A review of existing commercially available smartphone apps that focussed
20 on changing health behaviours, specifically a reduction in SB.
- 21
22
23
24 3. The expert discussion and consensus-building workshops on “best bets”.
25 Decisions were informed by knowledge of all the experts on the design team
26 as well as the current evidence, including the results from the systematic
27 review and meta-analysis, and focus group results as part of the preliminary
28 phase.
29
30
31
32
33
34
35 4. Expert advice on how feasible, in terms of computer programming, each
36 possible intervention function would be.
37
38
39
40

41 **Phase 2 (b) outcomes:**

42
43 Out of a possible nine intervention functions within the BCW, the team identified five
44 which were suitable to be incorporated into app components to reduce SB. These
45 were: Education, Persuasion, Enablement, Training, and Environmental
46 Restructuring. These five intervention functions were addressed by selecting four
47 specific apps components as shown in Table 2. The selection of the BCTs appropriate
48 for each function were based upon guidance provided by Michie et al. 2014 ⁵¹

49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56 The culmination of these stages resulted in an app consisting of 4 key components:

- 57 1. Self-monitoring and feedback

58
59
60

2. Prompts and reminders
3. Goal Setting and monitoring
4. Educational Facts and Tips

Table 2 App components aligned to the Behaviour Change Wheel

Component	Intervention Function	Behaviour Change Techniques *
Self-monitoring and feedback	Education	2.2. Feedback on behaviour 2.3. Self-monitoring of behaviour
	Persuasion	2.2. Feedback on behaviour
	Enablement	2.3. Self-monitoring of behaviour
Goal Setting	Enablement	1.1. Goal setting (behaviour) 1.4. Action planning
Prompts to break sitting	Environmental restructuring	7.1. Prompts/cues
	Enablement	7.1. Prompts/cues
Educational facts and tips	Education	5.1. Information about health consequences
	Training	4.1. Instruction on how to perform the behaviour

*These BCTs and their numbers are taken directly from the BCT Taxonomy V1 ⁵⁰

1. Self-monitoring and feedback

Self-monitoring and feedback was deemed to be the key component of the intervention as it has previously been shown to be effective in a similar community based “sit-less” intervention. Using a digital activity tracker and providing feedback on percentage time spent sedentary was the most important factor in supporting behaviour change. ⁵⁸ Furthermore, a recent systematic review exploring interventions with potential to reduce sedentary time in adults recommended that

1
2
3 new interventions should be developed around technologies that allow people to
4 monitor their SB.³³
5
6
7

8
9 The BCTs selected to be used within this app feature were “self-monitoring of
10 behaviour” and “feedback on behaviour”. The concept of “self-monitoring” is
11 comprised of two major attributes: (1) awareness of bodily symptoms, sensations,
12 daily activities, and cognitive processes, and (2) measurements, recordings, or
13 observations that inform cognition and provide information action.⁵⁹ Self-
14 monitoring can make the monitored activities more salient to the user.⁶⁰ “Feedback”
15 allows the rate of progress toward a goal to be determined and augments the effects
16 of self-monitoring.⁶¹⁻⁶⁴
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24

25 Self-monitoring has been shown to be a particularly promising BCT in interventions
26 to reduce SB.⁶⁵ Personalised feedback has also been shown to be effective in digital
27 weight loss interventions and has been suggested as an effective component within
28 technology-based behaviour change interventions.⁶⁶ Self-monitoring and feedback
29 also allows the intervention to be tailored to the individual. Tailoring interventions is
30 crucial as people tend to stop using technologies that do not correspond with their
31 daily lives.⁶⁷ Hence, tailoring to the user’s needs and preferences can improve
32 engagement.⁵¹
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41

42 2. Prompts and reminders to break sitting

43
44 Prompts and reminders were selected as an app feature as periodic prompts have
45 been shown to yield positive results in health behaviour interventions to encourage
46 and maintain behaviour change alone and as part of a multicomponent intervention.
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

68 Prompts and reminders were also identified in our systematic review and focus
group research^{24, 30} as possible intervention strategies to reduce occupational SB.
The specific BCT included in this section was “prompts and cues”. This BCT was
selected as it was identified in an intervention description where digital prompts to

1
2
3 break sitting were shown to be superior to education alone in reducing occupational
4 SB.⁶⁹
5
6
7
8

9 3. Goal setting and monitoring

10 Goal setting was added to the intervention components based on the
11 recommendation of its use in behaviour change interventions by the National
12 Institute for Health and Care Excellence.⁷⁰ It was also selected due to its current
13 evidence base in behaviour change interventions. Having a goal serves as a directive
14 and energising function, and can positively affect persistence and action.⁷¹ Results
15 from a recent meta-analysis also suggest that monitoring goals is an effective self-
16 regulation strategy.^{72,68} “Goal setting (behaviour)” was included as the main BCT for
17 this intervention component. This was selected as it was identified as one of the most
18 common BCTs in recent systematic reviews.^{24, 32} Action planning was also included
19 as a BCT as it has been shown to be effective in changing workplace sitting⁷³. The
20 goal setting and action planning relates to reducing daily occupational sitting time.
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34

35 4. Educational facts and tips

36 Educational facts and tips were included based upon the findings from our qualitative
37 study³⁰ which identified a lack of knowledge of the negative health effects of
38 prolonged SB. It cannot be assumed that all members of the public are aware that
39 sitting could be detrimental to their health, as it an emerging area of research.⁷⁴ It
40 was also identified in a systematic review that, despite education being identified as
41 one of the most promising BCTs, surprisingly few SB reduction interventions seek to
42 motivate participants through information provision or education.³² The facts and
43 tips were designed upon the basis of two BCTs “instruction on how to perform the
44 behaviour” and “information about health consequences” to give health advice and
45 tips to encourage less SB at work. Both of these BCTs have been identified as
46 promising in reducing SB.³²
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Phase 3 White Boarding

Once the intervention content and BCTs were identified, potential versions of an app were discussed amongst the whole team. An ideation session was held with three members of the research team (AS, MGC, CN) and from that, wireframes were drawn up (AS, MGC). These sketches presented a schematic of the main content and a basic design structure.

The app was designed based on principles from Usability Heuristics for User Interface Design,⁷⁵ Eight Golden Rules of Interface Design⁷⁶ and Human Interface Guidelines.

⁷⁷ Briefly these principles suggest that the app should:

- Use consistent and familiar terminology
- Offer informative feedback
- Keep displays simple and minimalistic
- Be visually appealing
- Provide clear engaging feedback

Phase 3 Outcomes

An intervention specification document detailing the design brief was drawn up by the team which was then used to create a high fidelity functional prototype. The app was then constructed using the Xamarin cross platform development tool (Microsoft Corporation, CA, US).

As the intervention relied heavily on self-reporting of SB, it was important that data entry was simple. A survey of health app use among US mobile phone owners showed that approximately half of app users stopped using the app, with high data entry burden mentioned as one of the primary reasons.⁷⁸ Data entry was achieved by moving a fixed-width slider across the screen until the desired value (time spent sitting within the previous hour) was presented (Figure 1). We based the data entry methods on a previous study which implemented the same data entry mechanism with success.⁷⁹

1
2
3
4
5 To further promote engagement, the prompts to break sitting were designed to be
6 non-punitive or didactic as this can affect the user experience.⁸⁰ The use of push
7 notifications was also used to increase user engagement. These were used to remind
8 the user to engage with the app and once interacted with, provided a quick
9 “shortcut” to the app’s self-monitoring section, lessening user burden. Functional
10 prototypes were tested iteratively “in house” during development for platform
11 stability and bugs, and were amended as required.
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19

20 **Phase 4. Usability testing**

21 Usability is one of the main barriers to the adoption of mobile health systems,⁸¹
22 particularly smartphones, whose small displays present particular usability
23 challenges.⁸² Therefore, evaluating usability was an important phase of the
24 development process. “Think-aloud” is a research method in which participants
25 speak aloud any words in their mind as they complete a task, or recall thoughts
26 immediately following completion of that task.^{83, 84} It can be of high value in
27 evaluating a system's design on usability flaws and is therefore frequently used to
28 gather information about a system's usability with potential end users.⁸⁵ It can reveal
29 how intervention techniques are interpreted by the intended recipients, help to
30 ensure the language used is understandable and give insight into what users think of
31 the graphic design, navigation and functionality.^{64, 86} It is an industry standard
32 approach in software development,⁷⁸ and has been used in similar studies to assess
33 usability in the development of digital interventions.^{86, 87}
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48

