# National physical activity and sedentary behaviour policies in 76 countries: availability, comprehensiveness, implementation, and effectiveness

- 3 Bojana Klepac Pogrmilovic<sup>1,2</sup>, Andrea Ramirez Varela<sup>3</sup>, Michael Pratt<sup>4</sup>, Karen Milton<sup>5</sup>, Adrian
- 4 Bauman<sup>6</sup>, Stuart J.H. Biddle<sup>7</sup>, Zeljko Pedisic<sup>1\*</sup>
- <sup>1</sup> Institute for Health and Sport, Victoria University, Ballarat Road, Footscray, Melbourne, VIC 3001,
   Australia
- 8 <sup>2</sup> Mitchell Institute, Victoria University, Melbourne, VIC 3000, Australia
- <sup>3</sup> School of Medicine, Universidad de los Andes, Bogota, Colombia.
- <sup>4</sup> University of California San Diego Institute for Public Health, 9500 Gilman Drive, San Diego, USA
- <sup>5</sup> Norwich Medical School, University of East Anglia, Norwich Research Park, Norwich, Norfolk NR4
   7TJ, UK
- <sup>6</sup> Sydney School of Public Health, University of Sydney, Camperdown, Sydney, NSW, Australia
- <sup>16</sup>
   <sup>7</sup> Centre for Health Research, University of Southern Queensland, 37 Sinnathamby Boulevard,
- 18 Springfield Central, QLD 4300, Australia
- 19

20	*Corresponding author: Associate Professor Zeljko Pedisic, Institute for Health and Sport,
21	Victoria University, Ballarat Road, Footscray, Melbourne, VIC 3001, Australia Tel.: +61399195275,
22	E-mail address: zeljko.pedisic@vu.edu.au
23	
$\frac{23}{24}$	
27	
25 26	
20	
21	
20	
29	
30 21	
21	
32	
33 24	
34 25	
35	
36	
37	
38	
39	
40	
41	
42	

## 43 Abstract

44

Background: Evidence on current, national physical activity (PA) and sedentary behaviour
(SB) policies is limited. We, therefore, analysed availability, comprehensiveness,
implementation, and effectiveness of PA and SB policies internationally.

48 **Methods:** In this cross-sectional study, Global Observatory for Physical Activity (GoPA!) 49 Country Contacts from 173 countries were asked to provide data on their national PA and 50 SB policies by completing GoPA! Policy Inventory. Data were collected for 76 countries 51 (response rate = 44%).

52 Results: Formal written policies for PA and SB were found in 92% (95% confidence 53 interval [CI]: 86, 98) and 62% (95% CI: 50, 75) of countries, respectively. Sixty-two percent 54 (95% CI: 51, 73) of countries have national PA guidelines, while 40% (95% CI: 29, 52) 55 have SB guidelines. Fifty-two (95% CI: 40, 64) and 11% (95% CI: 3, 19) of countries have quantifiable national targets for PA and SB, respectively. The most represented 56 57 ministries/departments involved in the promotion of more PA and/or less SB were in the sport (reported by 99% countries; 95% CI: 96, 100), health (97%; 95% CI: 94, 100), 58 59 education (94%; 95% CI: 88, 100), and recreation and leisure (85%; 95% CI: 71, 99) sectors. The median score (0-10) for the comprehensiveness of PA and SB policies was 4 60 (95% CI: 4, 5) and 2 (95% CI: 2, 3), respectively. For PA and SB policy implementation it 61 62 was 6 (95% CI: 5, 6). For the effectiveness of PA and SB policies it was 4 (95% CI: 3, 5) and 3 (95% CI: 2, 4), respectively. PA and SB policies were generally best developed in 63 64 high-income countries and countries of European and Western-Pacific regions.

Conclusions: Most of the included countries have PA policies, but their 65 comprehensiveness, implementation, and effectiveness are generally low-to-moderate. SB 66 policies are less available, comprehensive, implemented, and effective than PA policies. 67 PA and SB policies are better developed in high-income countries, compared with low- and 68 lower-middle-income countries, and in countries of European and Western-Pacific regions, 69 70 compared with other world regions. More investment is needed in development and 71 implementation of comprehensive and effective PA and SB policies, particularly in low- and 72 lower-middle-income countries.

- 73
- 74 75

76 Key words: physical activity, sedentary behaviour, global, assessment, audit, policies

#### 80 Background

81

82 Insufficient physical activity (PA) and high sedentary behaviour (i.e. activities in sitting or reclining posture requiring low energy expenditure; SB) are jointly responsible for around 83 84 13% of deaths globally [1, 2]. Alongside smoking, unhealthy diet, and excessive alcohol 85 consumption, insufficient PA and SB are key behavioural risk factors for the development 86 of noncommunicable diseases [3, 4]. Insufficient PA is associated with a significant 87 economic burden [5]. Its overall direct cost to worldwide healthcare systems is estimated 88 to be around 53.8 billion international dollars [5]. Evidence on the considerable public 89 health and economic benefits that could be achieved by increasing PA in the population 90 has incentivised governments around the world to develop PA policies [6].

91

Research around PA policy is developing, and some data on PA policy are available for 92 93 168 countries [6]. SB policy research is a relatively new area [6], and for most countries 94 evidence is lacking for the development of SB policies [6]. Research on national-level PA 95 and SB policies may contribute to: (i) evidence-based development of new PA and SB policies; (ii) better implementation and evaluation of existing PA and SB policies; (iii) 96 97 achieving sustainable reforms within the health, education, sport, and other sectors, particularly in regard to the promotion of more PA and less SB; (iv) raising awareness 98 99 among policy makers and other public health stakeholders about existing challenges, gaps, 100 and prospects in national-level PA promotion; (v) important debates between researchers 101 and policymakers on existing and future PA and SB policies [7-16].

102

103 For the past several decades, national and subnational governments, international 104 organisations such as the World Health Organization (WHO), public health researchers, 105 and non-governmental organisations have worked on various initiatives to make the 106 promotion of more PA and less SB a public health priority. In 2018, the WHO launched the 107 Global Action Plan on Physical Activity 2018–2030 urging countries around the world to 108 implement policy actions that will support efforts to reduce levels of physical inactivity and 109 SB and contribute to meeting the global target of a 15% relative reduction in the prevalence 110 of insufficient PA by 2030 [17].

