

# Interventions to Promote Physical Activity by Older Adults

Abby C. King

Stanford Center for Research in Disease Prevention, School of Medicine, Stanford University, Palo Alto, California.

**Physical inactivity has been established to be an independent risk factor for a range of chronic diseases and conditions that threaten the health of the nation. However, only a minority of the population is currently meeting the recommended levels of regular physical activity, which have been linked with important health and quality-of-life benefits. Older adults are at particular risk for leading sedentary lifestyles. This article provides an overview of factors associated with physical activity for older adults and also describes potentially promising interventions for promoting regular physical activity in this growing population segment. Examples of interventions undertaken at personal and interpersonal as well as broader levels of analysis (e.g., environmental) are provided. Major issues currently facing the field are discussed, including the ongoing challenge of developing assessment tools that are sensitive to the more moderate-intensity physical activities favored by older adults and the formidable task of combining clinical approaches with environmental and policy strategies aimed at combating this public health problem.**

**M**ORE than 4 decades of epidemiological, clinical, and laboratory-based research have established the role of regular physical activity as an important determinant of health and functioning as people age (1-3). However, the scientific database underlying the understanding of factors of greatest importance in promoting regular physical activity in older populations remains in its infancy (2,4). It has become increasingly clear that one of the major public health challenges facing the United States and other industrialized societies is to reverse the patterns of increasing inactivity that threaten the health and functional independence of older adults (5-8).

This article provides an overview of factors that appear to be associated with physical activity as people age (i.e., determinants) in addition to highlighting potentially promising interventions for promoting regular physical activity by older adults. In accord with the recent World Health Organization guidelines for promoting physical activity and fitness by older adults (6), as well as with recommendations made by other health organizations (9), studies targeting persons aged 50 years and older are included in this review. The article concludes with suggestions for future directions in the field.

## **DETERMINANTS OF PHYSICAL ACTIVITY FOR OLDER ADULTS**

An understanding of the factors associated with physical activity or inactivity for the aging adult may result in the development of effective interventions for promoting regular physical activity. Although a number of reviews of the factors associated with physical activity have been published over the past decade (10-12), few have focused specifically on older adults (4,13,14), largely because the focus of research on the physical activity determinants has been on middle- and younger-aged populations (10). When older adults are included in a study sample, evaluations of potential determinants specific to that age segment are often not

provided. In addition, a number of studies have used a cross-sectional rather than a prospective design, making it impossible to gather information on potential causal relationships between factors and physical activity participation (10,11).

These constraints notwithstanding, some insights related to factors that may influence physical activity participation by older adults are beginning to emerge. Such factors can be grouped into the following categories: personal characteristics, program or regimen-based factors, and environmental factors (11).

### *Personal Characteristics*

Personal characteristics include demographic and health variables; an individual's knowledge, attitudes, and beliefs related to physical activity; and the psychological and behavioral attributes and skills that may facilitate or impede efforts to participate in physical activity regularly (11). The current determinants literature identifies some demographic and health variables associated with physical activity participation by younger and older adult populations. These include sex (with women often found to be less active than men), younger age, smoking status (smokers less active than nonsmokers), educational attainment and income (lower levels associated with less physical activity), and overweight (more overweight associated with less physical activity) (15-22). In addition, lack of past experience with physically active pursuits may also be associated with lower levels of current physical activity (23), particularly for older women (24,25). Attitudinal, psychological, and behavioral factors that appear to be operative in older as well as in younger populations include the following motives: desire to improve physical fitness and appearance through physical activity, positive beliefs concerning the value of physical activity for improving health and fitness, fewer perceived barriers to being physically active, and exercise-related self-efficacy (e.g., one's confidence in being able to successfully

undertake regular physical activity) (15–17,20,22,23,26–33). There is some indication that initial exercise self-efficacy levels in middle- and older-aged adults can predict subsequent exercise participation rates independent of previous rates, particularly during the adoption phase (i.e., first 6 months) of participation (30). However, in at least one cross-sectional study of women aged 20 to 85 years, in which a population-based recruitment technique (i.e., random-digit telephone dialing) was used, age was negatively related to exercise self-efficacy levels for all exercises except walking (28). Similarly, younger nonexercising women had more positive attitudes toward exercise than did older nonexercising women, although the relationship between attitudes and age was not present for currently exercising women (28). Age was unrelated to self-motivation for exercise in this sample (28). Even for older adults who reported positive attitudes and beliefs toward physical activity, such attitudes alone usually were insufficient for increasing physical activity participation (34).

In addition to self-efficacy and the other personal characteristics described previously, an individual's motivational readiness to adopt an exercise regimen has been found to be associated with current physical activity levels across a number of different populations (35), including at least some older populations. For example, in a population-based study of 286 Australian women aged 50 to 64 years, women who were in the precontemplation stage of motivational readiness to exercise (i.e., reported no interest in increasing their level of exercise) were older, had lower exercise knowledge, expected fewer psychological benefits from exercise, and perceived lower levels of family support for exercise than did women who were currently exercising (36).

Some personal characteristics appear to be particularly influential determinants of physical activity for older adults. For instance, poor physical condition and health have been reported to be frequent barriers to physical activity participation in older age groups (14,19,29,37,38). Other personal characteristics that may be especially important in shaping physical activity patterns for older adults include medical concerns and fears of injury (14,16,19,20), as well as attitudinal barriers, such as perceived lack of ability and misconceptions or erroneous beliefs about exercise (e.g., that it must be strenuous or uncomfortable to be efficacious) (19,24,34,39). How much the latter factors reflect a cohort effect specific to the present group of older adults is unclear. In addition, although participation in physical activity in the recent past has been found to be a strong predictor of current and future participation by older and younger adults alike (30,40), there appears to be little relationship between youth or college sport involvement and adult physical activity levels (40).

#### *Program or Regimen-based Factors*

Program-related factors include the structure, format, complexity, intensity, convenience, and financial as well as psychological costs associated with the activity (11). The amount of current information on older adults relevant to this domain remains small. Available evidence suggests that the programs that may particularly appeal to older adults are more moderate in intensity, simple and convenient to en-

gage in, relatively inexpensive, noncompetitive, and—particularly for older women—contain a social component (14,19,41–43). Exercise programs having inconvenient locations or schedules have been associated with decreased participation by older adults (44). In addition, at least one study suggests that older adults who sample a number of different physical activity options may be more likely to remain active than those who do not (45). However, much of the information gathered in such areas has come from training studies or samples composed primarily of currently active participants. We know relatively little about program-based preferences for more representative and diverse segments of the population.

Three population-based community surveys and one population-based work-site survey of middle- and older-aged adults suggest that a substantial proportion of older women and men, regardless of current physical activity levels, may actually prefer physical activities undertaken outside of a formal class or group setting (percentages preferring such formats ranged from 64% to 69%) (36,43,46,47). In addition, preliminary results from the recently completed U.S. Women's Determinants Study (48) indicate that the preference for exercising on one's own with some instruction rather than in a group with an exercise leader, across the over 2900 women aged 40 and older who were interviewed by telephone, was approximately 64%, regardless of ethnicity (i.e., white, African American, American Indian/Pacific Islander, and Hispanic) and current physical activity level (i.e., inactive, underactive, or active) (49). Such preferences for formats that free the older adult from the demands of having to attend a structured exercise class regularly merit continued investigation, particularly because most formal physical activity programming for older adults currently offered in the community consists of structured exercise classes or groups. Reluctance on the part of at least some older women to attend community gyms and fitness centers or use public changing facilities was reported in other studies targeting this age group (36).