49 In order to assess the usability of the app, a “think-aloud” analysis was undertaken.
50
51 ⁸⁸ Ethical approval was obtained from Ulster University School of Sport Research
52 Ethics Filter Committee. A convenience sample of five desk-based office workers
53 (colleagues from the university) (100% Female) was recruited. This number was
54 selected as after five test subjects 77-85% of problems can be detected⁸⁹.
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Participants were given participant information sheets and provided written
4 informed consent before the study commenced. All sessions were one-on-one and
5
6 conducted face-to-face by AS. These took place in a private space within Ulster
7
8 University in September 2017, and each session lasted 20 to 26 minutes.
9

10
11
12 Participants were given a time compressed version of the functional app prototype,
13
14 whereby one hour was compressed to two minutes. This was to represent a
15
16 compressed 8-hour work day, as it was not feasible to test the app over the entire
17
18 course of a workday. Therefore the users tested the app over a 16 minute period.
19
20 The participants were requested to continue with their work tasks and to interact
21
22 with the app as prompted. Participants were requested to verbalise what they were
23
24 thinking about, looking at, doing, and feeling throughout the process of engaging
25
26 with the app. After the compressed work day ended, participants were asked to
27
28 provide information on how they liked the app, difficulties encountered and
29
30 suggestions for improvement. The exact questions are available in Supplementary
31
32 file 1.
33

34
35 The interviews were audio-recorded, transcribed verbatim and analysed using
36
37 thematic analysis.⁹⁰ This method has been used previously to analyse usability
38
39 studies of smartphone apps.^{80, 91} The transcripts were read multiple times to
40
41 familiarise content. Line-by-line coding was then undertaken to assign conceptual
42
43 labels to relevant excerpts of the data set. These codes were then used to devise an
44
45 initial set of themes which were revised iteratively before producing a final thematic
46
47 framework. Pertinent quotes were selected to characterise each theme.
48

49 **Phase 4 Outcomes**

50
51
52 Two major themes emerged from the data: (1) app design and (2) content. These
53
54 were both considered important elements influencing usability.
55
56
57
58

1
2
3 App Design: The app design theme reflected participants' need for simple data entry
4 systems which did not distract the user from their work.
5
6
7

8
9 *"I found the record sitting time very easy to use in that you literally just drag for as*
10 *many minutes as you need and then save it, do you know, if you were doing that a*
11 *few times throughout the day it would be very easily done"* Participant 1
12
13
14

15
16 Most participants deemed the slider mechanism as a simple and efficient method of
17 data entry, although one participant mentioned slight trouble with the touch screen
18 when attempting to use the slider.
19
20
21
22

23 *"Just sometimes when you're trying to slide your finger up for your time it kinda does*
24 *get, it's hard to get the slidey thing going which was a bit kind of frustrating"*
25 Participant 4
26
27
28
29

30
31 The design of the prompts, their delivery and the repeated need for data entry were
32 flagged by participants as potentially disruptive when workload was high.
33
34
35

36 *"If you were really sort of deep in to what you were doing, it's very easy then to allow*
37 *something like this to distract you"* Participant 5
38
39
40
41

42 Participants reported that the app was easy to operate and they valued the quick
43 and intuitive navigation afforded by the app.
44
45
46

47 *"The actual app itself is fairly easy to navigate"* Participant 2
48
49
50

51 The visual feedback graphs and goal setting displays were welcomed by users,
52 however, most participants had issues interpreting the information due to the units
53 not being displayed on the graphs and an inadequate explanation of the goal setting
54 display.
55
56
57
58

59 16
60

1
2
3
4
5 *"There's just 5 stars [in the goal setting section], so I don't really know what that*
6 *means" Participant 4*
7
8
9

10 Content: The content of the app was seen as useful, educational and informative.
11 One participant felt the app unsuitable for her at work as she preferred to sit whilst
12 at work.
13
14
15

16
17
18 *"I'm being more productive while I'm sitting, so I'm going to sit. It's a little bit*
19 *disruptive, sitting and standing" Participant 2*
20
21

22
23 The other participants found the content to be thought provoking and motivating.
24
25

26
27 *"It [the app] would actually make you think yea I need to get up" Participant 5*
28
29

30 Participants generally liked how the app was not overly complicated and did not have
31 an excessive number of features. The low app content was praised by users as they
32 felt too much content may be distracting and would overwhelm them with choice.
33
34
35

36
37
38 *"I think over all it gives you everything you would need and if anything more, I think*
39 *would nearly distract you from actually doing your work, you know it has everything*
40 *you need, in a compact format" Participant 1*
41
42
43

44
45 Overall, participants were very positive about the app. They generally felt that the
46 app was well designed and that the content was relevant.
47
48
49

50
51 *"It is clear and easy to use, it's not too complicated. It doesn't have anything too,*
52 *what's the word I'm looking for, irrelevant. It's all relevant and brief, which is good"*
53 *Participant 3*
54
55
56

57
58
59 17
60

1
2
3 They used and understood the app without major issues; although some participants
4 were unsure about exactly what they should do when they were prompted to reduce
5 SB and how long they should reduce their SB for.
6
7
8
9

10 *“Do I have to wait until the app tells me to sit down again?” Participant 1*
11
12

13
14 Overall, participants were very positive about the app.
15

16 *“Yea I think it’s lovely. It’s a nice wee app to use. It’s very easy. It’s good” Participant*
17 *1*
18
19

20
21 They generally felt that the app was well designed and that the content was relevant.
22

23
24 Participants expressed positive interest in the app.
25
26
27
28
29

30 Participants had suggestions to improve the overall user experience. The visual
31 display of feedback charts could be improved by adding units to the chart. They
32 suggested that a short description of how the goal setting feature worked and what
33 the display represented would be beneficial. It was noted that the prompts to log
34 sitting were very frequent which was deemed to be “annoying”. This was later
35 identified as a bug in the system; when users were entering the data another prompt
36 to enter data was sent to the phone.
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44

45 Based on these findings, the interface of the app was adapted and several
46 modifications were made to correct errors. Units (minutes per day) were added to
47 the feedback chart and a description of the goal setting feature was added. The issue
48 noted by one user where the slider was difficult to slide across the screen was not
49 fixed as the slider feature was generally well liked by the other participants. The issue
50 whereby users were unsure how long to break sitting by and what exactly to do with
51 their time was also not dealt with in app amendments. This was because the design
52 team did not want to impose tight rules on how to change behaviour and instead
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 wanted users to be free to make their own SB reduction choices. The new version of
4 the app went through thorough “in house” testing by the research team before the
5 final version was released.
6
7
8
9

10 **Phase 5 Final product**

11 The research team named the resulting smartphone app “Worktivity”: a
12 portmanteau of the words “work” and “activity”. The core component of the mobile
13 app was self-monitoring and feedback of SB at work. This was complemented by
14 additional features focusing on goal setting, prompts to break sitting and educational
15 facts and tips. Screenshots of these features are available in Figures 2-5.
16
17
18
19
20
21
22

23 **Outcomes of final product**

24 Figure 2 shows the “home screen” of “Worktivity”, where users can record sitting
25 time and view their activity log.
26
27
28
29
30
31
32

33 *Prompts to break sitting and Self-reporting/monitoring and Feedback*

34 The app prompts the user to self-monitor sitting time at work by asking “how long
35 have you spent sitting within the last 60 minutes?” each hour over the eight-hour
36 work day (Figure 1). The first prompt to self-report appears after the first hour of
37 work each day (e.g. 10.00am) and the last self-monitoring prompt occurs just as they
38 are scheduled to leave work (e.g. 5.00pm). Data entry takes place in the form of a
39 user-friendly horizontal “slider” and participants respond to the question by moving
40 the slider to the number of minutes they reported to have spent sitting in the last
41 hour. After five minutes, if no response is entered, a reminder is delivered. Based
42 upon the results of the personalised goal set by the user (discussed below) and their
43 self-monitoring input, if their sitting time is too high, a prompt appears on the screen
44 with advice to break their sitting. This prompt is in the form of a visual screen prompt,
45 vibration and an auditory alarm. Participants can set the phone to their preference
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 of alert but were advised to keep the device's default auditory and vibratory prompts
4 activated.
5
6