112 In 2012, the Global Observatory for Physical Activity (GoPA!) was established to monitor global progress in PA surveillance, research, and policy [18, 19]. The GoPA! is a council 113 114 of the International Society for Physical Activity and Health [18, 19]. At the time when the 115 GoPA! was established, little data on national PA surveillance, research, and policy were 116 available that would allow for comparisons between different countries and world regions [18, 19]. In 2015, the GoPA! issued PA profiles for 139 countries, the so-called "PA Country 117 118 Cards" [20]. The data presented in the Country Cards were a valuable starting point 119 towards a better understanding of the global progress on PA policies [6]. The first set of 120 Country Cards included information on research, surveillance and on the availability of national action plans for PA [20]. Including comprehensiveness, implementation, and 121 122 effectiveness of PA policies as well as SB policy became one of the goals for the Second 123 set of Country Cards to be released by the end of 2020. Furthermore, national policies 124 change over time; hence, information on PA and SB policies needs to the regularly updated [6]. Therefore, the aim of this study was to audit and critically assess the availability, 125 126 comprehensiveness, implementation, and effectiveness of current national-level PA and 127 SB policies globally.

128

## 129 Methods

130

#### 131 Data collection and study sample

The data collection in this cross-sectional study took place from October 2019 to March 132 133 2020. GoPA! Country Contacts from 173 countries were invited to participate in the study and provide information on national PA and SB policies in their countries. All GoPA! 134 135 Country Contacts were invited to participate in the survey, regardless of whether their country had or did not have PA and SB policy. The GoPA! Country Contacts are an 136 137 established group that were identified by the GoPA!: (i) using PubMed search of the PA 138 literature; (ii) from the list of focal points of international networks for PA promotion; and 139 (iii) from the list of focal points of the WHO regional offices. To be selected, Country 140 Contacts needed to have established experience in the area of public health and PA as 141 researchers, members of international networks for PA promotion or members of government institutions. More details about the selection of GoPA! Country Contacts can 142 be found elsewhere [18, 20]. The GoPA! Policy Inventory version 3.0 (Additional file 1), 143 144 was distributed to the GoPA! Country Contacts as an online survey. Responses were 145 obtained for a total of 76 countries (response rate = 44%), of which 51% were high-income,

146 28% upper-middle-income and 21% low and lower-middle-income. The study sample 147 included countries from all six WHO regions. The most represented region was the 148 European Region (38%), followed by the Region of Americas (22%), the African Region 149 (12%), the Western Pacific Region (11%), the Eastern Mediterranean Region (11%), and 150 the South-East Asia Region (5%). In 12 of the participating countries, we obtained separate 151 responses from two Country Contacts. When their responses differed, we relied on the 152 responses from the main Country Contact listed in the GoPA! Country Cards. Participation 153 in the study was voluntary and all participants provided informed consent before 154 responding to the survey questions. The study protocol was approved by the Victoria 155 University Human Research Ethics Committee (ref: HRE19-057).

156

158

#### 157 Policy variables

159 In the GoPA! Policy Inventory version 3.0, we used a broad definition of PA policy, as 160 recommended in the Comprehensive Analysis of Policy on Physical Activity (CAPPA) 161 framework [21]. PA policy was "indicated by the totality of formal written policies, unwritten 162 formal statements, written standards and guidelines, formal procedures, and informal policies (or lack thereof) that may directly or indirectly affect community- or population-level 163 164 PA" [21]. Given the large overlap between the PA and SB policy fields, it is suggested that 165 the CAPPA framework can also be used for the analysis of SB polices [21]. Therefore, we 166 used the same broad definition from the CAPPA framework for SB policy.

167

168 The GoPA! Policy Inventory version 3.0 contains 20 questions about national PA and SB 169 policies. The questionnaire was developed based on: the Health enhancing physical 170 activity policy audit tool, version 2.0 [22]; the monitoring framework from the European 171 Union Recommendation on Health-Enhancing Physical Activity Across Sectors [23]; the 172 CAPPA framework; and a year long process of engagement of stakeholders [21]. The questions on the GoPA! Policy Inventory version 3.0 address the following elements of the 173 174 CAPPA framework: availability; formal written policies; written guidelines; formal 175 procedures; actors; implementation; and effects [21]. Specifically, the questions focus on: 176 the availability of national formal written PA and SB polices (e.g., policy documents, 177 legislation, strategies, action plans); national PA and SB guidelines; national targets for PA 178 and SB; health surveillance or monitoring systems that include measures of PA and SB; 179 ministries/departments involved in the promotion of more PA and less SB; and

180 comprehensiveness, implementation and effectiveness of national PA and SB policies. When referring to the availability of PA and SB policy, we considered not only the 181 182 availability of formal written PA and SB policies but also the availability of written guidelines, 183 quantifiable targets, and national PA and SB surveillance or monitoring, because these are 184 indicators of a government's commitment or intention to support the promotion of more PA and less SB in the population [21]. The questions on comprehensiveness, implementation, 185 186 and effectiveness of policies had ordinal response scales (0-10), with a higher value on the 187 scale representing a better score. Detailed definitions of comprehensiveness, 188 implementation and effectiveness of PA and SB policies are provided in Additional file 1. 189

#### 190 Data analysis

191 The data were analysed using IBM Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), 192 version 23 (SPSS Inc., an IBM Company, Chicago, IL, USA). Ordinal data on 193 comprehensiveness, implementation, and effectiveness of policy were presented using 194 medians (and their 95% confidence intervals [CI]) and interguartile ranges. Categorical data were presented as percentages and their 95% confidence intervals. Data were 195 196 analysed for the whole sample and stratified by WHO regions and country's income level 197 (GNI per capita, calculated using the Atlas method) according to the World Bank [24]. 198 Differences in PA and SB policy between low-, middle, and high-income countries and 199 between the WHO regions were analysed using the Kruskal-Wallis test, for ordinal 200 variables, and chi-square test for categorical variables. The percentage of missing data was relatively low (range across variables: 0% - 9.2%, mean: 3.3%). In the analyses, we 201 202 used pairwise deletion of missing data. We considered p < 0.05 as a threshold for statistical 203 significance.

#### 204 Categorisation of countries

The list of 218 economies from June 2019 provided by the World Bank was used as the list of countries/states/economies [24]. The authors are mindful of the fact that some countries/states/economies on the World Bank's list cannot be termed as "countries" because of unclear legal and/or political status. Nevertheless, for brevity purposes, we used the term "countries" as an abbreviation for "countries/states/economies". In order to be consistent with previous analyses of national PA and SB policies globally, both by GoPA! [20] and other international organisations for PA promotion [25, 26], we separately 212 analysed the four United Kingdom home nations; namely, England, Northern Ireland, 213 Scotland, and Wales. The countries were divided into three groups by income level: high-214 income; upper-middle-income; and low and lower-middle-income, in accordance with the 215 categorisation provided by the World Bank [24]. The two lowest income groups were 216 merged into one, because of a small number of low-income countries in the sample. The 217 countries were also categorised into the six WHO world regions: African Region; European 218 Region; Eastern Mediterranean Region; Region of the Americas; South-East Asia Region; 219 Western Pacific Region.

- 220
- 221 **Results**
- 222 223

225

227

## 224 Availability of PA and SB policies

## 226 Formal written PA and SB policies

We found that 92% (95% CI: 86, 98) of countries have national policy documents, legislation, strategies, or action plans that outline the government's intention to increase PA. National policy documents, legislation, strategies or action plans that outline the government's intention to tackle SB were found in 62% (95% CI: 50, 75) of countries. We found a total of 251 PA and SB policies. Sixty-eight per cent of all policies were published between 2015 and 2020.