At least one study of postmenopausal women and similarly aged men suggests that the psychological costs (e.g., social embarrassment and self-consciousness) of attending a structured exercise class may result in particularly poor adherence rates among the overweight (defined in this study as a body mass index [BMI] >27) (50). In this investigation, less than 8% of the overweight subgroup was still attending the exercise class 2 years later (compared with a significantly greater percentage—28%—of their normal-weight peers) (50).

#### *Environmental Factors*

Social and physical environmental factors have been associated with physical activity participation in a number of observational studies, although most have focused on adults under age 60 (11). In studies that have targeted or included older individuals, supports from family members, friends, program staff, and other exercise participants have been found to be significant correlates or predictors of physical activity (20,40,51–53). Although the type or amount of physical activity-related social support usually received differs by ethnicity, sex, and physical activity type (e.g., lei-

sure time and sport) for young adults (54), less is known about such patterns for older adults. In addition, at least one study has suggested that the source as well as the amount of social support preferred by the older individual (i.e., from family and friends vs exercise staff) may differ depending on the phase of the physical activity regimen (e.g., initial adoption or maintenance) (53). In this study, significant baseline variables predicting increased adherence to a prescribed exercise program during the initial 6-month period included an initial preference for less support from exercise staff—perhaps indicating a greater level of intrinsic motivation to adopt the exercise regimen. In contrast, greater 6-month levels of support reported from family and friends, as well as increased levels of support received from exercise staff, significantly predicted exercise adherence levels during the second 6 months of the program (53). Although similar to findings from other studies (11), smokers had generally poorer adherence rates than did nonsmokers (55); nonsmokers who were divorced had adherence rates during the initial 6-month period (49.3%) that were substantially lower than those of other nonsmokers and more similar to those of smokers (53). Being divorced may be related to lower levels of family-based support, which could have a detrimental effect on adherence.

Physical activity advice from an individual's personal physician appears to be another potentially important, though underused, source of support and motivation for middle- and older-aged adults (11,56–59). Although detailed algorithms for exercise prescription have been available in the literature since the 1970s (60,61), many physicians do not discuss exercise practices with their patients (62). Among the barriers to providing such regular advice and support are lack of time, limited reimbursement for such services, and physicians' lack of confidence in their ability to counsel patients effectively about physical activity (57,59,63,64).

Other environmental factors that have received some systematic support are the ease of access to appropriate exercise facilities (33) and the use of environmental cues, prompts, and incentives encouraging physical activity (40), although these factors have been investigated less in older populations. These environmental factors continue to be understudied relative to other determinants domains, yet likely have a substantial effect on efforts to successfully adopt and maintain regular physical activity (65,66).

#### *Summary of Physical Activity Determinants Literature for Older Adults*

Although some factors have begun to emerge as potentially important correlates of physical activity participation in older populations, a number of issues remain to be addressed. These issues include an improved understanding of the phase-specific influences of determinants with respect to the initial adoption as opposed to the longer-term maintenance of physical activity (15,53,67). For example, knowledge concerning physical activity type and amount may be particularly important in the adoption phase of a more active lifestyle (11,68). Levels of exercise-related self-efficacy have also been found to be related more strongly to the adoption as opposed to maintenance of a physical activity regimen (30,69). Similarly, we know relatively little con-

cerning how physical activity determinants vary for different types (e.g., endurance vs strengthening exercises) or dimensions of physical activity (e.g., frequency, intensity, and duration) (15,29).

Finally, relatively little systematic work has been undertaken in the determinants field with different subgroups of older adults. Subgroups of particular interest—because of the dearth of information about them as well as their current levels of sedentary behavior—are different ethnic groups, the oldest-old adults (i.e.,  $\geq 85$  years [y]), rural elderly adults, elderly adults with specific chronic conditions, and elderly adults who are depressed or socially isolated (4,34). Previous efforts to understand interaction effects among different factors defining such subgroups have been hampered, at least partly, by the use of standard multiple regression techniques. The use of such techniques is constrained by the types of assumptions that usually must be made about the data (e.g., data must be linear, additive, and normally distributed, and interaction terms must be specified by the investigator) (70). However, recent applications of signal detection methodology to predict changes in health behaviors (70,71), including physical activity (50), offer promise in addressing some of these limitations (72).

Signal detection methods can be used to define, through recursive partitioning, distinct subgroups of people who differ in how successful they are in an exercise program (50). For example, in a 2-year physical activity intervention trial of adults aged 50 to 65 years, signal detection methods identified two subgroups that were highly successful in achieving adequate 2-year exercise adherence rates (65%–69% of people in the two groups were successful), two subgroups that were modestly successful in achieving adequate 2-year exercise adherence rates (approximately 33% in both subgroups achieved adequate adherence), and one subgroup with poor success rates with respect to achieving adequate 2-year exercise adherence (only 7.7% succeeded) (50). Combinations of baseline factors that differentiated the five subgroups included the type of exercise format to which they were assigned (class-based vs home-based), BMI, perceived stress levels, and initial fitness levels based on treadmill exercise duration scores. The results emphasize the importance of taking into account how variables across different biobehavioral domains may interact in the identification of subgroups at greater or lesser risk of program failure.

#### **INTERVENTIONS TO PROMOTE PHYSICAL ACTIVITY BY OLDER ADULTS**

A recent review of research involving interventions to promote increases in physical activity participation by older adults (defined as  $\geq 50$  y) identified 29 studies fitting the authors' criteria for experimental rigor (randomized controlled studies or quasi-experimental designs with an appropriately matched comparison group) (4). The results of the review emphasized that although advances have been made in our understanding of how to promote physical activity by older age groups, much remains to be learned in this important public health arena.

Interventions that appear to be particularly promising for facilitating increased physical activity participation by older adults can be organized by level of impact, from individual

and interpersonal approaches through environmental and societal-level interventions (73).

#### *Personal and Interpersonal Approaches to Physical Activity Intervention*

A recent review of physical activity interventions targeting older adults (4) underscored the utility of implementing behavioral strategies based on social learning theory and its derivatives (74) in promoting physical activity increases by older adults. Effective interventions used behavioral or cognitive-behavioral strategies rather than health education, exercise prescriptions, or instruction alone (75–78). The strategies used included goal setting, self-monitoring, feedback, support, stimulus control, and relapse-prevention training (40). At least one study with patients who had chronic obstructive pulmonary disease found that the intervention that used both cognitive (positive self-talk focused on walking) and behavioral (goal-setting, contingency management, and relaxation techniques) approaches produced greater physical activity adherence, both during the 3-month adoption phase and the 3-month maintenance phase, than did interventions using either cognitive modification or behavioral modification alone (79).