7
8 The app also provides a feedback progress report with graphical displays of time
9 spent sitting and time spent in activity each day (Figure 3). These reports are based
10 on the self-reported data entry. Users can access this feedback at any time and it is
11 possible for users to view their historical data.
12
13
14

15 16 *Goal setting*

17
18 The app's goal setting feature allows users to set goals to reduce SB at work. The goal
19 chosen reflects how much time each day the user wishes to reduce their SB by. The
20 app then calculates how much time the user must reduce their sitting by, each hour
21 of the work day, in order to meet their goal. For example, if a participant sets a 2
22 hour (120 min reduction) per day "sit-less" goal, the app calculated how much time
23 they need to reduce their sitting by each hour over an 8-hour working day ($120/8 =$
24 15 mins every hour). This means that a participant has to spend at least 15 minutes
25 of each hour standing or moving in order to reach their goal. Therefore, when self-
26 monitoring their SB, if the user reports that they sat for 46 minutes or more in the
27 previous hour they receive an automated message to stand and/or move. The
28 progress made toward reaching their goal each day is displayed in the form of a goal
29 visualisation section. This allows users to check if they had met their "sit-less" goals.
30
31 Five stars are presented on the screen, as recommended by Hartin and colleagues
32 (2016),⁷⁹ as a variant of a points-earning system to encourage behaviour change. The
33 use of a familiar five star rating system is also in keeping with the guidelines for
34 optimising user interface design. As the user meets their hourly goals the stars
35 change from white to blue to represent how often they meet their goal each day
36 (Figure 4). All recorded values in the logs are normalised to within a range of 0-5 in
37 relation to the goal⁷⁹ i.e. if a user meets every hourly goal over an eight hour work
38 day, five stars are shaded blue, however, if a user meets four of eight hourly goals
39 then 2.5 stars are shaded blue.
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 *Educational fact and tip*
4

5 All participants received an educational fact and tip at the end of each day when they
6 entered their last data entry report for that day (Figure 5). These included a visual
7 graphic with a snippet of health education advice and a practical tip to reduce their
8 SB at work. The educational fact and tip was selected at random from a pool of 50
9 stored in the app (Supplementary file 2).
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

App Screenshots [insert figures 1-5 here]

Figure 1 Home Screen

Figure 2 Record sitting time

Figure 3 Feedback graph

Figure 4 Daily Goal Rating

Figure 5 Educational Fact/Tip

For Peer Review

Discussion

The use of app interventions to reduce SB is in its infancy, yet findings appear promising. Results of a recent systematic review showed that only one RCT used a mobile app as an optional part of a successful intervention to reduce SB.²⁴ Two other studies (non RCT) had delivered SB reduction interventions showing successful reductions in SB via apps.^{92, 93} However, the main focus in both these studies was to encourage participants to engage in PA, rather than to specifically reduce their SB. In addition, many digital health interventions tend to be developed rapidly for commercial purposes and lack scientific theoretical basis.^{41-44, 94} “Worktivity” is a novel, theory-based intervention, delivered via a user informed mobile app designed to reduce occupational SB. Its development was inspired by the growing health concerns regarding prolonged sitting in office workers,^{8, 10} the potential for technology to intervene,⁹ plus the lack of existing theoretically based app interventions,⁴¹⁻⁴⁴ specifically targeting SB reduction.

“Worktivity”’s step-by-step development and refinement **in line with BCW framework**, drew upon findings from preliminary research, consensus workshops, whiteboarding, and usability testing, in order to address the issues mentioned above. This formative and iterative development process ensured the content and format of “Worktivity” was developed to meet the needs of end users and allowed for issues of acceptability and credibility to be addressed prior to its implementation. “Worktivity” is centred around the key component of self-monitoring SB. The data obtained is then used to deliver individually tailored behavioural prompts and feedback to office workers to help them modify their SB in real-time. Educational facts and tips were also delivered to encourage behaviour change. Self-monitoring has been used successfully within other app-based interventions targeting health behaviours, for example drug and alcohol use,⁹⁵ diabetes prevention in at risk adults,⁹⁶ and weight loss and vegetable consumption.⁹⁷ Educational features have also been successfully incorporated into apps targeting health behaviours such as smoking cessation,⁹⁸ sun exposure,⁹⁹ and lifestyle factors associated with stress urinary incontinence.¹⁰⁰

Usability is one of the main barriers to the adoption of mobile health systems,⁸¹ therefore it is important that apps developed for behaviour change research purposes match the usability

1
2
3 and sophistication that users expect from other “real-world” apps.¹⁰¹ Furthermore, digital
4 tools will likely be rejected by users if they are not perceived to have any user benefit or if
5 they have usability problems.¹⁰² It has also been suggested that app usability is closely related
6 to engagement, whereby positive experiences of usability can entice users to engage more
7 with the app.¹⁰³ Based on the findings of the “think-aloud” interviews, “Worktivity” was
8 generally deemed to be a well-accepted tool and users were positive about the app features.
9
10
11
12
13
14

15
16 Amongst the strengths of this work is the collaborative design team involved. Efficient
17 relationships between a multidisciplinary team including behavioural scientists and computer
18 scientists are recognised as being essential for the success of a DBCI.²⁶ These interdisciplinary
19 collaborations are vital for achieving sustainable growth in the field of digital health.¹⁰⁴ The
20 benefits of using of the BCW as a development framework allowed us to recognise that the
21 target behaviour can in principle arise from combinations of any of the components of the
22 behaviour system.⁴⁹ This framework was considered over others such as the Intervention
23 Mapping Protocol¹⁰⁵ which aims to map behaviour on to its 'theoretical determinants' in
24 order to identify potential levers for change⁴⁹. This paper also includes a detailed report of
25 the intervention development process, usability evaluations, and an in-depth description of
26 the final intervention components. There has been a call for intervention developers to
27 publish processes and outcomes from their development of digital interventions.¹⁰⁶
28 Currently, “Worktivity” is only designed to be used in the occupational setting, however it
29 would be possible to modify the content (e.g. prompts, educational facts and tips) and
30 functionality for use in other domains. Sharing these processes will provide design teams with
31 an enhanced grounding of how to use technology to better engage populations in adopting
32 and maintaining health behaviours³⁵ and allows for continued learning to improve the quality
33 of interventions.¹⁰⁶ Therefore, the development processes used to design “Worktivity” may
34 be useful to other digital behaviour change researchers.
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53

54 A limitation of the “think aloud” usability study concerns the representativeness of the
55 sample. The purposive recruitment method used meant the sample lacked heterogeneity,
56 and consisted of only female employees. Other demographic information was not collected
57 at the time and therefore cannot be commented on. The sample was small (n=5), however,
58
59
60

1
2
3 “think-aloud” studies can be performed with small numbers of participants. It has been noted
4 that after five test subjects 77-85% of problems can be detected.⁸⁹ It has also been suggested
5 that some participants may find it difficult to generate “think-aloud” interviews while carrying
6 out a new task or a task that involves a lot of cognitive processing.¹⁰⁷ Therefore, the
7 participants were asked after using the app for any additional comments and suggestions to
8 improve the app. Another limitation to this study is that the “think aloud” analysis was
9 undertaken with a compressed version of the “Worktivity” app and not the full working
10 version. Additionally, the app’s key component is hinged around self-monitoring of
11 occupational SB; this input may be subject to recall bias and, moreover, will only be available
12 at the times that users volunteer them.²⁵ In an attempt to address this, “Worktivity” delivers
13 a reminder to log sitting if a log is not completed. To address recall bias, the users are only
14 asked to recall time spent sitting over the last 60 minutes, which was deemed by the research
15 team to be an appropriate time frame for accurate recall. These limitations further highlight
16 the need for tools to specifically measure and provide feedback on SB in real-time. It must
17 also be acknowledged that, although UCD principles were incorporated, the end users were
18 not involved directly in deciding on the app content and input from end users through other
19 means.

Conclusion

20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42 In conclusion, the development of “Worktivity” was informed by a systematic application of
43 behaviour change theory, scientific evidence, end user and stakeholder input, computer
44 science and expert consensus. These processes follow a best practice approach to app
45 development.⁹⁶ The resulting app is a theory-driven, user-informed mobile app that provides
46 behavioural support to office workers to reduce SB, incorporating carefully considered
47 strategies to increase user engagement. The processes described here should help guide
48 those wishing to develop theory-based app intervention targeting a particular behaviour. It
49 should also assist those involved in workplace health to consider low burden digital strategies
50 for reducing workplace SB. Further research exploring the feasibility of using “Worktivity” to
51 promote SB reductions at work is warranted.