234

The availability of national policies that aim to increase PA and tackle SB across different groups by income level and world regions is summarised in Figure 1. We found significant differences in the availability of national policies to increase population PA between country groups by income level (p < 0.001) and between world regions (p = 0.007). We did not find a significant difference in the availability of national policies to tackle population SB by income level (p = 0.396) or by world region (p = 0.135).

241

# Figure 1. Percentage of countries with PA and SB policies, by income level and world region



245 PA: physical activity, SB: sedentary behaviour

246 247

# 248 PA and SB guidelines

249 250 We found that 62% (95% CI: 51, 73) of countries have national PA guidelines, while 40% 251 (95% CI: 29, 52) have guidelines for SB. The availability of national PA and SB guidelines 252 across different income levels and world regions is summarised in Figure 2. We found significant differences in the availability of PA guidelines between country groups by 253 254 income level (p < 0.001) and between world regions (p = 0.002). We also found a significant difference in the availability of SB guidelines between country groups by income level (p =255 0.028). We did not find significant differences in the availability of SB guidelines by world 256 regions (p = 0.226). 257

258

259 Figure 2. Percentage of countries with national PA and SB guidelines, by income

260 level and world region



262 PA: physical activity, SB: sedentary behaviour

263

A large majority of countries have specific PA guidelines for *early years* (66%; 95% CI: 53, 79), *children and young people* (82%; 95% CI: 71, 92), *adults* (78%; 95% CI: 67, 89), and *older adults* (72%; 95% CI: 60, 84). About half of the countries have specific SB guidelines for *early years* (39%; 95% CI: 24, 54), *children and young people* (45%; 95% CI: 30, 60),

*adults* (51%; 95% CI: 36, 67), and *older adults* (44%; 95% CI: 29, 59; Figure 3). Specific national PA and SB guidelines for pregnant women, people with disabilities, and people with chronic disease were less well represented.

271

Figure 3. Percentage of countries with specific national PA and SB guidelines for

273 different target groups



<sup>274</sup> 275

PA: physical activity, SB: sedentary behaviour

# 278 <u>National targets for PA and SB</u>279

The availability of quantifiable national targets for PA and SB across countries with different 280 281 income levels and world regions is presented in Additional file 2. Overall, 52% (95% CI: 282 40, 64) and 11% (95% CI: 3, 19) of countries reported having quantifiable national targets 283 for PA and SB, respectively. We found significant differences in the availability of quantifiable national targets for PA between country groups by income level (p = 0.049) 284 and between world regions (p = 0.027). We did not find significant difference in the 285 availability of quantifiable national targets for SB by income level (p = 0.262) or by world 286 287 region (p = 0.206).

288 289

291

#### 290 National PA and SB surveillance/monitoring

The percentages of countries with national health surveillance or monitoring system that include measures of PA and SB, by income level and world regions, are presented in Additional file 3. Overall, 71% (95% CI: 60, 81) of countries have a national health surveillance or monitoring system that includes measures of PA, and 51% (95% CI: 39, 63) of countries have a national health surveillance or monitoring system with measures of SB. We did not find significant differences in the availability of national health surveillance/monitoring systems that include measures of PA and SB between countrieswith different income levels or between world regions.

300

302

### 301 Ministries/departments involved in the promotion of more PA and less SB

303 The most represented ministries or departments with an active role in the promotion of 304 more PA and/or less SB were in the sectors of: sport (reported by 99% of countries: 95% 305 CI: 96, 100); health (97%; 95% CI: 94, 100); education (94%; 95% CI: 88, 100); recreation and leisure (85%; 95% CI: 71, 99); and research (68% 95% CI: 26, 12). This was followed 306 307 by the ministries or departments of transport (60%; 95% CI: 56, 74), urban/rural planning 308 and design (60%; 95% CI: 45, 75), tourism (46%; 95% CI: 30, 62), culture (44%; 95% CI: 309 29, 59), environment (43%; 95% CI: 27, 58), work and employment (39%; 95% CI: 24, 54), 310 and public finance (28%; 95% CI: 13, 42). The percentage of national ministries or 311 departments involved in promotion of more PA and/or less SB are presented in Additional 312 file 4.

313

# 314 Comprehensiveness of PA and SB policies315

316 The distribution of national PA and SB policies according to their level of 317 comprehensiveness is presented in Figure 4. We found that PA policy in 39% (95% CI: 28, 51) of countries includes only around half of the important elements of a comprehensive 318 319 approach (the list of elements can be found in Additional file 1), while in 27% (95% CI: 17, 320 37) of countries PA policy contains most of the important elements. A low level of 321 comprehensiveness was found for PA policy in 28% (95% CI: 18, 39) of countries, while in 322 6% (95% CI: 0.3, 11) of countries PA policy covers no important elements. No countries 323 reported having PA policy that includes all important elements. The median score for the 324 comprehensiveness of PA policy was 4 (95% CI: 4, 5).

325

In most of the included countries, SB policy was assessed as having low comprehensiveness (48%; 95% CI: 35, 62) or as covering no important aspects (19%; 95% CI: 8, 29). Twenty-six per cent (95% CI: 14, 38) of countries reported having SB policy that includes only around half of important elements, while in 7% (95% CI: 0.4, 14) of countries SB policy contains most of the important elements. No countries reported having SB policy that includes all important elements. The median score for the comprehensiveness of SB policy was 2 (95% CI: 2, 3).

# Figure 4. Distribution of national PA and SB policies according to their level of

### 335 comprehensiveness

336



337

338 PA: physical activity, SB: sedentary behaviour

The level of comprehensiveness of PA and SB policies across countries with different income levels and world regions is presented in Table 1. We found significant differences in the comprehensiveness of PA policy between country groups by income level (p = 0.030) and between world regions (p = 0.049). We did not find significant differences in the comprehensiveness of SB policy by income level (p = 0.157) or by world region (p = 0.412). The level of comprehensiveness of PA and SB policies across different income levels and world regions is presented in Table 1.