The cognitive-behavioral strategies being targeted have been delivered through a range of formats, including individual face-to-face contact (80), group instruction (78), and mediated channels such as the telephone (55,81,82). Ongoing telephone supervision of the physical activity program was found to be an effective alternative or complement to on-site instruction in at least seven studies involving older adults (4). When compared directly using randomized designs, telephone instruction, usually combined with home-based physical activity programs, has been as good as or better than face-to-face instruction in promoting ongoing adherence in samples of cardiac patients and healthy older adults (55,83). At least one of these studies found telephone-supervised home-based physical activity programs to be superior to class-based programs using identical exercise prescriptions across a 2-year period (84). In addition, at least one study showed that when given an exercise prescription that included a combination of class-based and home-based formats, adults aged 65 years and older had significantly better adherence across a year to the home-based portion of their exercise prescription, regardless of the type of physical activity being prescribed (i.e., a combination of endurance and strengthening exercises or stretching and flexibility exercises) (81).

Several studies suggest that instruction in behavioral and cognitive strategies to promote physical activity can foster continued physical activity participation even when formal staff-initiated contact and instruction is terminated (78,85). Although few studies have evaluated fully mediated approaches to physical activity change by older adults, individual instruction using home videotapes (29,86) or telephone-linked computer systems (87–89) has shown encouraging short-term results.

#### *Applications of Interpersonal Approaches to Clinical Settings*

In light of the observation that physician advice to increase physical activity may help in motivating adults in general and older adults in particular to become more active (57–59), systematic efforts to train primary care physicians to deliver brief,

individualized physical activity advice have begun to be developed (59). Recent efforts, such as Project Physician-based Assessment and Counseling for Exercise (PACE), demonstrated that primary care physicians can be trained to deliver a brief (approximately 5 minutes) physical activity instructional message to patients that can result in measurable increases in patient physical activity levels over the subsequent 6-week period (90). However, the study primarily included younger adults (mean age, approximately 39 y). Adults up to the age of 75 years were included in the Activity Counseling Trial, which adapted the PACE model for delivery in a shorter time (2–4 minutes) (57). The Activity Counseling Trial evaluated the effects of three different levels of health educator follow-up in conjunction with physician counseling on 2-year physical activity participation rates for primary care patients recruited from three different regions of the United States. All groups increased their physical activity levels across the 2-year period (57). In addition, the recently completed Physically Active for Life project, which evaluated physician-based physical activity advice aimed specifically at older patients, observed short-term (i.e., 6-week) improvements in motivational readiness for physical activity in intervention relative to control patients (91). However, this effect was not maintained at the 8-month follow-up, and the intervention did not achieve significant changes in measured physical activity levels (91). Because older adults carry by far the greatest proportion of chronic disease burden, disability, and health care use (9,92), continued efforts to take advantage of the clinical setting and health care provider interactions to promote physical activity in all groups of older adults remain strongly indicated.

#### *Targeting Other Settings for Physical Activity Promotion*

Work sites and places of worship have also been targeted for developing physical activity interventions for adults (73). In one work-site intervention study aimed at automotive plant employees, outreach counseling by trained staff led to greater physical activity rates across a 3-year period compared with offering on-site physical activity classes or building an on-site exercise facility (93). In other efforts, the use of work-site-based physical activity contests and challenges that combined group- and individual-based incentives with management support and similar behavioral strategies have yielded promising short-term results (94–97). The challenge remains to expand some of these approaches to retirees, who are responsible for a disproportionate amount of the health care costs incurred by industry.

Similarly, places of worship offer a potentially promising avenue for encouraging physical activity participation and other positive lifestyle behaviors, particularly for certain underserved subgroups of the older adult population (e.g., African Americans) (98,99). Other community settings frequented regularly by older adults that may offer additional avenues for physical activity intervention include pharmacies and beauty salons.

#### *Environmental and Societal Physical Activity Interventions*

As noted in the determinants section, physical activity participation depends at least in part on the availability and

proximity of attractive, safe, and low-cost environments that facilitate movement and activity. Such environments include neighborhood and community parks; safe and usable sidewalks; hiking and biking trails; swimming pools; community recreation centers; and stairways that offer a safe, convenient, and attractive alternative to the use of elevators and escalators (73,100). Although the systematic investigation of strategies for increasing the use of such environments remains in its infancy, low-cost efforts to increase stair use have shown promise. Two studies in the United States and Scotland have demonstrated the potential utility of placing a simple sign at the initial choice point for decisions about taking the stairs or an escalator in public places (e.g., train stations). In both studies, adding a sign resulted in significant increases in stair use by both men and women, which lasted for approximately 1 to 3 months beyond when the sign was removed (101,102). The effects of such point-of-choice information on the physical activity patterns of older adults merit further investigation.

Similarly, efforts are under way in several rural counties in Missouri to evaluate the addition of a new walking and biking path on the physical activity patterns of local residents, including older adults (R.C. Brownson, personal communication, 1998). Ready access to such settings, along with community policies and facilities development that encourage passive approaches to physical activity promotion (e.g., restricting downtown center to foot or bicycle traffic and making stairways more convenient and pleasant to use than elevators or escalators), will likely be necessary to reach national population targets (65). In addition, innovative uses of community settings such as shopping malls and schools as places to engage in safe and comfortable physical activities such as walking are becoming increasingly popular among seniors and other population segments (65).

Finally, although the home and local neighborhood constitute appealing physical activity venues for older adults and other subgroups (43,103), less systematic evaluation of large-scale interventions to promote regular physical activity in these locations has occurred (65,104). Possibilities for physical activity include neighborhood walking groups, which could accomplish neighborhood watch activities while providing a safe, convenient, and socially supportive method for promoting regular physical activity (65). The organization of residents living in urban public housing settings to engage in physical activity represents another possibility that has recently met with some success (104). The recent advent of assessment tools for describing environmental factors of potential significance for physical activity may provide the impetus for further investigation of environment determinants and intervention approaches (66).

In addition to the increasing investigation of physical activity-promoting environments and facilities, several mass media campaigns have been implemented to promote physical activity in communities or larger populations (73,105). The Australian national mass media campaigns to promote moderate-intensity physical activity such as walking, which took place in 1990 and 1991, have been particularly instructive (106,107). The campaigns used television advertisements, public service announcements, distribution of print materials, and other media events (e.g., incorporation of

physical activity messages into episodes of popular television shows) to promote the physical activity message. Results from the 1990 campaign indicated that physical activity message recall increased from 46% before the campaign to 71% afterward (107). In addition, prevalence of walking for exercise increased significantly during the 1990 campaign for women and men in the older age groups (i.e., ages  $\geq 50$  y). Significant effects on walking were also noted in the least-educated group (107). No additional changes were noted for the 1991 campaign, although physical activity levels during the 1991 campaign remained above the levels observed at the beginning of the 1990 campaign (107). These results suggest that mass media efforts focused on more moderate and convenient forms of physical activity such as walking may be especially appropriate for older age groups.

## ADDITIONAL ISSUES

### *Assessment of Physical Activity in Older Populations*

Significant advances in the fields of physical activity determinants and intervention remain predicated on the continued development of physical activity assessment instruments that are sensitive to the kinds of lighter-intensity activities engaged in and preferred by older populations (4). The development in recent years of several physical activity assessment tools targeted specifically to older adults is encouraging (80,108–110). However, evidence that such instruments are sensitive to the types of physical activity changes being targeted in physical activity intervention studies remains scarce.