1
2
3
4
5 To the authors knowledge, is the first app that was specifically designed for office workers to
6 reduce their SB by delivering tailored feedback on SB and not inactivity, in an almost real time
7 manner. This research also adds to the literature by describing the rigorous design and
8 development of methodology which may prove useful to other digital behaviour change
9 intervention developers.
10
11
12
13
14
15
16

17 Declarations

18
19 Conflicting interests: MM has been loaned sit stand desks from Ergotron for research
20 purposes.
21
22
23

24 Funding: AS was supported by a Vice Chancellor's Research Scholarship from Ulster
25 University. Invest Northern Ireland partially supported this project under the Competence
26 Centre Programme Grant RD0513853 - Connected Health Innovation Centre.
27
28
29
30
31

32 Ethical approval: Ulster University School of Sport Research Ethics Filter Committee
33 approved this study.
34
35
36
37
38

39 Guarantor: JM
40
41
42
43

44 Contributorship: AS, MM, JM, SMD and CN researched literature and conceived the study.
45 AS was involved in protocol development, gaining ethical approval, patient recruitment and
46 data analysis. CN provided the personnel, equipment and hardware to develop and use
47 "Worktivity". MGC coded and refined the app "Worktivity". AS wrote the first draft of the
48 manuscript. All authors reviewed and edited the manuscript and approved the final version
49 of the manuscript.
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

References

1. Parry S and Straker L. The contribution of office work to sedentary behaviour associated risk. *BMC Public Health* 2013; 13: 296.
2. Clemes SA, Patel R, Mahon C, et al. Sitting time and step counts in office workers. *Occupational medicine* 2014; 64: 188-192.
3. Hadgraft NT, Healy GN, Owen N, et al. Office workers' objectively assessed total and prolonged sitting time: individual-level correlates and worksite variations. *Preventive medicine reports* 2016; 4: 184-191.
4. Kazi A, Duncan M, Clemes S, et al. A survey of sitting time among UK employees. *Occupational medicine* 2014; 64: 497-502.
5. Waters CN, Ling EP, Chu AH, et al. Assessing and understanding sedentary behaviour in office-based working adults: a mixed-method approach. *BMC Public Health* 2016; 16: 360.
6. Wilmot EG, Edwardson CL, Achana FA, et al. Sedentary time in adults and the association with diabetes, cardiovascular disease and death: systematic review and meta-analysis. *Diabetologia* 2012; 55: 2895-2905.
7. Chau JY, Grunseit AC, Chey T, et al. Daily sitting time and all-cause mortality: a meta-analysis. *PLoS One* 2013; 8: e80000.
8. de Rezende LF, Rodrigues Lopes M, Rey-Lopez JP, et al. Sedentary behavior and health outcomes: an overview of systematic reviews. *PLoS One* 2014; 9: e105620.
9. Biswas A, Oh PI, Faulkner GE, et al. Sedentary time and its association with risk for disease incidence, mortality, and hospitalization in adults: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Ann Intern Med* 2015; 162: 123-132.
10. Van Uffelen JG, Wong J, Chau JY, et al. Occupational sitting and health risks: a systematic review. *Am J Prev Med* 2010; 39: 379-388.
11. Schmid D and Leitzmann MF. Television viewing and time spent sedentary in relation to cancer risk: a meta-analysis. *JNCI: Journal of the National Cancer Institute* 2014; 106: dju098.
12. Zhou Y, Zhao H and Peng C. Association of sedentary behavior with the risk of breast cancer in women: update meta-analysis of observational studies. *Ann Epidemiol* 2015; 25: 687-697.
13. Straker L, Dunstan D, Gilson N, et al. Sedentary work. Evidence on an emergent work health and safety issue 2016.

- 1
2
3 14. Accenture. Accenture 2018 Consumer Survey on Digital Health,
4 [https://www.accenture.com/t20180326T034756Z_w_us-en/acnmedia/PDF-](https://www.accenture.com/t20180326T034756Z_w_us-en/acnmedia/PDF-71/Accenture-Health-Meet-Todays-Healthcare-Team-Patients-Doctors-Machines.pdf#zoom=50)
5 [71/Accenture-Health-Meet-Todays-Healthcare-Team-Patients-Doctors-](https://www.accenture.com/t20180326T034756Z_w_us-en/acnmedia/PDF-71/Accenture-Health-Meet-Todays-Healthcare-Team-Patients-Doctors-Machines.pdf#zoom=50)
6 [Machines.pdf#zoom=50](https://www.accenture.com/t20180326T034756Z_w_us-en/acnmedia/PDF-71/Accenture-Health-Meet-Todays-Healthcare-Team-Patients-Doctors-Machines.pdf#zoom=50) (2018, accessed 05/26 2018).
7
8
- 9 15. Accenture. Accenture 2018 Consumer Survey on Digital Health,
10 <https://www.accenture.com/gb-en/insight-new-2018-consumer-survey-digitalhealth> (2018,
11 accessed 08/01 2018).
12
13
- 14 16. Lee P. Deloitte Mobile Consumer Survey 2018: The UK Cut,
15 <http://www.deloitte.co.uk/mobileuk2018/> (2018, accessed 09/03 2019).
16
17
- 18 17. Broekhuizen K, Kroeze W, van Poppel MN, et al. A systematic review of randomized
19 controlled trials on the effectiveness of computer-tailored physical activity and dietary
20 behavior promotion programs: an update. *Annals of Behavioral Medicine* 2012; 44: 259-286.
21
22
- 23 18. Oosterveen E, Tzelepis F, Ashton L, et al. A systematic review of eHealth behavioral
24 interventions targeting smoking, nutrition, alcohol, physical activity and/or obesity for
25 young adults. *Prev Med* 2017; 99: 197-206.
26
27
- 28 19. Noar SM, Black HG and Pierce LB. Efficacy of computer technology-based HIV prevention
29 interventions: a meta-analysis. *AIDS* 2009; 23: 107-115.
30
31
- 32 20. Neve M, Morgan PJ, Jones P, et al. Effectiveness of web-based interventions in achieving
33 weight loss and weight loss maintenance in overweight and obese adults: a systematic
34 review with meta-analysis. *Obesity reviews* 2010; 11: 306-321.
35
36
- 37 21. Free C, Phillips G, Galli L, et al. The effectiveness of mobile-health technology-based
38 health behaviour change or disease management interventions for health care consumers: a
39 systematic review. *PLoS Med* 2013; 10: e1001362.
40
41
- 42 22. Whittaker R, McRobbie H, Bullen C, et al. Mobile phone-based interventions for smoking
43 cessation. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2016.
44
45
- 46 23. Direito A, Carraça E, Rawstorn J, et al. mHealth technologies to influence physical activity
47 and sedentary behaviors: behavior change techniques, systematic review and meta-analysis
48 of randomized controlled trials. *Annals of behavioral medicine* 2017; 51: 226-239.
49
50
- 51 24. Stephenson A, McDonough SM, Murphy MH, et al. Using computer, mobile and
52 wearable technology enhanced interventions to reduce sedentary behaviour: a systematic
53 review and meta-analysis. *International Journal of Behavioral Nutrition and Physical Activity*
54 2017; 14: 105.
55
56
- 57 25. Lathia N, Pejovic V, Rachuri KK, et al. Smartphones for large-scale behavior change
58 interventions. *IEEE Pervasive Computing* 2013; 12: 66-73.
59
60
26. West R MS. *A guide to development and evaluation of digital behaviour interventions in
healthcare*. London: Silverback Publishing, 2016.