347

# Table 1. Level of comprehensiveness of national PA and SB policies, by income level and world region

- 350
- 351

Catagony	Physical activity policy			Sedentary behaviour policy		
Category	Median (IQR)	95% CI	р	Median (IQR)	95% CI	p
Income						
High	5 (3)	4, 7		2 (3.5)	1, 3.5	
Upper-middle	4 (3)	3, 5	0.030	2.5 (3.25)	2, 4.5	0.157

Low and lower-middle	2 (3.25)	1, 4		2 (2)	1, 3	
Region						
Africa	2.5 (3.75)	1, 5		2 (2)	1, 3	
Americas	4 (3.75)	2, 5		2 (3.5)	1, 4	
Eastern Mediterranean	3 (5)	0, 5		1 (3.5)	0, 3.6	
Europe	5 (3)	4, 7	0.049	3 (3)	1, 4	0.412
South-East Asia	6.5 (4.75)	2.7, 10		6 (4)	n/a	
Western Pacific	6 (5)	1, 8		2.5 (4.25)	0.2, 4.8	
All countries	4 (4)	4, 5	/	2 (3)	2, 3	/

PA: physical activity, SB: sedentary behaviour, IQR: interquartile range, CI: confidence interval for median,
 *p*: *p*-value for the difference between groups from Kruskal-Wallis test, n/a: number of countries too small to
 calculate CI

355 356

# 357 Implementation of PA and SB policies358

359 The level of implementation was assessed for a total of 150 national PA and SB policies. 360 The percentage of PA and SB policies according to their level of implementation is 361 presented in Figure 5. For 39% (95% CI: 27, 52) of policies, we found that only around a half of the statements were implemented, while for 28% (95% CI: 17, 39) of policies most 362 363 statements were implemented. A low level of implementation was found for 18% (95% CI: 8, 28), while 10% (95% CI: 2, 17) of policies were not implemented at all. Only a few policies 364 (5%; 95% CI: 0, 10) were fully implemented. The median score for PA and SB policy 365 366 implementation was 6 (95% CI: 5, 6).

367

#### 368 Figure 5. Distribution of PA and SB policies according to their level of

369 implementation



- PA: physical activity, SB: sedentary behaviour
- 371 372 373

The level of implementation of PA and SB policies across countries with different income levels and world regions is presented in Table 2. We did not find a significant difference between the level of PA and SB policy implementation by income level (p = 0.059) or by world region (p = 0.166).

# Table 2. Level of implementation of PA and SB policies, by income level and world region

- 381
- 382

\_

Category	Median (IQR)	95% CI	p
Income			
High	6 (3)	5, 7	
Upper-middle	6 (4)	3, 7	0.059
Low and lower-middle	4 (5)	0, 5	
Region			
Africa	5 (6)	0, 6	
Americas	6 (4.5)	3, 7.5	
Eastern Mediterranean	2 (6)	0, 6.2	0.166
Europe	6 (2.75)	5, 7	
South-East Asia	6 (2)	n/a	

Western Pacific	6 (4)	3, 9	
All countries	6 (4)	5, 6	/

PA: physical activity, SB: sedentary behaviour, IQR: interquartile range, CI: confidence interval for median,
 *p*: *p*-value for the difference between groups from Kruskal-Wallis test, n/a: number of countries too small to
 calculate CI

- 386
- 387

#### 388 Effectiveness of PA and SB policies

389 The distribution of national PA and SB policies according to their level of effectiveness is 390 presented in Figure 6. We found that PA policy in 16% (95% CI: 7, 26) of countries was highly effective (i.e. most targets have been met), while in 38% (95% CI: 25, 51) of 391 392 countries PA policy was moderately effective (i.e. around half of the targets have been 393 met). A low level of effectiveness (i.e. a minority of targets have been met) was found for 394 PA policy in 38% (95% CI: 25, 51) of countries, while in 7% (95% CI: 0.4, 14) of countries 395 PA policy was not effective at all (i.e. no targets have been met). No countries reported 396 having PA policy that was fully effective (i.e. all targets have been met). The median score 397 for the effectiveness of PA policy was 4 (95% CI: 3, 5).

398

399 We found that SB policy in 10% (95% CI: 0.7, 19) of countries was highly effective (i.e. most targets have been met), while in 29% (95% CI: 15, 43) of countries SB policy was 400 401 moderately effective (i.e. around half of the targets have been met). A low level of 402 effectiveness (i.e. a minority of targets have been met) was found for SB policy in 49% (95% CI: 34, 64) of countries, while in 12% (95% CI: 2, 22) of countries SB policy was not 403 effective at all (i.e. no targets have been met). No countries reported having SB policy that 404 was fully effective (i.e. all targets have been met). The median score for the effectiveness 405 406 of SB policy was 3 (95% CI: 2, 4).

- 407
- 408

# 409 Figure 6. Distribution of PA and SB policies according to their level of410 effectiveness



412 PA: physical activity, SB: sedentary behaviour

413 414

The level of effectiveness of PA and SB policies across countries with different income levels and world regions is presented in Table 3. We found significant differences in the effectiveness of PA policy by income level (p = 0.004). We did not find significant differences in the effectiveness of PA policy by world regions (p = 0.175). We also did not find significant differences in the effectiveness of SB policy by income level (p = 0.202) or by world region (p = 0.265).

421

Table 3. Level of effectiveness of PA and SB policies, by income level and world
 region

424 425

•	Physical activity policy			Sedentary behaviour policy		
Category	Median (IQR)	95% CI	р	Median (IQR)	95% CI	р
Income						
High	5 (3)	3, 5		3.5 (2.75)	3, 5	
Upper-middle	5 (3)	3.5, 6	0.004	3 (3.25)	2, 5	0.202
Low and lower-middle	3 (3.5)	0.5, 4		2 (3)	0, 3	

#### Region

Africa	2 (4.25)	1, 6		2 (3)	1, 4	
Americas	4 (3)	2, 5		3 (3)	1, 4	
Eastern Mediterranean	3 (3.5)	0.4, 5.6		2 (2)	n/a	
Europe	5 (4)	4, 6		5 (3)	3, 5	
South-East Asia	5 (2)	n/a	0.175	5 (2)	n/a	0.265
Western Pacific	3 (4)	0, 6.2		3 (2)	n/a	
All countries	4 (2)	3, 5	/	3 (3.5)	2, 4	/

PA: physical activity, SB: sedentary behaviour, IQR: interquartile range, CI: confidence interval for median,
 *p*: *p*-value for the difference between groups from Kruskal-Wallis test, n/a: number of countries too small to
 calculate CI

429

# 430 **Discussion**

431 In this international study conducted in 76 countries, we found that most of the included countries have formal written PA policies, guidelines for PA, health surveillance or 432 433 monitoring systems that include measures of PA, and quantifiable national targets for PA. However, the levels of comprehensiveness, implementation and effectiveness of PA 434 435 policies were generally found to be low-to-moderate. Compared with PA policies, national 436 SB policies were generally less available and comprehensive. They were also less 437 implemented and effective. PA and SB policies were generally more developed in highincome countries and countries of European and Western-Pacific regions. 438

439

# 440 Availability of PA and SB policies

441 Formal written PA and SB policies

442 We found that formal written PA policies are available in most of the included countries, 443 which is consistent with findings of previous studies [27, 28]. This is significant progress 444 from the mid 2000s, when only around 29% of countries had PA policies [27]. However, our findings showed significant differences in the availability of national PA policies 445 between country groups by income level and by world regions. The prevalence of 446 insufficient physical activity is higher in high-income countries than in middle-income and 447 low-income countries [29], which may partly explain why the governments in high-income 448 countries are more likely to prioritise investing in the development of PA policies. 449 450 Furthermore, in many low- and middle-income countries there is still a lack of country and

451 context specific research on PA and health [30], which could be the reason for lower452 interest of policymakers to support the promotion of PA.