Four recent physical activity intervention studies targeting different populations of seniors found the Community Healthy Activities Model Program for Seniors (CHAMPS) physical activity questionnaire for seniors, developed by Stewart and colleagues (80), to be sensitive to changes in the moderate-intensity forms of physical activity being promoted in those studies (80–82,111). Intervention length in these studies ranged from 6 months (80,111) to 1 year (81,82). In one of the latter studies (81), estimated energy expenditure measured by using the CHAMPS questionnaire was found to be sensitive to increases in physical activity levels in an endurance activity intervention program relative to a stretching and flexibility program, whereas the Physical Activity Scale for the Elderly (110) was not found to be sensitive to such increases. It is critical that a range of physical activity measures be included in future intervention studies targeting older adults so that we can continue to advance the knowledge base with respect to the most reliable and sensitive measures to use with this population.

### *Applications of a Clinical or Medical Versus Public Health Approach to Intervention*

Many of the physical activity intervention efforts undertaken with older populations have applied a clinical or medical perspective in fashioning the physical activity program (112). In the typical medical model approach, the health professional usually engages in a waiting stance that involves having interested community members seek out services and initiate contact in determining whether the program being offered might meet their preferences and needs

(112). This approach usually results in participation by the segment of the population that is already motivated to exercise and is reasonably active. Alternatively, a public health approach usually uses a seeking stance to program development and delivery that entails actively initiating contact and collecting information across all segments of the target population. The goal of such an approach is to develop appropriate interventions tailored to the needs and preferences of different population groups that vary in motivational readiness to engage in regular physical activity (73,112).

At least six physical activity intervention studies focusing on older adults have used population-based recruitment methods to broaden the reach of the program into a more diverse portion of the older adult population being targeted (4). In one of these studies, a comparison was made of persons aged 50 to 65 years who were enrolled in the physical activity intervention through use of a random-digit-dial telephone survey (a seeking stance for participant enrollment) as opposed to more typical general media promotion (a waiting stance) (113). The two strategies attracted two different segments of the targeted age group living in the community under study. The participant group enrolled in the program via the random-digit-dial strategy had higher low-density lipoprotein cholesterol and systolic blood pressure levels and included a significantly greater percentage of smokers; the participant group enrolled via general media promotion was significantly more overweight, and the women were more likely to be separated or divorced (113). The two enrollee groups showed similar physical activity participation rates across the 1-year intervention period (113). These results underscore the potential utility of broadening enrollment strategies to reach those older adult subgroups (e.g., smokers) that usually are underrepresented in the physical activity intervention literature.

#### *Fashioning the Optimal Physical Activity Regimen in Promoting Long-term Participation*

With the recent expansion of the national physical activity recommendations to include a broader range of physical activities through which important health benefits can be achieved (114), attention has begun to be focused on understanding how physical activity type, intensity, frequency, duration, and format may influence subsequent physical activity participation. Although the number of studies aimed at understanding these issues for the adult population in general and older adults in particular are few, the available studies are instructive. For example, one investigation of 357 postmenopausal women and similar-aged men compared the 24-month participation rates for individuals randomly assigned to a higher-intensity (i.e., walk or jog) telephone-supervised home-based physical activity program with rates for individuals randomly assigned to a lower-intensity (i.e., brisk walking) program using the same home-based format (84). The two programs were matched for weekly energy expenditure; individuals assigned to the higher-intensity program were prescribed three sessions of physical activity per week lasting approximately 40 minutes per session, whereas those assigned to the lower-intensity program were prescribed five sessions of physical activity per week lasting approximately 30 minutes per session.

During the first 12 months of the intervention, when individuals in both programs were receiving regular (i.e., monthly) staff-initiated telephone contact, physical activity participation rates were identical for the two programs and were high (i.e., approximately 75% of exercise sessions prescribed were completed) (55). However, during the second year of the intervention, when staff-initiated telephone contact and support were substantially reduced, individuals assigned to the higher-intensity program had significantly better exercise participation rates than did individuals assigned to the lower-intensity program (84). Anecdotal reports from participants assigned to the lower-intensity program suggested that the inconvenience of having to exercise more frequently, particularly when staff encouragement was reduced, overrode any adherence-related benefits of a lower-intensity program. However, most participants (67% of women and 87% of men) worked outside the home, which may have added to the inconvenience of a more frequent exercise regimen. It is unclear how such exercise parameters would influence the physical activity participation rates of retirees.

In addition, a recently completed study of older adults with knee osteoarthritis (15) found that individuals undertaking moderate-intensity exercise of longer duration (e.g., an average of approximately 38 minutes per session) lost the improvements in knee pain and disability accrued by individuals exercising for shorter durations. These results indicate that the potential health gains that often accompany increased exercise volume may at least in some groups of older adults be offset by changes in other factors (e.g., overuse problems) that can influence subsequent exercise adherence.

#### **SUMMARY AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS**

The current literature aimed at understanding physical activity determinants and interventions for older adults, although providing a promising beginning, contains gaps that need to be addressed systematically if our knowledge in this area is to be advanced to the point of reaping significant public health benefits. In addition to the issues already highlighted, a number of other areas deserve scientific attention, including understanding sedentary behavior, targeting subgroups of older adults, understanding the behavioral synergy between physical activity and other health behaviors, applying a developmental perspective, and facilitating environmental and policy level interventions for physical activity promotion.

#### *Understanding Sedentary Behavior*

The preponderance of the behavioral literature in the physical activity field has focused on physically active behaviors while excluding the domain of sedentary activities that usually compete for people's time and interest. Without a fuller understanding of the types of sedentary behaviors that may need to be displaced so that weekly physical activity goals can be achieved, physical activity interventions may fall short of their desired objectives. The several laboratory-based studies that have been undertaken in this area with children and young adults indicate that strategies aimed at modifying the convenience, availability, or reinforcing properties of engaging in sedentary activities can in-

fluence subsequent levels of physical activity (115–117). However, such studies of older adults have not been done, and the generalization of such strategies from the laboratory to the field remains to be explored. Of relevance to understanding the relationship between sedentary behaviors such as television viewing and physical activity levels in adults, a recent cross-sectional study of adult Pima Indians found that although television viewing and physical activity levels were negatively correlated in men and women aged 21 to 39 years, no significant relationships between these variables were found in older adults (40–59 y) (118). The authors speculated that the lack of a significant association in the latter group could stem from low reported levels of physical activity and television viewing in the older age group, but this observation merits further investigation.

#### *Targeting Subgroups of Older Adults*

As noted previously, few studies evaluating physical activity determinants or interventions for older adults have targeted specific subgroups of older adults for whom physical activity interventions may be particularly indicated (4,33). Such subgroups include older adults who are from different ethnic groups, have multiple chronic conditions, are frail, have low incomes or low levels of education, are depressed or isolated, live in rural areas, or represent the oldest-old adults ( $\geq 85$  y). Although a growing number of national and regional surveys that include older adults contain African American, Hispanic, and, more recently, Native American subgroups (2,118,119), few contain adequate numbers of Asian respondents. The recently completed U.S. Women's Determinants Study failed to secure sufficient numbers of middle- and older-aged Asian women through the random-digit-dial telephone survey method used to allow for their inclusion in the study data set (48). It is critical that research efforts continue to target this growing and diverse segment of the U.S. population.

