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Optimising activity pacing to promote a physically active lifestyle in medical settings: A narrative review informed by clinical and sports pacing research

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1 **Optimising activity pacing to promote a physically active**
2 **lifestyle in medical settings: a narrative review informed**
3 **by clinical and sports pacing research**
4

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19
20 **Review Article**

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24 **Running head:** Activity pacing for disabling chronic conditions

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29 **Abstract**

30 Regular exercise can improve wellbeing, yet data are scarce on how persons with disabling
31 conditions may benefit from active lifestyles, due to the complexities of exercise prescription
32 in this population. A novel medical concept for exercise prescription called activity pacing is
33 the subject of this review, which identifies the potential for this strategy to optimally integrate
34 existing medical and sports medicine approaches in promoting physical activity in persons
35 with disabling conditions. Activity pacing is a goal-directed behavioural process of empowering
36 people to confidently develop decision-making and planning over how and where to distribute
37 available energy across daily activities. Currently, different conceptual traditions and
38 definitions of pacing exist with important implications for the implementation and subsequent
39 effectiveness of activity pacing. Application of activity pacing has mostly focused on symptom-
40 reduction to improve self-regulatory behaviour, and less on physical activity stimulation for
41 health and wellbeing. Further studies and greater connection between medical and sports
42 science research are needed on how to adapt, tailor and optimise activity pacing to make it
43 successful. The potential of activity pacing to increase physical activity and lessen fatigue
44 could be a powerful tool to help fight the growing incidence of physical inactivity, particularly
45 in persons with disabling conditions.

46 **Keywords:** physical activity, fatigue, pacing behaviour, disabling conditions, self-regulation

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58 **Introduction**

59 Worldwide public health data clearly demonstrate physical activity levels are low across the
60 general population, but worryingly this is even more prevalent in persons with disabling
61 conditions (World Health Organization, 2002). There are many causal elements behind this
62 observation, but engaging in regular physical activity depends on successfully managing and
63 distributing physical efforts across daily activities. However, this can be particularly
64 challenging to those with disabling conditions due to varying degrees of physical impediments
65 and psychological disturbances such as depression (Kargarfard, Etemadifar, Mehrabi, Maghzi
66 & Hayatbakhsh, 2012; Motl, McAuley & Snook, 2005), in addition to reduced confidence to
67 exercise and self-awareness of one's physical limits (Barnett et al., 2012; Durstine et al.,
68 2000). Worryingly, studies investigating the effects of exercise in people with disabling
69 conditions report a high number of dropouts, and identified that participants struggle to
70 continue engaging in activity post-intervention (Larun, Brurberg, Odgaard-Jensen & Price,
71 2017; Roehrs & Karst, 2004). This indicates that the way exercise is introduced, delivered
72 and/or undertaken might influence its long-term adoption within a physically active lifestyle.

73 The importance of habitual physical activity has been extensively documented (Kayes et al.,
74 2011; Lee et al., 2001; Motl, McAuley & Snook, 2005). Persons with disabling conditions such
75 as multiple sclerosis, chronic fatigue syndrome, fibromyalgia, and osteoarthritis often struggle
76 with mobility and consequently sedentary behaviours are common; however, this makes
77 engagement in physical activity of even greater importance. Increasing physical activity is
78 associated with an estimated gain of 4.5 years of life compared with being inactive (Moore et
79 al., 2012), reduced fatigue, and psychological conditions in persons with chronic conditions
80 who often are affected by these consequences of their condition (Motl, McAuley & Snook,
81 2005; Murphy and Kartz, 2014). Thus strategies to promote physical activity ought to be a
82 primary goal for persons with disabling conditions (Motl, McAuley & Snook, 2005).