453

Low availability of formal written PA policies and PA guidelines may be especially problematic for the Eastern Mediterranean region. In addition to a high prevalence of noncommunicable diseases [31], this region has one of the highest physical inactivity and obesity rates in the world [32]. The call to focus more on developing national PA policies and implementation plans in the Eastern Mediterranean region from several years ago [33], is still justified.

460 The availability of SB policies was generally lower than the availability of PA policies. This 461 finding is not surprising because public awareness of the potential adverse health 462 outcomes of SB started to be systematically addressed no more than 20 years ago [6, 21]. 463 Most evidence on SB policies and other determinants of SB comes from research conducted in high-income countries [6, 34]. Due to differences in socio-cultural, political, 464 465 environmental, and legal factors, there is a need for context-specific research on SB policies [34]. More research on SB and associated policies is warranted, because such 466 467 research may facilitate the development of national SB policies.

468

#### 469 PA and SB guidelines

470 Availability of national PA guidelines is a good indicator of national PA and SB policy, as it 471 shows the government's intention to support the promotion of more PA and less SB. More 472 effort needs to be put in the development of national SB guidelines, as they were less 473 represented than PA guidelines. The low availability of SB guidelines might be because 474 there is still an ongoing discussion within the research community on whether there is 475 sufficient epidemiological evidence on the dose-response relationship between SB and 476 health outcomes [35, 36]. Furthermore, we found that the difference between high-income 477 and low- and lower-middle-income countries is particularly large in the availability of PA and SB guidelines. The fact that a large majority of low- and lower-middle-income countries 478 479 do not have national PA and SB guidelines is concerning from a public health perspective. Greater investment is needed in the development or adoption of PA and SB guidelines in 480 481 low- and lower-middle-income countries, to support their promotion of more PA and less 482 SB in the population.

484 Most of the included countries have specific PA guidelines for early years, children and young people, adults, and older adults, in accordance with the target groups in the WHO 485 486 PA recommendations [37, 38]. We found that national guidelines for other, specific target 487 groups were much less represented. The guiding principle for the implementation of the 488 Global Action Plan on Physical Activity 2018–2030 is proportional universality, which states 489 that greatest efforts should be directed towards target populations that are the least active 490 [17]. Countries should consider adopting the proportional universality principle in the 491 development and implementation of their national PA guidelines. In accordance with this 492 principle, specific PA and SB guidelines should be developed for pregnant women, people 493 with disabilities, and people with chronic disease, as these population groups tend to be 494 less active and more sedentary than the rest of the population [39-41]. These will likely 495 feature in the updated WHO guidelines, which might facilitate their adoption in countries 496 [42]. It should be acknowledged that the development of specific recommendations for 497 people with disabilities and chronic diseases may be challenging, due to a large variety of 498 different disabilities and diseases and the fact that the guidelines may need to be 499 disability/disease-specific. The research base supporting the development of specific 500 recommendations for people with disabilities and chronic diseases is also less well 501 developed.

502

#### 503 National targets for PA and SB

504 Health policy experts agree that for successful national PA and SB policies it is essential 505 to set quantifiable, comparable national targets [22, 43-45]. However, we found that such 506 targets for PA are still not available in nearly half of countries, while only a few countries 507 have such targets for SB. The WHO's "global" target of "a 15% relative reduction in the 508 global prevalence of physical inactivity in adults and in adolescents by 2030" can only be 509 achieved through the joint effort of all countries contributing to this common goal [17]. This 510 target could be used as a basis for setting a national target for PA in a country that still does not have one, but it should be adapted to the country-specific context. Setting 511 512 quantifiable targets for SB may be more challenging, because evidence on prevalence of 513 SB and its trends is less developed.

514

#### 515 National PA and SB surveillance/monitoring

516 Health surveillance and monitoring have a key role in assessing the progress towards 517 meeting PA and SB targets [46, 47]. There are still a large number of countries that do not

518 have PA surveillance, particularly in the Eastern Mediterranean region. We also found that 519 national surveillance of SB is less common than PA surveillance. This suggests that many 520 national governments are still not committed to systematically tracking PA and SB in the 521 population, which means that they may not be able to assess their progress in relation to 522 the WHO targets for 2030.

523

524 Previous studies have suggested that comprehensive PA and SB surveillance systems are 525 needed to provide a good evidence base for public health interventions and strategies [46, 526 47]. Our study provided data only on availability of national PA and SB surveillance. Future 527 studies should explore the comprehensiveness of PA and SB surveillance systems, and 528 how they conform to the principles of optimal PA and SB surveillance [47].

529

#### 530 Ministries/departments involved in the promotion of more PA and less SB

531 An approach that integrates policies across settings and sectors is crucial for successful 532 PA promotion at the national level [21, 44, 48-51]. We found that in most of the included 533 countries ministries/departments in several sectors are, at least notionally, involved in the 534 promotion of more PA and less SB, which suggests that, in this regard, national 535 approaches to PA and SB policy are heading in the right direction. A PA policy audit 536 conducted in several European countries suggested that the sport, health, and education 537 sectors were key drivers of PA policy, and that more opportunities for PA promotion should 538 be created in other sectors [14]. In addition to the ministries/departments of sport, health, 539 and education, in most of the included countries we also found that ministries/departments 540 of recreation and leisure, research, transport, and urban/rural planning and design are 541 engaged in the promotion of more PA and less SB. Despite these encouraging findings, 542 facilitating engagement of ministries/departments across different sectors in PA promotion 543 remains an important task for national governments. There is still ample space for 544 improvement, particularly in the tourism, culture, environment, work and employment, and 545 public finance sectors. Ideally, whole-of-system [17] and structural approaches [52] would be applied, to engage all relevant sectors and utilise knowledge from public health and 546 547 social sciences. As outlined in the Global Action Plan on Physical Activity 2018-2030, a 548 whole-of-system approach may be necessary to enable adequate policy investments in 549 PA [17].

#### 551 Comprehensiveness of PA and SB policies

552 Comprehensiveness is often regarded as a key determinant of successful policies on PA 553 [49, 51, 53, 54]. Our findings suggest that in most of the included countries PA and SB 554 policies are still not sufficiently comprehensive.