- 1
2
3 27. Cucciare M and Weingardt K. *Using technology to support evidence-based behavioral*
4 *health practices*. New York: Routledge, 2010.
5
6
7 28. Krukowski RA, Tilford JM, Harvey-Berino J, et al. Comparing behavioral weight loss
8 modalities: incremental cost-effectiveness of an internet-based versus an in-person
9 condition. *Obesity* 2011; 19: 1629-1635.
10
11 29. Iribarren SJ, Cato K, Falzon L, et al. What is the economic evidence for mHealth? A
12 systematic review of economic evaluations of mHealth solutions. *PLoS One* 2017; 12:
13 e0170581.
14
15
16 30. Stephenson A, McDonough SM, Murphy MH, et al. Exploring the Views of Desk-Based
17 Office Workers and Their Employers' Beliefs Regarding Strategies to Reduce Occupational
18 Sitting Time, with an Emphasis on Technology-Supported Approaches. *J Occup Environ Med*
19 2020.
20
21
22 31. Huang Y, Benford S and Blake H. Digital Interventions to Reduce Sedentary Behaviors of
23 Office Workers: Scoping Review. *Journal of medical Internet research* 2019; 21: e11079.
24
25
26 32. Gardner B, Smith L, Lorencatto F, et al. How to reduce sitting time? A review of
27 behaviour change strategies used in sedentary behaviour reduction interventions among
28 adults. *Health psychology review* 2016; 10: 89-112.
29
30
31 33. Martin A, Fitzsimons C, Jepson R, et al. Interventions with potential to reduce sedentary
32 time in adults: systematic review and meta-analysis. *Br J Sports Med* 2015; 49: 1056-1063.
33
34
35 34. Shrestha N, Kukkonen-Harjula KT, Verbeek JH, et al. Workplace interventions for
36 reducing sitting at work. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2018.
37
38
39 35. Kirwan M, Vandelanotte C, Duncan M, et al. Using smartphones to increase physical
40 activity: Usability testing of the 10,000 Steps iPhone application. *Journal of Science and*
41 *Medicine in Sport* 2010; 13: e28.
42
43
44 36. Mummah SA, King AC, Gardner CD, et al. Iterative development of Vegethon: a theory-
45 based mobile app intervention to increase vegetable consumption. *International Journal of*
46 *Behavioral Nutrition and Physical Activity* 2016; 13: 90.
47
48
49 37. Simons D, De Bourdeaudhuij I, Clarys P, et al. A smartphone app to promote an active
50 lifestyle in lower-educated working young adults: development, usability, acceptability, and
51 feasibility study. *JMIR mHealth and uHealth* 2018; 6: e44.
52
53
54 38. De Cocker K, De Bourdeaudhuij I, Cardon G, et al. Theory-driven, web-based, computer-
55 tailored advice to reduce and interrupt sitting at work: development, feasibility and
56 acceptability testing among employees. *BMC Public Health* 2015; 15: 959.
57
58
59 39. Matheson GO, Klügl M, Engebretsen L, et al. Prevention and management of non-
60 communicable disease: the IOC consensus statement, Lausanne 2013. *Sports Medicine*
2013; 43: 1075-1088.

- 1
2
3 40. Webb T, Joseph J, Yardley L, et al. Using the internet to promote health behavior
4 change: a systematic review and meta-analysis of the impact of theoretical basis, use of
5 behavior change techniques, and mode of delivery on efficacy. *Journal of medical Internet*
6 *research* 2010; 12: e4.
7
8
9 41. Bastawrous A and Armstrong MJ. Mobile health use in low-and high-income countries:
10 an overview of the peer-reviewed literature. *J R Soc Med* 2013; 106: 130-142.
11
12
13 42. Middelweerd A, Mollee JS, van der Wal, C Natalie, et al. Apps to promote physical
14 activity among adults: a review and content analysis. *International journal of behavioral*
15 *nutrition and physical activity* 2014; 11: 97.
16
17
18 43. Pagoto S, Schneider K, Jovic M, et al. Evidence-based strategies in weight-loss mobile
19 apps. *Am J Prev Med* 2013; 45: 576-582.
20
21
22 44. Watkins I and Xie B. eHealth literacy interventions for older adults: A systematic review
23 of the literature. *Gerontechnology* 2014; 13.
24
25
26 45. Michie S, Yardley L, West R, et al. Developing and evaluating digital interventions to
27 promote behavior change in health and health care: recommendations resulting from an
28 international workshop. *Journal of medical Internet research* 2017; 19: e232.
29
30
31 46. The Interaction Design Foundation. What is User Centered Design?,
32 <https://www.interaction-design.org/literature/topics/user-centered-design> (2018, accessed
33 03/30 2018).
34
35
36 47. Pagliari C. Design and evaluation in eHealth: challenges and implications for an
37 interdisciplinary field. *Journal of medical Internet research* 2007; 9: e15.
38
39
40 48. Craig P, Dieppe P, Macintyre S, et al. Developing and evaluating complex interventions:
41 the new Medical Research Council guidance. *BMJ* 2008; 337: a1655.
42
43
44 49. Michie S, Van Stralen MM and West R. The behaviour change wheel: a new method for
45 characterising and designing behaviour change interventions. *Implementation science* 2011;
46 6: 42.
47
48
49 50. Michie S, Richardson M, Johnston M, et al. The behavior change technique taxonomy
50 (v1) of 93 hierarchically clustered techniques: building an international consensus for the
51 reporting of behavior change interventions. *Annals of behavioral medicine* 2013; 46: 81-95.
52
53
54 51. Michie S, Atkins L and West R. A guide to using the Behaviour Change Wheel 2014.
55
56
57 52. Atkins L and Michie S. Designing interventions to change eating behaviours. *Proc Nutr*
58 *Soc* 2015; 74: 164-170.
59
60
61 53. Fulton EA, Brown KE, Kwah KL, et al. StopApp: using the behaviour change wheel to
62 develop an app to increase uptake and attendance at NHS Stop Smoking Services. In:
63 *HealthcareAnonymous*, pp.31: Multidisciplinary Digital Publishing Institute.

- 1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
54. Tombor I, Shahab L, Brown J, et al. Development of SmokeFree Baby: a smoking cessation smartphone app for pregnant smokers. *Translational behavioral medicine* 2016; 6: 533-545.
55. Tudor-Locke C, Camhi SM and Troiano RP. A catalog of rules, variables, and definitions applied to accelerometer data in the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey, 2003-2006. *Prev Chronic Dis* 2012; 9: E113.
56. Sanders JP, Loveday A, Pearson N, et al. Devices for self-monitoring sedentary time or physical activity: a scoping review. *Journal of medical Internet research* 2016; 18: e90.
57. Boschen MJ and Casey LM. The use of mobile telephones as adjuncts to cognitive behavioral psychotherapy. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice* 2008; 39: 546.
58. Martin A, Adams JM, Bunn C, et al. Feasibility of a real-time self-monitoring device for sitting less and moving more: a randomised controlled trial. *BMJ open sport & exercise medicine* 2017; 3: e000285.
59. Wilde MH and Garvin S. A concept analysis of self-monitoring. *J Adv Nurs* 2007; 57: 339-350.
60. Klasnja P, Consolvo S and Pratt W. How to evaluate technologies for health behavior change in HCI research. In: *Proceedings of the SIGCHI conference on human factors in computing systems* Anonymous , pp.3063-3072.
61. Jansen JP. Self-monitoring of glucose in type 2 diabetes mellitus: a Bayesian meta-analysis of direct and indirect comparisons. *Curr Med Res Opin* 2006; 22: 671-681.
62. Burke LE, Conroy MB, Sereika SM, et al. The effect of electronic self-monitoring on weight loss and dietary intake: a randomized behavioral weight loss trial. *Obesity* 2011; 19: 338-344.
63. Carver CS and Scheier MF. Control theory: A useful conceptual framework for personality–social, clinical, and health psychology. *Psychol Bull* 1982; 92: 111.
64. Crane D. *Development and evaluation of a smartphone app to reduce excessive alcohol consumption: Self-regulatory factors*, UCL (University College London), 2017.
65. Compennolle S, DeSmet A, Poppe L, et al. Effectiveness of interventions using self-monitoring to reduce sedentary behavior in adults: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *International Journal of Behavioral Nutrition and Physical Activity* 2019; 16: 63.
66. Sherrington A, Newham J, Bell R, et al. Systematic review and meta-analysis of internet-delivered interventions providing personalized feedback for weight loss in overweight and obese adults. *obesity reviews* 2016; 17: 541-551.