#### *Understanding the Behavioral Synergy Between Physical Activity and Other Health Behaviors*

A relatively large volume of evidence has documented the potential physiological synergy obtained when other health behaviors (e.g., dietary patterns and smoking) are changed simultaneously with physical activity (120–122). Few studies have evaluated the behavioral synergy that may occur when physical activity is targeted for intervention along with other health behaviors. At least two recent trials with young adults are compelling in this regard. The first, referred to as the Commit to Quit study (123), randomly assigned women smokers to receive a smoking cessation intervention alone or combined with a vigorous-intensity exercise intervention. The additional staff attention conferred by the exercise program was controlled for in the smoking-cessation-alone condition through the administration of extra staff contact. Women randomly assigned to the smoking-cessation-plus-exercise condition showed significantly better continuous smoking abstinence rates at the end of the 8-week treatment (19%) relative to the smoking-cessation-alone condition (10%), as well as better continuous abstinence rates at 20 weeks (16% vs 8%) and 60 weeks (12% vs 5%) postces-

sation. They also gained significantly less weight and had greater increases in their fitness levels (122).

Similarly, recent data from the 5107 employees participating in the Working Healthy Trial, undertaken in 26 manufacturing work sites, showed that increases in physical activity over the 2.5-year study period were associated with greater improvements in dietary patterns than was remaining sedentary (124). The reverse was not observed; that is, differential increases in physical activity were not observed in response to positive dietary changes (124). Few studies have evaluated systematically whether such behavioral synergy exists in older adults. In the Stanford-Sunnyvale Health Improvement Project data set referred to previously (73), no evidence was found showing either that changes in physical activity were associated with natural changes in dietary patterns or that physical activity changes sparked changes in participants' motivation to change other health behaviors, including diet. However, in that study, unlike the two positive studies cited above, only one health behavior (physical activity) was specifically targeted for change as part of the intervention. In light of the potentially substantial public health impact that synergy among such health behaviors would confer, systematic study of this issue among older adults is strongly indicated.

#### *Applying a Developmental Perspective*

Tendencies for becoming more or less active as one ages occur within a developmental context spanning an individual's life. Relatively little is known concerning how early and midlife experiences with physical activity shape physical activity patterns in older adulthood. At least one population-based study of 327 women aged 70 to 98 years living in Vancouver, British Columbia, found that self-efficacy for performing fitness-oriented exercise later in life was significantly associated with recollections of specific childhood physical activity competencies and movement capabilities occurring decades earlier (26). In light of the potentially powerful effects of earlier experiences on current and future physical activity behavior, an increased emphasis on understanding physical activity determinants and patterns across the life span is warranted.

A developmental or life-span perspective is also reflected in attempts to understand how commonly occurring developmental milestones or transitions can naturally affect physical activity patterns as people age (73). Potentially relevant transitions include changes in marital status (125,126), retirement (21), and becoming an informal caregiver for a sick or frail relative—an increasingly common role facing older women in particular (46,127). The few studies available that evaluate the effects of marital status on physical activity patterns suggest that the effects may be positive, negative, or neutral depending on the type of marital transition that occurred and the population under study (128). However, the specific effects of such transitions on the physical activity patterns and preferences of older adults in general and different subgroups of older adults in particular remain minimally explored.

A third avenue of research that reflects a developmental and life-span perspective focuses on intergenerational as-

pects of physical activity behavior. An intergenerational approach to the understanding of physical activity determinants and the development of potentially powerful interventions is indicated in light of the effects that members of one age group can exert on those from another age group (129). Although a substantial proportion of this literature has usually looked at intergenerational issues within the context of the parent-child relationship (130), the potential opportunities for children and grandchildren to influence the physical activity levels of older adults deserve increased attention. By identifying situations in which intergenerational contact naturally occurs, interventions may be developed that can take advantage of these potentially powerful relationships.

The investigation of the types of developmental and life-span approaches discussed previously could be enhanced greatly through increased interaction among scientists working at different points of the life-span continuum. Scientists in the field traditionally have focused on one portion of this continuum (e.g., youth, middle age, or old age), with a potential loss of intergenerational synergy and continuity the likely result.

#### *Facilitating Environmental- and Policy-Level Interventions for Physical Activity Promotion*

The consistent evidence indicating that physical activity levels tend to decrease with age, coupled with the aging of populations in the United States and elsewhere, underscores the importance of developing the types of large-scale environmental- and policy-level interventions, which can have a widespread effect on the population as a whole (65). As discussed, social environment-based interventions targeting health care providers as well as mass media-based approaches to physical activity promotion may be particularly influential for older adults. However, the systematic testing of such interventions remains in its infancy. Increasing our understanding of the role of environmental and policy factors in enabling and maintaining adequate physical activity levels in older adults as well as other segments of the population may arguably represent the most important challenge currently facing the field.

#### ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Address correspondence to Abby C. King, Stanford University School of Medicine, 730 Welch Road, Suite B, Palo Alto, CA 94304-1583. E-mail: aking@stanford.edu