555 In 2013, a review of PA-related policies advocated for an urgent response to the 556 noncommunicable disease burden in low- and middle-income countries by developing comprehensive policies to increase PA [55]. The results of our study show that the level of 557 558 comprehensiveness of PA policies is higher in countries with higher income level. In our 559 sample, the level of comprehensiveness of PA policies was the lowest in the African and 560 Eastern Mediterranean regions. It may be challenging to develop all necessary components of PA and SB policy within the available budget, particularly in low- and lower-561 562 middle-income countries, where government's spending on the prevention of non-563 communicable diseases is generally low, and where the prevention of infectious diseases 564 is a competing priority [56, 57]. Limited funding should therefore be carefully distributed, to cover all the essential components of PA and SB policy. Low- and lower-middle-income 565 566 countries and countries in the African and Eastern Mediterranean regions might benefit 567 from greater support by international experts and organisations in the process of 568 developing and refining their national PA and SB policies. Another option for some countries would be to consider implementing the WHO Global Action Plan on Physical 569 570 Activity 2018–2030 [17] and adapting their current PA policies accordingly. Governments, non-governmental organisations, academia, and other stakeholders involved in PA 571 572 promotion are invited to align their efforts towards achieving the targets outlined in the plan 573 [17].

574

#### 575 Implementation of PA and SB policies

A recent study found that most countries implemented less than a half of the noncommunicable disease policies recommended by the WHO [58]. The study also found that the number of countries that adopted PA policies is relatively large, but that it dropped between 2015 and 2017. We found that in most of the included countries half or more of the statements from key national PA and SB policies have not been implemented. Policies can be effective only if they are implemented; hence national governments should invest in mechanisms that would ensure better implementation of their PA and SB policies.

584 Several previous studies from high-income countries reported a lack of: (i) PA policy 585 implementation; (ii) monitoring/evaluation of policy implementation; and (iii) allocated 586 resources for PA policy implementation [25, 44, 49, 59]. From our data, it seems that the 587 situation in low- and lower-middle-income countries is even more challenging, probably 588 because they have fewer available resources for implementation of PA and SB policies. 589 Highly complex policy designs without clear, specific, feasible, timely, and budgeted, and 590 trackable action/implementation plans may be a recipe for failure of policy implementation 591 [60, 61]. Therefore, national governments should rely on evidence from implementation 592 science and aim to establish more efficient systems for implementation of PA and SB 593 policies. National governments should also invest in rigorous evaluation of different types 594 of interventions, sharing lessons learnt, and scaling-up the successful ones [62]. For some 595 national governments, especially in low and lower-middle-income countries, PA promotion 596 may not be a priority at the national level, so developing and piloting smaller-scale 597 interventions at the local level could be a way to start building context-specific evidence.

598

#### 599 Effectiveness of PA and SB policies

600 Effective PA and SB policies are necessary to increase PA and reduce SB in the 601 population. Previous studies reported a lack of evidence on the effectiveness of PA policy 602 [25, 63]. Our findings indicate that the effectiveness of national PA and SB policies in most 603 of the included countries is low to moderate. Timely modification of PA and SB policies is 604 of utmost importance, if they prove to be ineffective. Although this may be a challenging 605 task, countries should invest in establishing efficient and sustainable systems to evaluate 606 national PA and SB policies, and use the gathered data to continuously improve the 607 effectiveness of the policies.

608

#### 609 Strengths and limitations of the study

Strengths of this study include: (i) a large sample of countries from all world regions; (ii)
 separate analyses of PA and SB policies; and (iii) analyses of availability,
 comprehensiveness, implementation, and effectiveness of the policies.

613

This study was also subject to some limitations. First, not all the elements of a comprehensive analysis of PA and SB policy could be asked about, because we did not 616 want to overburden our Country Contacts. For the same reason, we could not collect detailed data on all of the analysed policy elements. Second, the way policies are designed 617 618 and implemented may vary depending on the political system, culture, and institutional 619 settings in a given country [64]. Despite detailed explanations that we provided in our 620 survey, it might be that some questions were not equally applicable to all country contexts. 621 Third, the data were provided by GoPA! Country Contacts. It may be that some of them did 622 not have access to all relevant data on PA and SB policies in their countries. Fourth, not 623 all invited Country Contacts responded to the survey, which may have led to selection bias 624 and reduced generalisability of the results. Finally, in the African and South-East Asian regions we had relatively small sample sizes, compared with other regions. This was 625 626 mainly due to a lack of internationally visible PA and public health experts in some countries 627 who we could recruit as Country Contacts.

628

#### 629 **Conclusion**

630

631 This study found that most of the included countries have formal written PA policies, guidelines for PA, quantifiable national targets for PA, and a health surveillance or 632 633 monitoring system that includes measures of PA. However, the levels of comprehensiveness, implementation and effectiveness of these policies are generally low-634 635 to-moderate. Compared with PA policies, national SB policies are less available, 636 comprehensive, implemented, and effective. Both PA and SB policies are more developed 637 in high-income countries, compared with low- and lower-middle-income countries, and in countries of the European and Western-Pacific regions, compared with other world 638 639 regions.

640

Future studies should aim to include more countries from the African and Eastern Mediterranean regions, and analyse elements of a comprehensive analysis of PA and SB policy [21] that were not covered in this study, such as country-specific policy contexts, political will, unwritten formal statements, and informal policies. The area would also benefit from a detailed analysis of all stages of the policy cycle and policies in specific sectors.

646

To conclude, the findings of this study indicate that more investment is needed in the
 development and implementation of comprehensive and effective PA and SB policies,
 particularly in low- and lower-middle-income countries.

# 651 Additional files

- 652 Additional file 1 GoPA! Policy Inventory, version 3.0
- 653 Additional file 2 Percentage of countries with targets for PA and SB, by income level and 654 world regions
- 655 Additional file 3 Percentage of countries conducting PA and SB
- 656 surveillance/monitoring, by income level and world region
- 657 Additional file 4 Percentage of national ministries or departments involved in promotion
- 658 of more PA and/or less SB
- 659

# 660 **Abbreviations:**

661

- 662 CAPPA: Comprehensive Analysis of Policy on Physical Activity; CI: Confidence Intervals; GoPA!:
   663 Global Observatory for Physical Activity; PA: Physical activity; SB: Sedentary behaviour; WHO:
- 664 World Health Organization
- 665

# 666 **Declarations**

## 668 Ethics approval and consent to participate

- 669 The ethics approval was obtained from the Victoria University Human
- 670 Research Ethics Committee (ref: HRE19-057). Participation in the study was voluntary, and all 671 participants provided informed consent before responding to survey questions.
- 671 participants provided informed consent before respondin 672

# 673 **Consent for publication**

- 674 Not applicable
- 675

# 676 Availability of data and materials

- Summary results are available in Figures, Tables and Additional files. Raw data can be obtained
   from the corresponding author upon a reasonable request.
- 679

# 680 Competing interests

- 681 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.
- 682
- 683 Funding
- 684 Not applicable

# 685686 Authors' contributions

BKP, ZP, ARV, and MP conceived the idea for the study. BKP, ARV, and ZP contacted Country
Contacts for data collection. BKP conducted data analysis. ZP provided support in conducting data
analysis. BKP drafted the initial manuscript. ZP, ARV, MP, KM, AB, and SJHB contributed to writing
the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