83 Several approaches have been successful in stimulating an active lifestyle in persons with
84 disabling conditions (Alingh et al., 2015; Larun, Brurberg, Odgaard-Jensen & Price, 2017;
85 Murphy, Lyden, Smith, Dong & Koliba, 2010; Nielson & Jensen, 2004; Roehrs & Karst, 2004)
86 but not much is yet known on the overarching principles of how to achieve this for a wide range
87 of persons with disabling conditions. Existing approaches (graded exercise therapy and
88 cognitive-behavioural therapy) to promote physical activity in persons with disabling condition
89 are typically expensive, resource-intensive and not widely accessible (Castell, Kazantzis &
90 Moss-Morris, 2011).

91 This review overviews literature related to physical activity and condition-induced fatigue in
92 persons with disabling conditions, and explores the potential of better promoting self-
93 regulatory behaviour through activity pacing, a recent medical concept to aid engagement in
94 physical activity and accurately distribute available energy throughout the day (Smits, Pepping
95 & Hettinga, 2014). With appropriate education and experience (Micklewright et al., 2012), this
96 approach may be beneficial to stimulate persons with disabling conditions longitudinal
97 engagement in physical activity.

98 **Physical activity in persons with disabling conditions**

99 An estimated 10.2–46.1% of the world's population have moderate to severe disabilities and
100 experience significant functional difficulties (World Health Organisation, 2004). However, there
101 is a dearth of physical activity data available on persons with disabling conditions (World
102 Health Organisation, 2004; Murray & Lopez, 1997). A disturbing statistic is that physical activity
103 levels among persons with disabling conditions are significantly lower across all age groups
104 compared to non-disabled people (Durstine et al., 2000). Consequently, many persons with
105 disabling conditions do not achieve the recommended amount of physical activity required for
106 maintaining health (Garber et al., 2011; Van den Berg-Emons, Bussmann & Stam, 2010).
107 Therefore, the greater time spent in sedentary behaviour compared with the general
108 population means that this population, often already with limited physical functionality, has a
109 problem exacerbated by an inactive lifestyle (Van den Berg-Emons et al., 2008).

110 Several studies rightly emphasised that excessive rest and the lack of physical activity found
111 in persons with disabling conditions can result in reduced physical functionality and increased
112 physical deconditioning (Afari & Buchwald, 2003; Bakkum, de Groot Sonja, van der Woude &
113 Janssen, 2013; Boutron et al., 2008; Clark & White, 2005). This consequently perpetuates
114 early-onset fatigue when active and further compounds the impact of physical disability on
115 mobility and participation in activities of daily living, work, and other meaningful activities
116 causing a downwards spiral (Grotle, Hagen, Natvig, Dahl & Kvien, 2008; Sutbeyaz, Sezer,
117 Koseoglu, Ibrahimoglu & Tekin, 2007; Theis, Murphy, Hootman, Helmick & Yelin, 2007; World
118 Health Organisation, 2001).

119 Knowing that physical activity has health-enhancing impacts such as positive effects on
120 symptoms, quality of life, mobility and participation in daily life (Anderson, Jason, Hlavaty,
121 Porter & Cudia, 2012; Goudsmit, Nijs, Jason & Wallman, 2012; Rimmer & Marques, 2012;
122 Roehrs & Karst, 2004; Van Koulil et al., 2010) inevitably means a physically active lifestyle is
123 strongly recommended for persons with a disabling conditions (National Institute for Health
124 and Clinical Excellence, 2007; Plotnikoff et al., 2013). Consequently, because there is, as of

125 yet no cure for disabling conditions, the promotion of an active lifestyle has been considered
126 to be an important factor in the treatment of disabling conditions symptoms (National Institute
127 for Health and Clinical Excellence, 2007).

128 **Activity pacing as potential intervention to manage fatigue and promote an active**
129 **lifestyle in persons with disabling conditions**

130 Too vigorous exercise, or even a 30% increase in activity, has been shown to exacerbate
131 symptoms in persons with disabling conditions (Black, O'Connor & McCully, 2005; Jammes,
132 Steinberg, Mambrini, Brégeon &, Delliaux, 2005). In addition, specific activities, expected to
133 exacerbate symptoms have been shown to be less frequently performed by persons with
134 disabling conditions (Kayes et al., 2011; Vercoulen et al., 1997) indicating an exercise
135 programme based around greater opportunities for self-regulation may aid adherence and
136 minimise condition-induced avoidance of exercises or drop-out. Therefore applying a self-
137 regulatory exercise therapy such as activity pacing to persons with disabling conditions is
138 potentially important, particularly in terms of its long-term adoption within a physically active
139 lifestyle (Nijs, Paul & Wallman, 2008).