#### REFERENCES

- Bouchard C, Shephard RJ, Stephens T, eds. *Physical Activity and Health: International Proceedings and Consensus Statement*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics; 1994.
- U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. *Physical Activity and Health: A Report of the Surgeon General*. Atlanta, GA: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services; 1996.
- American College of Sports Medicine. ACSM Position Stand on Exercise and Physical Activity for Older Adults. *Med Sci Sports Exerc*. 1998;30:992-1008.
- King AC, Rejeski WJ, Buchner DM. Physical activity interventions targeting older adults: a critical review and recommendations. *Am J Prev Med*. 1998;15:316-333.
- Buchner DM, Wagner EH. Preventing frail health. *Clin Geriatr Med*. 1992;8:1-17.
- World Health Organization. The Heidelberg Guidelines for promoting physical activity among older persons. *J Aging Phys Activity*. 1997;5:1-8.
- Stephens T, Caspersen CJ. The demography of physical activity. In: Bouchard C, Shephard RJ, Stephens T, eds. *Physical Activity, Fitness, and Health: International Proceedings and Consensus Statement*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics; 1994:204-213.
- Caspersen CJ, Merritt RK, Stephens T. International physical activity patterns: a methodological perspective. In: Dishman RK, ed. *Advances in Exercise Adherence*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics; 1994:73-110.
- Berg RL, Casells JS, eds. *The Second Fifty Years: Promoting Health and Preventing Disability*. Washington, DC: National Academy Press; 1990.
- Dishman RK, Sallis JF. Determinants and interventions for physical activity and exercise. In: Bouchard C, Shephard RJ, Stephens T, eds. *Physical Activity, Fitness, and Health: International Proceedings and Consensus Statement*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics; 1994:214-238.
- King AC, Blair SN, Bild DE, et al. Determinants of physical activity and interventions in adults. *Med Sci Sports Exerc*. 1992;24(suppl):S221-S236.
- Dishman RK, ed. *Advances in Exercise Adherence*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics; 1994.
- Dishman RK. Determinants of physical activity and exercise for persons 65 years of age and older. In: Spirduso WW, Eckert HM, eds. *Physical Activity and Aging*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics; 1989:140-162.
- Shephard RJ. Determinants of exercise in people aged 65 years and older. In: Dishman RK, ed. *Advances in Exercise Adherence*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics; 1994:343-360.
- Rejeski WJ, Brawley LR, Ettinger WH, Morgan T, Thompson C. Compliance to exercise therapy in older participants with knee osteoarthritis: implications for treating disability. *Med Sci Sports Exerc*. 1997;29:977-985.
- Elward K, Larson EB. Benefits of exercise for older adults. *Clin Geriatr Med*. 1992;8:35-50.
- Elward KS, Wagner EH, Larson EB. Participation by sedentary persons in an exercise promotion session. *Fam Med*. 1992;24:607-612.
- Hovell MF, Sallis JF, Hofstetter CR, Spry VM, Faucher P, Caspersen CJ. Identifying correlates of walking for exercise: an epidemiologic prerequisite for physical activity promotion. *Prev Med*. 1989;18:856-866.
- Stephens RJ, Craig C. *The Well Being of Canadians: Highlights of the 1988 Campbell's Soup Survey*. Ottawa, ON: Canadian Fitness and Lifestyle Research Institute; 1990.
- Wolinsky FD, Stump TE, Clark DO. Antecedents and consequences of physical activity and exercise among older adults. *Gerontologist*. 1995;35:451-462.
- Wister AV. The effects of socioeconomic status on exercise and smoking: age-related differences. *J Aging Health*. 1996;8:467-488.
- Conn VS. Older adults and exercise: path analysis of self-efficacy related constructs. *Nurs Res*. 1998;47:180-189.
- Eaton CB, Reynes JR, Assaf AR, Feldman H, Lasater T, Carleton RA. Predicting physical activity change in men and women in two New England communities. *Am J Prev Med*. 1993;9:209-219.
- Lee C. Factors related to the adoption of exercise among older women. *J Behav Med*. 1993;16:323-334.
- O'Brien SJ, Vertinsky PA. Unfit survivors: exercise as a resource for aging women. *Gerontologist*. 1991;31:347-357.
- Cousins SO. Elderly tomboys? Sources of self-efficacy for physical activity in later life. *J Aging Phys Activity*. 1997;5:229-243.
- Dishman RK. Motivating older adults to exercise. *South Med J*. 1994;87:S79-S82.
- Wilcox S, Storandt M. Relations among age, exercise, and psychological variables in a community sample of women. *Health Psychol*. 1996;15:110-113.
- Jette AM, Rooks D, Lachman M, et al. Home-based resistance training: predictors of participation and adherence. *Gerontologist*. 1998;38:412-421.
- Oman RF, King AC. Predicting the adoption and maintenance of exercise participation using self-efficacy and previous exercise participation rates. *Am J Health Promot*. 1998;12:154-161.

31. Calfas KJ, Sallis JF, Oldenburg B, French M. Mediators of change in physical activity following an intervention in primary care: PACE. *Prev Med*. 1997;26:297-304.
32. Lechner L, De Vries H. Participation in an employee fitness program: determinants of high adherence, low adherence, and dropout. *J Occup Environ Med*. 1995;37:429-436.
33. Jones M, Nies MA. The relationship of perceived benefits of and barriers to reported exercise in older African American women. *Public Health Nurs*. 1996;13:151-158.
34. Mobily KE, Lemke JH, Drube GA, Wallace RB, Leslie DK. Relationship between exercise attitudes and participation among the rural elderly. *Adapted Phys Educ Q*. 1987;4:38-50.
35. Marcus BH, Simkin LR. The transtheoretical model: applications to exercise behavior. *Med Sci Sports Exerc*. 1994;26:1400-1404.
36. Lee C. Attitudes, knowledge, and stages of change: a survey of exercise patterns in older Australian women. *Health Psychol*. 1993;12:476-480.
37. Emery CF, Hauck ER, Blumenthal JA. Exercise adherence or maintenance among older adults: 1-year follow-up study. *Psychol Aging*. 1992;7:466-470.
38. Williams P, Lord SR. Predictors of adherence to a structured exercise program for older women. *Psychol Aging*. 1995;10:617-624.
39. Khoury-Murphy M, Murphy MD. Southern (bar) belles: the cultural problematics of implementing a weight training program among older Southern women. *Play Culture*. 1992;5:409-419.
40. Young DR, King AC. Exercise adherence: determinants of physical activity and applications of health behavior change theories. *Med Exerc Nutr Health*. 1995;4:335-348.
41. Gil K, Overdorf V. Incentives for exercise in younger and older women. *J Sport Behav*. 1994;17:87-97.
42. Sidney KH, Shephard RJ. Attitudes towards health and physical activity in the elderly: effects of a physical training program. *Med Sci Sports*. 1977;8:246-252.