# 691692 Acknowledgements

- We are very grateful to GoPA! Country Contacts without whom this research would not be possible.
  This article is a part of the PhD project of the first author, BKP, supervised by KM, SJHB, and ZP
  (principal supervisor).
- 696
- 697
- 698

# 699 **References**

701		
702	1.	Lee, IM., et al., Effect of physical inactivity on major non-communicable diseases
703		worldwide: an analysis of burden of disease and life expectancy. The Lancet, 2012.
704		<b>380</b> (9838): p. 219-229.
705	2.	Patterson, R., et al., Sedentary behaviour and risk of all-cause, cardiovascular and cancer
706		mortality, and incident type 2 diabetes: a systematic review and dose response meta-
707		analysis. Eur J Epidemiol, 2018. 33(9): p. 811-829.
708	3.	World Health Organization, Ten years in public health 2007-2017, Report by Dr.
709		Margaret Chan, director general. 2017, WHO: Geneva.
710	4.	González, K., J. Fuentes, and J.L. Márquez, Physical inactivity, sedentary behavior and
711		chronic diseases. Korean journal of family medicine, 2017. 38(3): p. 111-115.
712	5.	Ding, D., et al., The economic burden of physical inactivity: a global analysis of major
713		non-communicable diseases. The Lancet, 2016. 388(10051): p. 1311-1324.
714	6.	Klepac Pogrmilovic, B., et al., A global systematic scoping review of studies analysing
715		indicators, development, and content of national-level physical activity and sedentary
716		behaviour policies. Int J Behav Nut Phys Act, 2018. 15(123).
717	7.	Kohl 3rd, H.W., et al., The pandemic of physical inactivity: global action for public health.
718		The Lancet, 2012. <b>380</b> (9838): p. 294-305.
719	8.	Schmid, T., M. Pratt, and L. Witmer, A Framework for Physical Activity Policy Research.
720		J Phys Act Health, 2006. 3(Suppl 1): p. S20-29.
721	9.	Rütten, A., et al., Three types of scientific evidence to inform physical activity policy:
722		results from a comparative scoping review. Int J Public Health, 2016. 61(5): p. 553-563.
723	10.	Walt, G., Policy Analysis: An Approach, in Health policy and systems development: An
724		agenda for research, K. Janovsky, Editor. 1996, World Health Organization: Geneva. p.
725		225-242.
726	11.	Walt, G. and L. Gilson, Reforming the health sector in developing countries: the central
727		role of policy analysis. Health Policy Plan, 1994. 9(4): p. 353-370.
728	12.	Buse, K., et al., How can the analysis of power and process in policy-making improve
729		health outcomes? World Hosp Health Serv, 2009. 45(1): p. 4-8.
730	13.	Buse, K., N. Mays, and G. Walt, Understanding public health - Making health policy.
731		2005, London: Open University Press.
732	14.	Bull, F., et al., <i>Turning the tide: national policy approaches to increasing physical activity</i>
733		<i>in seven European countries</i> . Br J Sports Med, 2014. <b>49</b> (11): p. 749-756.
734	15.	Quade, E.S. and G.M. Carter, Analysis for public decisions. 1989, Cambridge,
735		Massachusetts: MIT Press.
736	16.	Althaus, C., P. Bridgman, and G. Davis, <i>The Australian policy handbook</i> . 2013,
737	. –	Melbourne: Allen & Unwin.
738	17.	World Health Organization, <i>Global action plan on physical activity 2018–2030: more</i>
739	10	active people for a healthier world. 2018, World Health Organization: Geneva.
740	18.	Ramirez Varela, A., et al., <i>Worldwide Surveillance, Policy and Research on Physical</i>
741		Activity and Health: The Global Observatory for Physical Activity. J Phys Act Health,
742	10	2017. <b>14</b> (9): p. 701-709.
743	19.	Ramirez Varela, A., et al., Worldwide use of the first set of physical activity Country
/44		Cards: The Global Observatory for Physical Activity-GoPA! Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act,
/45 746	20	2018. 15(29).
/46	20.	Kamirez vareia, A., et al., 1st Physical Activity Almanac: The Global Observatory for
/4/ 7/0		<i>Physical Activity</i> - GoPA. 2016, The Global Observatory for Physical Activity:
/48 740	21	Intps://indu.adobe.com/view/18d2c921-4dai-4C90-9eai-08iD2C4de015.
149 750	∠1.	Riepac Fogniniovic, D., et al., <i>The development of the Comprehensive Analysis of Policy</i>
130		on r hysical Activity (CAPPA) framework. Int j Benav Nutt Phys Act, 2019. <b>60</b> (16).

751 22. Bull, F., K. Milton, and S. Kahlmeier, Health-enhancing physical activity (HEPA) policy 752 audit tool (PAT) - Version 2. 2015, World Health Organization, Regional Office for 753 Europe: Copenhagen. 754 23. Council of the European Union, Council recommendation on promoting health-enhancing 755 physical activity across sectors, in Interinstitutional File: 2013/0291 (NLE). 2013: 756 Brussels. 757 24. World Bank. World bank list of economies. 2019 [cited 2020 02.02.]; Available from: 758 https://datahelpdesk.worldbank.org/knowledgebase/articles/906519-world-bank-countryand-lending-groups. 759 760 25. Tremblay, M., et al., Global Matrix 2.0: Report Card Grades on the Physical Activity of 761 Children and Youth Comparing 38 Countries. J Phys Act Health, 2016. 13(11 Suppl 2): p. 762 S343-366. 763 26. Tremblay, M., et al., Physical activity of children: a global matrix of grades comparing 15 countries. J Phys Act Health, 2014. 11(Suppl 1): p. S113-25. 764 765 Sallis, J., et al., Progress in physical activity over the Olympic quadrennium. The Lancet, 27. 766 2016. **388**(10051): p. 1325-1336. 767 28. World Health Organization, Assessing national capacity for the prevention and control of 768 noncommunicable diseases. Report of the 2015 global survey. 2016, World Health 769 Organization: Geneva. 770 29. Guthold, R., et al., Worldwide trends in insufficient physical activity from 2001 to 2016: a 771 pooled analysis of 358 population-based surveys with 1.9 million participants. The Lancet 772 Global Health, 2018. 6(10): p. e1077-e1086. 773 30. Vancampfort, D., et al., Chronic physical conditions, multimorbidity and physical activity 774 across 46 low-and middle-income countries. Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act, 2017. 14(1): p. 6. 775 31. World Health Organization. Noncommunicable diseases-Burden of noncommunicable 776 diseases in the Eastern Mediterranean Region. 2020 [cited 2020 04.05]; Available from: 777 http://www.emro.who.int/noncommunicable-diseases/publications/burden-of-778 noncommunicable-diseases-in-the-eastern-mediterranean-region.html. 779 32. Kulhánová, I., et al., Proportion of cancers attributable to major lifestyle and 780 environmental risk factors in the Eastern Mediterranean region. Int J Cancer, 2020. 781 **146**(3): p. 646-656. 782 33. World Health Organization, Promoting physical activity in the Eastern Mediterranean 783 Region through a life-course approach. 2014, World Health Organization, Regional Office 784 for the Eastern Mediterranean: Cairo. 785 34. Koyanagi, A., B. Stubbs, and D. Vancampfort, Correlates of sedentary behavior in the 786 general population: A cross-sectional study using nationally representative data from six 787 low-and middle-income countries. PloS one, 2018. 13(8). 788 35. Stamatakis, E., et al., Is the time right for quantitative public health guidelines on sitting? 789 A narrative review of sedentary behaviour research paradigms and findings. Br J Sports 790 Med, 2019. 53(6): p. 377-382. 791 Chaput, J.-P., T. Olds, and M.S. Tremblay, Public health guidelines on sedentary 36. 792 behaviour are important and needed: a provisional benchmark is better than no 793 benchmark at all. Br J Sports Med, 2020. 54(5): p. 308-309. 794 37. World Health Organization, Global Recommendations on Physical Activity for Health. 795 2010, World Health Organization: Geneva. 796 38. World Health Organisation, Guidelines on physical activity, sedentary behaviour and sleep 797 for children under 5 years of age. 2019, WHO: Geneva. 798 39. Barker, J., et al., Physical activity of UK adults with chronic disease: cross-sectional 799 analysis of accelerometer-measured physical activity in 96 706 UK Biobank participants. 800 Int J Epidemiol, 2019. 48(4): p. 1167-1174.