- 1
2
3 67. van Gemert-Pijnen JE, Nijland N, van Limburg M, et al. A holistic framework to improve
4 the uptake and impact of eHealth technologies. *Journal of medical Internet research* 2011;
5 13: e111.
6
7
8 68. De Leon E, Fuentes LW and Cohen JE. Characterizing periodic messaging interventions
9 across health behaviors and media: systematic review. *Journal of medical Internet research*
10 2014; 16: e93.
11
12
13 69. Evans RE, Fawole HO, Sheriff SA, et al. Point-of-choice prompts to reduce sitting time at
14 work: a randomized trial. *Am J Prev Med* 2012; 43: 293-297.
15
16 70. NICE. Behaviour change: individual approaches,
17 <https://www.nice.org.uk/guidance/ph49> (2014, accessed 03/26 2018).
18
19
20 71. Locke EA and Latham GP. Building a practically useful theory of goal setting and task
21 motivation: A 35-year odyssey. *Am Psychol* 2002; 57: 705.
22
23 72. Harkin B, Webb TL, Chang BP, et al. Does monitoring goal progress promote goal
24 attainment? A meta-analysis of the experimental evidence. *Psychol Bull* 2016; 142: 198.
25
26
27 73. De Cocker K, De Bourdeaudhuij I, Cardon G, et al. What are the working mechanisms of a
28 web-based workplace sitting intervention targeting psychosocial factors and action
29 planning?. *BMC Public Health* 2017; 17: 382-017-4325-5.
30
31
32 74. O'Dolan C, Grant M, Lawrence M, et al. A randomised feasibility study to investigate the
33 impact of education and the addition of prompts on the sedentary behaviour of office
34 workers. *Pilot and feasibility studies* 2018; 4: 33.
35
36
37 75. Nielsen J. Heuristics for User Interface Design:, [https://www.nngroup.com/articles/ten-](https://www.nngroup.com/articles/ten-usability-heuristics/)
38 [usability-heuristics/](https://www.nngroup.com/articles/ten-usability-heuristics/) (1995, accessed 06/26 2018).
39
40
41 76. Shneiderman B, Plaisant C, Cohen M, et al. *Designing the user interface*. 5 ed. Essex:
42 Pearson Education, 2014.
43
44 77. Apple. Themes - iOS - Human Interface Guidelines - Apple Developer.,
45 <https://developer.apple.com/ios/human-interface-guidelines/overview/themes/> (2018,
46 accessed 05/20 2018).
47
48
49 78. Krebs P and Duncan DT. Health app use among US mobile phone owners: a national
50 survey. *JMIR mHealth and uHealth* 2015; 3: e101.
51
52
53 79. Hartin PJ, Nugent CD, McClean SI, et al. The empowering role of mobile apps in behavior
54 change interventions: The Gray Matters randomized controlled trial. *JMIR mHealth and*
55 *uHealth* 2016; 4: e93.
56
57
58 80. Dennison L, Morrison L, Conway G, et al. Opportunities and challenges for smartphone
59 applications in supporting health behavior change: qualitative study. *Journal of medical*
60 *Internet research* 2013; 15: e86.

- 1
2
3 81. Zapata BC, Fernández-Alemán JL, Idri A, et al. Empirical studies on usability of mHealth
4 apps: a systematic literature review. *J Med Syst* 2015; 39: 1.
5
6
7 82. Holzinger A and Errath M. Mobile computer Web-application design in medicine: some
8 research based guidelines. *Universal Access in the Information Society* 2007; 6: 31-41.
9
10 83. Charters E. The use of think-aloud methods in qualitative research an introduction to
11 think-aloud methods. *Brock Education: A Journal of Educational Research and Practice* 2003;
12 12.
13
14
15 84. Eccles DW and Aarsal G. The think aloud method: what is it and how do I use it?.
16 *Qualitative Research in Sport, Exercise and Health* 2017; 9: 514-531.
17
18
19 85. Jaspers MW. A comparison of usability methods for testing interactive health
20 technologies: methodological aspects and empirical evidence. *Int J Med Inf* 2009; 78: 340-
21 353.
22
23
24 86. Davies EL. Feasibility of the Prototype Willingness Model as the basis for school-
25 delivered alcohol misuse prevention: A qualitative think-aloud study to explore acceptability
26 of 'The Alcohol Smart Quiz' with adolescents and teachers. *Journal of health psychology*
27 2018; 23: 1196-1210.
28
29
30 87. Bradbury K, Morton K, Band R, et al. Using the Person-Based Approach to optimise a
31 digital intervention for the management of hypertension. *PLoS One* 2018; 13: e0196868.
32
33
34 88. Ericsson KA and Simon HA. Verbal reports as data. *Psychol Rev* 1980; 87: 215.
35
36 89. Nielsen J. Estimating the number of subjects needed for a thinking aloud test.
37 *International Journal of Human-Computer Studies* 1994.
38
39
40 90. Braun V and Clarke V. Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative research in*
41 *psychology. Qualitative Research in Psychology* 2006; 3: 77-101.
42
43 91. Lyles CR, Harris LT, Le T, et al. Qualitative evaluation of a mobile phone and web-based
44 collaborative care intervention for patients with type 2 diabetes. *Diabetes technology &*
45 *therapeutics* 2011; 13: 563-569.
46
47
48 92. Bond DS, Thomas JG, Raynor HA, et al. B-MOBILE--a smartphone-based intervention to
49 reduce sedentary time in overweight/obese individuals: a within-subjects experimental trial.
50 *PLoS One* 2014; 9: e100821.
51
52
53 93. King AC, Hekler EB, Grieco LA, et al. Effects of Three Motivationally Targeted Mobile
54 Device Applications on Initial Physical Activity and Sedentary Behavior Change in Midlife and
55 Older Adults: A Randomized Trial. *PLoS One* 2016; 11: e0156370.
56
57
58 94. Agarwal S, LeFevre AE, Lee J, et al. Guidelines for reporting of health interventions using
59 mobile phones: mobile health (mHealth) evidence reporting and assessment (mERA)
60 checklist. *BMJ* 2016; 352: i1174.

- 1
2
3 95. Aharonovich E, Stohl M, Cannizzaro D, et al. HealthCall delivered via smartphone to
4 reduce co-occurring drug and alcohol use in HIV-infected adults: a randomized pilot trial. *J*
5 *Subst Abuse Treat* 2017; 83: 15-26.
6
7
8 96. Fukuoka Y, Gay CL, Joiner KL, et al. A novel diabetes prevention intervention using a
9 mobile app: a randomized controlled trial with overweight adults at risk. *Am J Prev Med*
10 2015; 49: 223-237.
11
12
13 97. Mummah SA, Mathur M, King AC, et al. Mobile technology for vegetable consumption: a
14 randomized controlled pilot study in overweight adults. *JMIR mHealth and uHealth* 2016; 4:
15 e51.
16
17
18 98. BinDhim NF, McGeechan K and Trevena L. Assessing the effect of an interactive decision-
19 aid smartphone smoking cessation application (app) on quit rates: a double-blind
20 automated randomised control trial protocol. *BMJ Open* 2014; 4: e005371-2014-005371.
21
22
23 99. Buller DB, Berwick M, Shane J, et al. User-centered development of a smart phone
24 mobile application delivering personalized real-time advice on sun protection. *Translational*
25 *behavioral medicine* 2013; 3: 326-334.
26
27
28 100. Asklund I, Nyström E, Sjöström M, et al. Mobile app for treatment of stress urinary
29 incontinence: a randomized controlled trial. *Neurourol Urodyn* 2017; 36: 1369-1376.
30
31
32 101. White BK, Martin A, White JA, et al. Theory-based design and development of a socially
33 connected, gamified mobile app for men about breastfeeding (Milk Man). *JMIR mHealth*
34 *and uHealth* 2016; 4: e81.
35
36
37 102. Eysenbach G. The law of attrition. *Journal of medical Internet research* 2005; 7: e11.
38
39
40 103. Milward J, Deluca P, Drummond C, et al. Usability testing of the BRANCH smartphone
41 app designed to reduce harmful drinking in young adults. *JMIR mHealth and uHealth* 2017;
42 5: e109.
43
44
45 104. Becker S, Miron-Shatz T, Schumacher N, et al. mHealth 2.0: experiences, possibilities,
46 and perspectives. *JMIR mHealth and uHealth* 2014; 2: e24.
47
48
49 105. Bartholomew L, Parcel G, Kok G, et al. Planning health promotion programs:
50 *Intervention Mapping 2nd edn* Jossey-Bass. San Francisco 2006.
51
52
53 106. Whittaker R, Merry S, Dorey E, et al. A development and evaluation process for
54 mHealth interventions: examples from New Zealand. *J Health Commun* 2012; 17: 11-21.
55
56
57 107. Branch JL. Investigating the information-seeking processes of adolescents: The value of
58 using think alouds and think afters. *Library & Information Science Research* 2000; 22: 371-
59 392.
60