43. King AC, Taylor CB, Haskell WL, DeBusk RF. Identifying strategies for increasing employee physical activity levels: findings from the Stanford/Lockheed exercise survey. *Health Educ Q*. 1990;17:269-285.
44. Richter DL, Macera CA, Williams H, et al. Disincentives to participation in planned exercise activities among older adults. *Health Values*. 1993;17:51-55.
45. Ecclestone NA, Myers AM, Paterson DH. Tracking older participants of twelve physical activity classes over a three year period. *J Aging Phys Activity*. 1998;6:70-82.
46. King AC, Brassington G. Enhancing physical and psychological functioning in older family caregivers: the role of regular physical activity. *Ann Behav Med*. 1997;19:1-11.
47. Wilcox S, King AC, Brassington G, Ahn D. Physical activity preferences of middle-aged and older adults: a community analysis. *J Aging Phys Activity*. 1999;7:386-399.
48. Brownson RC, Eyler AA, King AC, Shyu Y, Brown DR, Homan SM. Reliability of information on physical activity and other chronic disease risk factors among women aged 40 years and older, United States. *Am J Epidemiol*. 1999;149:379-391.
49. King AC, Castro C, Wilcox S, Eyler AA, Sallis JF, Brownson RC. Personal and environmental factors associated with physical inactivity among different racial/ethnic groups of US middle- and older-aged women. *Health Psychol*. 2000;19:354-364.
50. King AC, Kiernan M, Oman RF, Kraemer HC, Hull M, Ahn D. Can we identify who will adhere to long-term physical activity? Application of signal detection methodology as a potential aid to clinical decision-making. *Health Psychol*. 1997;16:380-389.
51. O'Brien CS. Social support for exercise among elderly women in Canada. *Health Promot Int*. 1995;10:273-282.
52. Emery CF, Blumenthal JA. Perceived change among participants in an exercise program for older adults. *Gerontologist*. 1990;30:516-521.
53. Oka RK, King AC, Young DR. Sources of social support as predictors of exercise adherence in women and men ages 50 to 65 years. *Womens Health*. 1995;1:161-175.
54. Treiber FA, Baranowski T, Braden DS, et al. Social support for exercise: relationship to physical activity in young adults. *Prev Med*. 1991;20:737-750.
55. King AC, Haskell WL, Taylor CB, Kraemer HC, DeBusk RF. Group-versus home-based exercise training in healthy older men and women: a community-based clinical trial. *JAMA*. 1991;266:1535-1542.
56. Harris SS, Caspersen CJ, DeFries GH, Estes JEH. Physical activity counseling for healthy adults as a primary preventive intervention in the clinic setting. *JAMA*. 1989;261:3590-3598.
57. The Writing Group for Activity Counseling Trial Research Group. Effects of physical activity counseling in primary care: The Activity Counseling Trial. *JAMA*. 2001;286:677-687.
58. Mills KM, King AC, Stewart AL. Predictors of physical activity change in older adults (CHAMPS II): preliminary results [abstract]. *Gerontologist*. 1998;38:394.
59. Simons-Morton DG, Calfas KJ, Oldenburg B, Burton NW. Effects of interventions in health-care settings on physical activity or cardiorespiratory fitness. *Am J Prev Med*. 1998;15:413-430.
60. American College of Sports Medicine. The recommended quantity and quality of exercise for developing and maintaining cardiorespiratory and muscular fitness in healthy adults. *Med Sci Sports Exerc*. 1990;22:265-274.
61. American College of Sports Medicine. *Guidelines for Exercise Testing and Prescription*. 5th ed. Baltimore, MD: Williams and Wilkins; 1995.
62. Public Health Service. *Healthy People 2000: National Health Promotion and Disease Prevention Objectives*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services; 1990.
63. Orleans CI, George LK, Houtp JL, et al. Health promotion in primary care: a survey of US family practitioners. *Prev Med*. 1985;14:636-647.
64. Pender NH, Sallis JF, Long BJ, Calfas KJ. Health care provider counseling to promote physical activity. In: Dishman RK, ed. *Exercise Adherence*. 2nd ed. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics; 1994:213-235.
65. King AC, Jeffery RW, Fridinger F, et al. Environmental and policy approaches to cardiovascular disease prevention through physical activity: issues and opportunities. *Health Educ Q*. 1995;22:499-511.
66. Sallis JF, Johnson MF, Calfas KJ, Caparosa S, Nichols J. Assessing perceived physical environment variables that may influence physical activity. *Res Q Exerc Sport*. 1997;68:345-351.
67. Minor MA, Brown JD. Exercise maintenance of persons with arthritis after participation in a class experience. *Health Educ Q*. 1993;20:83-95.
68. Sallis JF, Haskell WL, Fortmann SP, Vranizan K, Taylor CB, Solomon DS. Predictors of adoption and maintenance of physical activity in a community sample. *Prev Med*. 1986;15:331-341.
69. Bandura A. *Self-efficacy: The Exercise of Control*. New York: Freeman; 1997.
70. Killen JD, Fortmann SP, Kraemer HC, Varady A, Newman B. Who will relapse? Symptoms of nicotine dependence predict long-term relapse after smoking cessation. *J Consult Clin Psychol*. 1992;60:797-801.
71. Kiernan M, King AC, Stefanick M, Kraemer HC. Characteristics of successful and unsuccessful dieters: an application of signal detection methodology. *Ann Behav Med*. 1998;20:1-6.
72. Kraemer HC. Assessment of  $2 \times 2$  association: generalization of signal detection methods. *Am Statistician*. 1988;42:37-49.
73. King AC. Community intervention for promotion of physical activity and fitness. *Exerc Sport Sci Rev*. 1991;19:211-259.
74. Bandura A. *Social Foundations of Thought and Action: A Social Cognitive Theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall; 1986.
75. Ettinger WH, Burns R, Messier SP, et al. A randomized trial comparing aerobic exercise and resistance exercise with a health education program in older adults with knee osteoarthritis: the Fitness Arthritis and Seniors Trial (FAST). *JAMA*. 1997;277:25-31.
76. McAuley E, Courneya KS, Rudolph DL, Lox CL. Enhancing exercise adherence in middle-aged males and females. *Prev Med*. 1994;23:498-506.
77. Tushima MT, Kaplan RM, Ries AL. Experimental evaluation of rehabilitation in chronic obstructive pulmonary disease: short-term effects on exercise endurance and health status. *Health Psychol*. 1990;9:237-252.
78. Brawley LR, Rejeski WJ, Lutes L. A group-mediated cognitive-behavioral intervention for increasing adherence to physical activity in older adults. *J Appl Biobehav Res*. 2000;5:47-65.
79. Atkins CJ, Kaplan RM, Timms RM, Reinsh S, Lofback K. Behavioral exercise programs in the management of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *J Consult Clin Psychol*. 1984;52:591-603.
80. Stewart AL, Mills KM, Sepsis PG, et al. Evaluation of CHAMPS, a physical activity promotion program for seniors. *Ann Behav Med*. 1997;19:353-361.