801 40. de Hollander, E.L. and K.I. Proper, Physical activity levels of adults with various physical 802 disabilities. Prev Med Rep, 2018. 10: p. 370-376. 803 41. Evenson, K.R., et al., Guidelines for physical activity during pregnancy: comparisons from 804 around the world. Am J Lifestyle Med, 2014. 8(2): p. 102-121. 805 World Health Organisation. WHO Guidelines on physical activity and sedentary behaviour 42. for children and adolescents, adults and older adults, Draft for consultation. 2020 [cited 806 807 2020 17.06]; Available from: https://www.who.int/docs/default-source/physicalactivity/call-for-consultation/draft-guideline-on-physical-activity-and-sedentray-808 behaviour.pdf?sfvrsn=ddf523d5\_4. 809 810 43. Christiansen, N., S. Kahlmeier, and F. Racioppi, Sport promotion policies in the European 811 Union: results of a contents analysis. Scand J Med Sci Sports, 2014. 24(2): p. 428-438. 812 44. Daugbjerg, S.B., et al., Promotion of physical activity in the European region: content 813 analysis of 27 national policy documents. J Phys Act Health, 2009. 6(6): p. 805-817. 814 World Health Organization, A guide for population-based approaches to increasing levels 45. 815 of physical activity. 2007, World Health Organization: Geneva, Switzerland. Bauman, A. and Ž. Pedišić, Physical activity surveillance, in Getting Australia Active III. 816 46. 817 A systems approach to physical activity for policy makers, B. Bellew, et al., Editors. 2020, The Australian Prevention Partnership Centre and The University of Sydney: Sydney. 818 819 Bauman, A., Z. Pedisic, and K. Bragg, *Objective measurement in physical activity* 47. 820 surveillance: present role and future potential, in The objective monitoring of physical 821 activity: Contributions of accelerometry to epidemiology, exercise science and 822 rehabilitation, R. Shephard and C. Tudor-Locke, Editors. 2016, Springer: New York. p. 823 347-367. 824 48. Bellew, B., et al., Public policy actions needed to promote physical activity. Curr 825 Cardiovasc Risk Rep, 2011. 5(4): p. 340-349. 826 49. Bellew, B., et al., The rise and fall of Australian physical activity policy 1996–2006: a 827 national review framed in an international context. Aust New Zealand Health Policy, 828 2008. 5(18). 829 50. Klepac Pogrmilovic, B., et al., A systematic review of instruments for the analysis of 830 national-level physical activity and sedentary behaviour policies. Health Res Policy Syst, 831 2019. 17(86). 832 51. World Health Organization, Steps to Health. A European Framework to Promote Physical Activity for Health. 2007, WHO Regional Office for Europe: Copenhagen, Denmark. 833 834 Yang, J.S., H.M. Mamudu, and R. John, *Incorporating a structural approach to reducing* 52. 835 the burden of non-communicable diseases. Glob Health, 2018. 14(1): p. 66. 836 53. World Health Organization, Diet, nutrition and the prevention of chronic diseases, Report 837 of a Joint WHO/FAO Expert Consultation. 2003, World Health Organization: Geneva. 838 Bull, F., et al., Developments in National Physical Activity Policy: an international review 54. 839 and recommendations towards better practice. J Sci Med Sport, 2004. 7(1): p. 93-104. 840 Lachat, C., et al., Diet and Physical Activity for the Prevention of Noncommunicable 55. 841 Diseases in Low- and Middle-Income Countries: A Systematic Policy Review. PLoS Med, 842 2013. 10(6). 843 56. World Health Organization, Global spending on health: a world in transition. 2019, World 844 Health Organization: Geneva. 845 57. Essue, B.M. and L. Kapiriri, The unfunded priorities: an evaluation of priority setting for noncommunicable disease control in Uganda. Glob Health, 2018. 14(1): p. 22. 846 Allen, L.N., et al., Implementation of non-communicable disease policies: a geopolitical 847 58. 848 analysis of 151 countries. The Lancet Global Health, 2020. 8(1): p. e50-e58. 849 59. Schranz, N.K., et al., Results from Australia's 2016 Report Card on Physical Activity for Children and Youth. J Phys Act Health, 2016. 13(11 Suppl 2): p. S87-94. 850

- Ansell, C., E. Sørensen, and J. Torfing, *Improving policy implementation through collaborative policymaking*. Policy & Politics, 2017. 45(3): p. 467-486.
- 853 61. Cairney, P., *Understanding Public Policy: Theories and Issues*. 2012, Hampshire, United
  854 Kingdom: Palgrave MacMillan.
- Reis, R.S., et al., Scaling up physical activity interventions worldwide: stepping up to *larger and smarter approaches to get people moving*. The Lancet, 2016. 388(10051): p.
- 857 1337-1348.
- Burghard, M., et al., *Is our Youth Cycling to Health? Results From the Netherlands' 2016 Report Card on Physical Activity for Children and Youth.* J Phys Act Health, 2016. 13(11
  Suppl 2): p. S218-224.
- 861 64. Hill, M. and P. Hupe, *Implementing Public Policy: Governance in Theory and in Practice*.
  862 2005, London, Thousand Oaks, New Delhi: Sage Publications.
- 863