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

For Peer Review

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Figure 1-5

App Screenshots

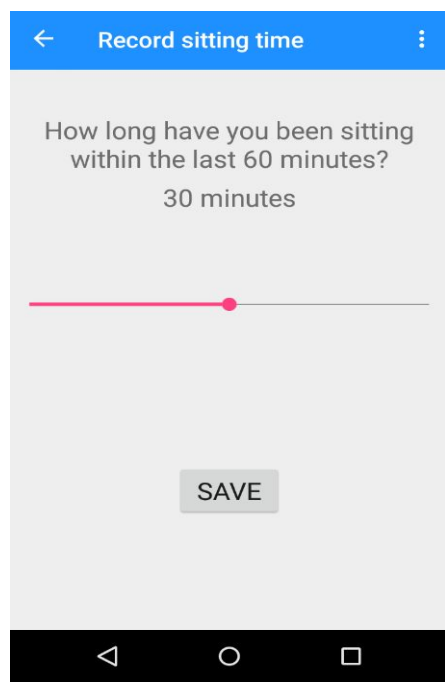
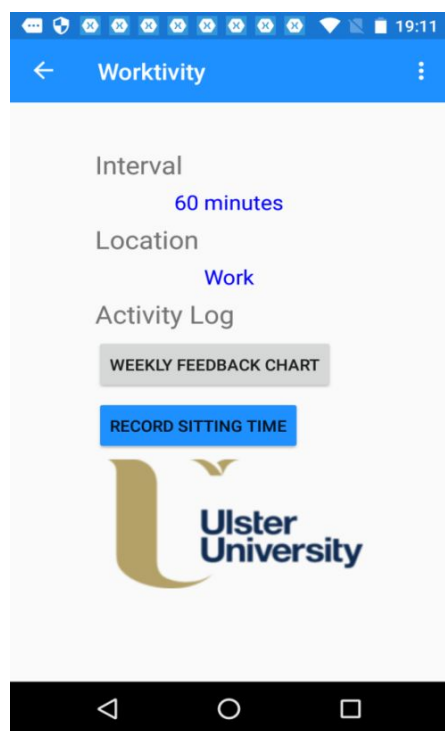


Figure 1 Data entry slider



Peer Review

Figure 2 Home Screen a

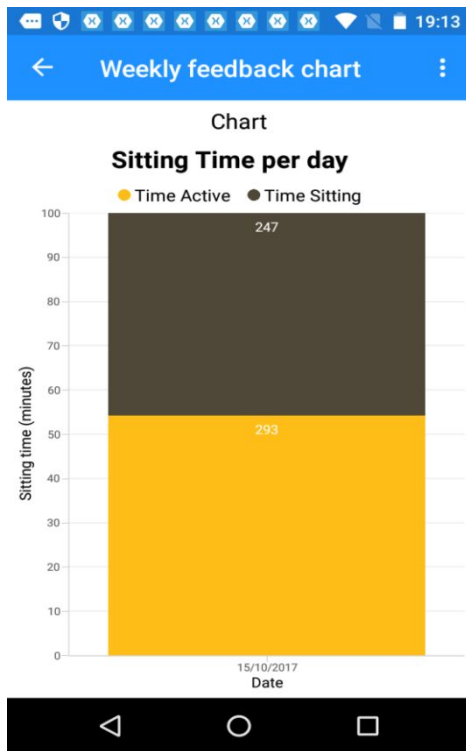


Figure 3 Feedback graph

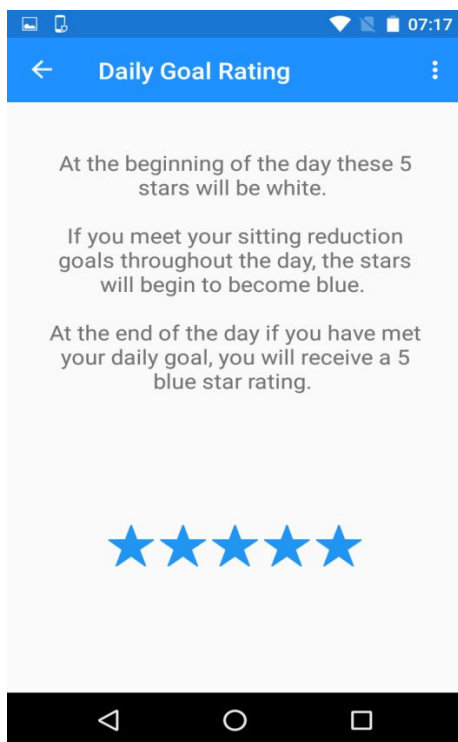


Figure 4 Daily Goal Rating

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

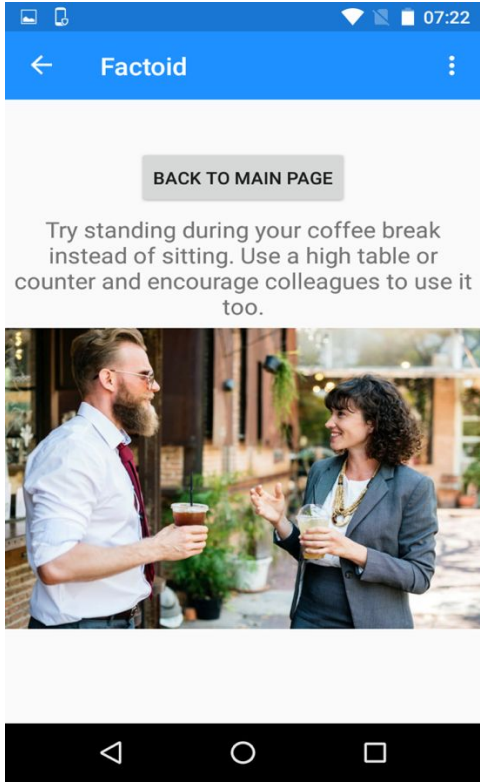


Figure 5 Educational Fact/Tip

Peer Review

1
2
3 “Think-aloud” tasks questions
4

5 Think aloud Tasks
6

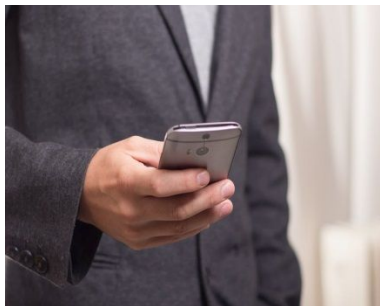
- 7 1. Set goal
8
9 2. Self-report SB
10
11 3. Receive educational fact/tip
12
13 4. View feedback
14
15 5. Browse the app

16 Questions
17

- 18 1. What are your overall views toward the app?
19
20 2. Was there anything you particularly disliked?
21
22 3. Was there anything you found particularly hard to use?
23
24 4. Was there anything you particularly liked?
25
26 5. Was there anything you found particularly easy to use?
27
28 6. Anything you wanted to see there/expected to see there but didn't?
29
30 7. Do you have any suggestions for how the app could be improved?
31
32 8. Are there any other comments you would like to make?
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Educational Facts and Tips

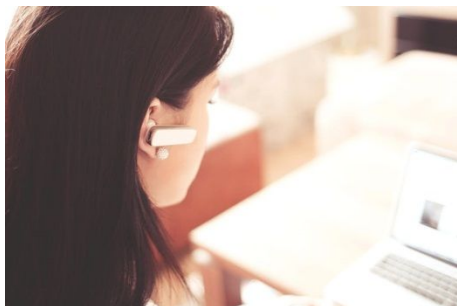
1. Sitting for long periods can increase your chances of developing cancer, heart disease and diabetes. Why don't you stand or walk around while on the phone?



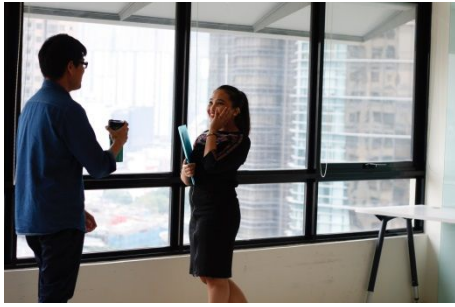
2. Sitting for long periods of time increases your risk of early death even if you are fit and exercise regularly. Try walking to a co-worker's desk instead of emailing.



3. Even if you exercise regularly, too much sitting can still be bad for you. Why don't you use a hands-free head piece and move around the office while taking calls?



4. Regardless of how active you are, too much sitting is bad for your heart and blood vessels. Try standing during your breaks.