81. King AC, Pruitt LA, Phillips WT, Oka R, Rodenburg A, Haskell WL. Comparative effects of two physical activity programs on measured and perceived physical functioning and other health-related quality of life outcomes in older adults. *J Gerontol Med Sci.* 2000;55:M74-M83.
82. Stewart AL, Verboncoeur C, McLellan B, et al. Preliminary outcomes of CHAMPS II: a physical activity promotion program for seniors in a Medicare HMO setting [abstract]. In: The Cooper Institute for Aerobics Research and the American College of Sports Medicine, ed. *Specialty Conference on Physical Activity Interventions.* Dallas, TX: Cooper Institute for Aerobics Research; 1997;31.
83. DeBusk RF, Haskell WL, Miller NH, et al. Medically directed at-home rehabilitation soon after clinically uncomplicated acute myocardial infarction: a new model for patient care. *Am J Cardiol.* 1985; 55:251-257.
84. King AC, Haskell WL, Young DR, Oka RK, Stefanick ML. Long-term effects of varying intensities and formats of physical activity on participation rates, fitness, and lipoproteins in men and women aged 50 to 65 years. *Circulation.* 1995;91:2596-2604.
85. Brassington GS, King AC. Staff contact and exercise maintenance: a randomized study [abstract]. In: *Proceedings of the Fourth International Congress of Behavioral Medicine.* Washington, DC: Society of Behavioral Medicine; 1996:S175.
86. Jette AM, Harris BE, Sleeper L, et al. A home-based exercise program for nondisabled older adults. *J Am Geriatr Soc.* 1996;44:644-649.
87. Friedman RH, Stollerman JE, Mahoney DM, Rozenblum L. The virtual visit: using telecommunications technology to take care of patients. *J Am Informatics Assoc.* 1997;4:413-425.
88. Jarvis KL, Friedman RH, Heeren T, Cullinane PM. Older women and physical activity: using the telephone to walk. *Womens Health Issues.* 1997;7:24-29.
89. Cullinane PM, Hyppolite K, Zastawney AL, Friedman RH. Telephone linked communication-activity counseling and tracking for older patients [abstract]. *J Gen Intern Med.* 1994;9(suppl):86A.
90. Calfas KJ, Long BJ, Sallis JF, Wooten WJ, Pratt M, Patrick K. A controlled trial of physician counseling to promote the adoption of physical activity. *Prev Med.* 1996;25:225-233.
91. Goldstein MG, Pinto BM, Marcus BH, et al. Physician-based physical activity counseling for middle-aged and older adults: a randomized trial. *Ann Behav Med.* 1999;21:40-47.
92. Hoffman C, Rice D, Sung H. Persons with chronic conditions: their prevalence and costs. *JAMA.* 1996;276:1478-1479.
93. Heirich MA, Foote A, Konopka B. Work-site physical fitness programs: comparing the impact of different program designs on cardiovascular risks. *J Occup Med.* 1993;35:510-517.
94. Hammond SL, Long DM, Fowler K, Ryan C, Volansky M. *Centers for Disease Control and Prevention 1996 Director's Physical Activity Challenge Evaluation Report.* Atlanta, GA: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention; 1997.
95. Altman DG, Evans AJ, Flora JA, King AC, Fortmann SP. A worksite exercise contest. In: *Proceedings of the Society of Behavioral Medicine Seventh Annual Scientific Sessions.* San Francisco, CA: Society of Behavioral Medicine; 1986:35.
96. King AC, Carl F, Birkel L, Haskell WL. Increasing exercise among blue-collar employees: the tailoring of worksite programs to meet specific needs. *Prev Med.* 1988;17:357-365.
97. Knadler GF, Rogers T. Mountain climb month program: a low-cost exercise intervention program at a high-rise worksite. *Fitness Business.* 1987;October:64-67.
98. Hatch JW, Cunningham AC, Woods WW, et al. The Fitness Through Churches project: description of a community-based cardiovascular health promotion intervention. *Hygie.* 1986;5:9-12.
99. Lasater TM, Wells BL, Carleton RA, et al. The role of churches in disease prevention research studies. *Public Health Rep.* 1986;101: 125-131.
100. Sallis JF, Bauman A, Pratt M. Environmental and policy interventions to promote physical activity. *Am J Prev Med.* 1998;15:379-397.
101. Brownell KD, Stunkard AJ, Albaum JM. Evaluation and modification of exercise patterns in the natural environment. *Am J Psychiatry.* 1980;137:1540-1545.
102. Blamey A, Mutrie N, Aitchison T. Health promotion by encouraged use of stairs. *Br Med J.* 1995;311:289-290.
103. Iversen DC, Fielding ME, Crow RS, et al. The promotion of physical activity in the United States population: the status of programs in medical, worksite, community, and school settings. *Public Health Rep.* 1985;100:212-224.
104. Lewis CE, Raczynski JM, Heath GW, Levinson R, Hilyer JC, Cutter GR. Promoting physical activity in low-income African-American communities: the PARR Project. *Ethn Dis.* 1993;3:106-118.
105. Marcus BH, Owen N, Forsyth LH, Cavill NA, Fridinger F. Physical activity interventions using mass media, print media, and information technology. *Am J Prev Med.* 1998;15:362-378.
106. Booth M, Bauman A, Oldenburg B, Owen N, Magnus P. Effects of a national mass-media campaign on physical activity participation. *Health Promot Int.* 1992;7:241-247.
107. Owen N, Bauman A, Booth M, Oldenburg B, Magnus P. Serial mass-media campaigns to promote physical activity: reinforcing or redundant? *Am J Public Health.* 1995;85:244-248.
108. Voorrips LE, Ravelli ACJ, Dongelmans PCA, Deurenberg P, Van Staveren WA. A physical activity questionnaire for the elderly. *Med Sci Sports Exerc.* 1991;23:974-979.
109. DiPietro L, Caspersen CJ, Ostfeld AM, Nadel ER. A survey for assessing physical activity among older adults. *Med Sci Sports Exerc.* 1993;25:628-642.
110. Washburn RA, Smith KW, Jette AM, Janney CA. The physical activity scale for the elderly (PASE): development and evaluation. *J Clin Epidemiol.* 1993;46:153-162.
111. King AC, Castro C, O'Sullivan P, Baumann K, Wilcox S. Promoting exercise adoption in at-risk older adults: a clinical trial aimed at family caregivers [abstract]. *Ann Behav Med.* 1999;21(suppl):S65.
112. King AC. Community and public health approaches to the promotion of physical activity. *Med Sci Sports Exerc.* 1994;26:1405-1412.
113. King AC, Harris RB, Haskell WL. Effect of recruitment strategy on types of subjects entered into a primary prevention clinical trial. *Ann Epidemiol.* 1994;4:312-320.
114. Pate RR, Pratt M, Blair SN, et al. Physical activity and public health: a recommendation from the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention and the American College of Sports Medicine. *JAMA.* 1995;273: 402-407.
115. Epstein LH, Valoski AM, Vara LS, et al. Effects of decreasing sedentary behavior and increasing activity on weight change in obese children. *Health Psychol.* 1995;14:109-115.
116. Epstein LH, Saelens BE, Myers MD, Vito D. Effects of decreasing sedentary behaviors on activity choice in obese children. *Health Psychol.* 1997;16:107-113.
117. Saelens BE, Epstein LH. The impact of sedentary activity substitutability on activity choice. *Ann Behav Med.* 1998;20(suppl):S68.
118. Fitzgerald SJ, Kriska AM, Pereira MA, De Courten MP. Associations among physical activity, television watching, and obesity in adult Pima Indians. *Med Sci Sports Exerc.* 1997;29:910-915.
119. Yurgalevitch SM, Kriska AM, Welty TK, Go O, Robbins DC, Howard BV. Physical activity and lipids and lipoproteins in American Indians ages 45-74. *Med Sci Sports Exerc.* 1998;30:543-549.
120. Wood PD, Stefanick ML, Williams PT, Haskell WL. The effects on plasma lipoproteins, blood pressure and body composition of a calorie-reduced prudent diet, with and without exercise, in overweight men and women. *N Engl J Med.* 1991;325:461-466.
121. Stefanick ML, Mackey S, Sheehan M, Ellsworth N, Haskell WL, Wood PD. Effects of diet and exercise in men and postmenopausal women with low levels of HDL cholesterol and high levels of LDL cholesterol. *N Engl J Med.* 1998;339:12-20.
122. Marcus BH, Albrecht AE, King TK, et al. The efficacy of exercise as an aid for smoking cessation in women: a randomized controlled trial. *Arch Int Med.* 1999;159:1229-1234.
123. Marcus BH, King TK, Albrecht AE, Parisi AF, Abrams DB. Rationale, design, and baseline data for Commit to Quit: an exercise efficacy trial for smoking cessation in women. *Prev Med.* 1997;26: 586-597.
124. Emmons K, Marcus B, Shadel W, Linnan L, Abrams D. Physical activity: a gateway to improve dietary behaviors? *Ann Behav Med.* 1998;20 (suppl):S69.
125. King AC, Kiernan M, Ahn DK, Wilcox S. The effects of marital transitions on physical activity levels: results from a 10-year community study. *Ann Behav Med.* 1998;20:1-6.
126. Schmitz K, French SA, Jeffery RW. Correlates of changes in leisure time physical activity over 2 years: the Healthy Worker Project. *Prev Med.* 1997;26:570-579.

127. Stone R, Cafferata GL, Sangl J. Caregivers of the frail elderly: a national profile. *Gerontologist*. 1987;27:616–626.
128. Umberson D. Gender, marital status and the social control of health behavior. *Soc Sci Med*. 1992;34:907–917.
129. Sallis JF, Patterson TL, McKenzie TL, Nader PR. Family variables and physical activity in preschool children. *J Dev Behav Pediatr*. 1988;9:57–61.
130. Sallis JF, McKenzie TL, Elder JP, Broyles SL, Nader PR. Factors parents use in selecting play spaces for young children. *Arch Pediatr Adolesc Med*. 1997;151:414–417.