- 15
- 16
- 17 5. Studies have linked high sitting levels with being overweight and obese. Arrange your next work meeting so that you're walking around the block with your meeting partner.
- 18



- 30
- 31
- 32 6. People who sit for long periods of time are more likely to gain excess weight. Try being more active by taking a longer, more roundabout way back to your desk.
- 33



- 48
- 49 7. We are advised to exercise regularly – at least 150 minutes a week – and reduce sitting time. You could take your exercise shoes to work and walk or jog during your lunch break.
- 50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60



- 15
16
17
18
8. Sitting for long periods can slow your metabolism, which affects your body's ability to control blood sugar and burn fat. Why not stand while eating your unch?



- 30
31
32
33
34
35
9. Sitting requires very little energy expenditure and limits the calories burned. Send your printing to the printer down the hall, rather than to the closest.



- 46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
10. Sitting uses less energy than standing or moving. This is why office workers burn fewer calories a day than manual workers. Walk with your colleagues rather than gathering in a meeting room.



16
17
18
19
20
21

11. When you sit, your blood flow slows and you burn less fat. Move your bin and printer or anything else you use throughout the day away from your desk. This way you have to get up each time you use them.



35
36
37

12. To reduce the risk of some cancers linked to excess sitting, introduce walking or standing meetings to the work schedule.



50
51
52
53
54

13. Too much sitting can lead to poor circulation and swelling in your ankles, so while at your desk, try standing on your tip toes and then gently dropping your heels back to the ground and repeating.

55
56

NO IMAGE

57
58
59
60

14. Weight bearing activities such as standing and walking lead to stronger bones. Use the farthest printer from your desk to ensure you get a break from sitting.

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60



15. Sitting for too long may take its toll on your back especially if you're sitting poorly in front of a computer. Take a break, get up and stretch.



16. Prolonged sitting and poor posture can lead to back pain. Whenever talking on the telephone, stand up and if possible, walk.



17. Too much sitting can reduce your lifespan by promoting dozens of chronic diseases, even if you exercise regularly. Why not invite a colleague for a walk at lunch?



17
18
19 18. It is better for you to switch between standing and sitting at work. If you need a quick
20 answer to a question, it's often as easy to walk to someone's office as it is to email or call.
21
22



34
35
36 19. Try standing during your coffee break instead of sitting. Use a high table or counter and
37 encourage colleagues to use it too.
38
39



51
52 20. It's up to you to make sure you get up and move at work. Why not use the farthest
53 bathroom from your desk?
54
55
56
57
58
59
60



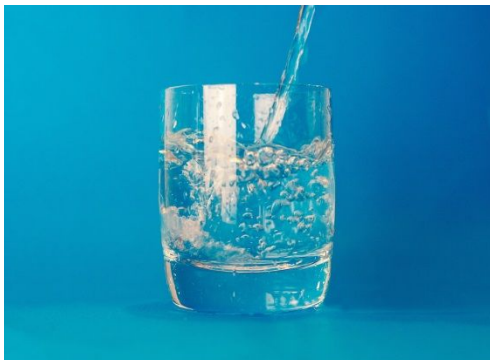
21. Think about your health and walk and talk instead of sitting and speaking while on the phone



22. Keep your water bottle half full at work. You'll have to get up more often to fill it up and for bathroom breaks, which means more moving.



23. Drink lots of water at work, it is good for your body and it will force you to get up and use the bathroom frequently



1
2
3
4
5 24. Take business calls standing up. This burns more calories than sitting.
6



20
21
22 25. Reorganise the layout of your office space so you have to stand up to reach frequently
23 used files, the phone, or your printer, rather than having everything within easy reach.
24



35
36
37 26. Ask to take your meetings out of the usual meeting room and go for a walk. This is helpful
38 for brainstorming sessions or just catching up on progress and may be more time efficient.
39



51
52
53 27. Instead of emailing or calling colleagues, walk to their part of the building for some face
54 time when you need to ask a question or solve a work issue.
55
56
57
58
59
60



28. Those who reduce sitting and move more at work are more likely to have better mental well-being. Take the stairs instead of the lift where possible.



29. Try breaking up sitting with short periods of standing, walking and exercising in the office. This can boost your productivity.



30. When sitting, your calorie burning drops. Try standing up and moving whenever you have a drink of water at work.



15
16
17
18

31. When sitting for too long, less fresh blood and oxygen flow through the body. Breaking up sitting can increase blood flow and protect blood vessel health.



31
32
33
34
35
36
37

32. Sitting for long periods of time causes your metabolism to slow, you burn fewer calories and increase your chances that excess energy will be stored as fat.



50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

33. When you are upright and active, even if it is only for a short period of time, you can improve your mood. Try taking the longer, more roundabout way to the bathroom.



18
19
20
21
22
23

34. When you are upright and active, even if it is only for a short period of time, you can reduce feelings of tiredness. Why not use the photocopiers furthest away from your workstation?



36
37
38
39
40
41

35. Mistakes are more likely to occur if you are feeling sleepy. Take a break from sitting, stand up and stretch.

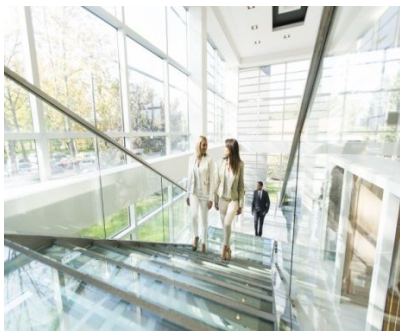


53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

36. Replacing sitting time with physical activity can suppress hunger. Why don't you take a brisk walk around the office?



13
14
15 37. Bursts of activity during the work day can improve your energy levels. Take the stairs
16 where possible.
17



30
31
32 38. Interrupting prolonged sitting with walking may be an effective way to fight fatigue. Do
33 some leisurely walking with colleagues after you eat lunch together at work.
34



46
47
48
49 39. Regularly breaking up prolonged sitting may reduce blood pressure. Schedule a standing
50 meeting, and if you need desk space, improvise with a high table or counter
51



1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

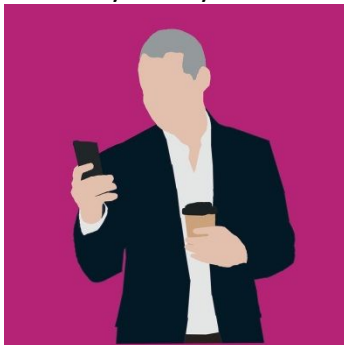
40. Sedentary office work can cause back discomfort. Regularly changing your posture from sitting to standing and moving can reduce discomfort without impacting productivity.



41. Use coffee break time to stand and communicate with colleagues; try not sit at your desk during breaks.



42. Long periods of sitting are linked with poor health outcomes. Try to take a walk break every time you take a coffee break.



43. Research suggests reducing your sitting lowers the risk of mental health issues such as depression. Take the opportunity to get out of your chair and do a few simple exercises by your desk.



16
17
18
19
20
21
22

44. If you have to sit for certain work tasks, try to take a quick break to stand or walk every 20-30 minutes. Research suggests that this can reduce the negative health impact of sitting.



33
34
35
36
37
38

45. Sedentary behaviour is associated with poorer health outcomes, including an increased risk of type 2 diabetes. Try to stand at the back of the room during presentations.



49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

46. Reducing your sitting may increase your life expectancy. Take a look at your work day, and see what tasks could just as easily be done standing or walking.



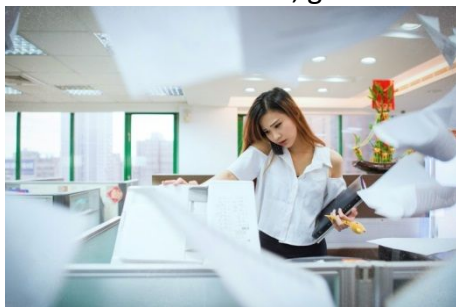
47. Organising walking meetings is not only better for your health; it may also boost creativity.



48. Drink from smaller cups. You will need to get up more frequently at the office if you use a small cup for coffee or water, which means more moving.



49. Research suggests that those who spend more time standing and moving have lower levels of bad cholesterol than those who sit. Stand up or leave your desk every 20-30 minutes to stretch, get a drink of water or use the printer.



50. Try to reduce sitting and move more by leaving your desk for lunch. Eat out, take packed lunch offsite or go to a different floor.



Images sourced from Shutterstock

For Peer Review

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

For Peer Review