140 Activity pacing is a new therapeutic intervention that has the potential to stimulate an active
141 lifestyle by lowering fatigue and increasing physical activity in persons with a disabling
142 condition. Activity pacing as defined in medical settings, is a strategy to educate and develop
143 individuals' self-regulatory skills to divide one's daily activities into smaller, more manageable
144 portions, in a way that should not exacerbate their symptoms, which then allows gradual
145 progressive increases in activity (Andrews, Stron & Meredith, 2012). The concept of activity
146 pacing postulates that by perceiving an increase in physical activity without exacerbation of
147 symptoms, patients are likely to feel more in control of their fatigue and focus less on fatigue,
148 which can lead to positive effects such as task enjoyment, better fatigue management and
149 physical function (Chalder, Goldsmith, White, Sharpe & Pickles, 2015).

150 The rationale for activity pacing as an intervention to stimulate engagement in physical activity
151 can also be found elsewhere in literature (Nijs Wallman & Paul, 2011). In rehabilitation
152 practice, several activity engagement strategies have been observed in daily lives of persons
153 with disabling conditions. These include reduced activity levels resulting from and in
154 anticipation of fatigue (Clark & White, 2005; Nijs et al., 2009; Nijs, Wallman & Paul, 2011),
155 activity peaks followed by very long rest periods (van der Werf, Prins, Vercoulen, van der Meer
156 & Bleijenberg, 2000), and the ability to perform short periods of light to moderate activity
157 without exacerbating symptoms (Cook et al., 2005). However, activity pacing as a potential
158 treatment to stimulate engagement in an active lifestyle for persons with disabling conditions
159 has not been fully explored (Amato et al., 2001).

160 The unpredictable illness trajectory and symptoms characteristic of disabling conditions bring
161 challenges specific to this population and to their engagement in physical activity (Anderson,
162 Jason, Hlavaty, Porter & Cudia, 2012; Crook et al., 2005; Kayes et al., 2011). Consequently,
163 in some persons with disabling conditions, physical activity/exercise may exacerbate
164 symptoms and thus may not be beneficial for such individuals. Also, activity pacing as a
165 treatment option may not be possible to practice in some persons with disabling conditions
166 due to loss of function and/or cognitive dysfunction (Goudsmit, Nijs, Jason & Wallman, 2012;
167 Grotle, Hagen, Natvig, Dahl & Kvien, 2008; Micklewright et al., 2012; Motl, McAuley & Snook,
168 2005). Thus alternative ways of treating symptoms and improving quality of life in such
169 individuals are needed.

170 The concept of pacing has long been established in a sporting context (Hettinga et al., 2017),
171 mostly in endurance activities, whereby physical capabilities are managed by an athlete in
172 order to finish a race or event in an optimal performance time, depending on the goal of the
173 athlete. Several researchers (Edwards, Bentley, Mann & Seaholme, 2011; Smits et al., 2014)
174 have examined the balance of performance and recovery periods holistically, and have
175 stressed the importance of self-regulatory skills for effective pace-regulation particularly in
176 longer exercise tasks involving fatigue, both within a race as well as en route towards the long
177 term goal of athletic excellence (Brick, MacIntyre & Campbell, 2016; Elferink-Gemser &
178 Hettinga, 2017). Several different theoretical frameworks on pacing in sports have in some
179 way suggested that competition between psychological, physiological and/or social factors is
180 essential for decision-making regarding the regulation of exercise (Konings & Hettinga, 2018;
181 Marcora, 2008; Renfree, Mytton, Skorski & St Clair Gibson, 2014; Smits et al., 2014; St Clair
182 Gibson, Swart & Tucker, 2017; Venhorst, Micklewright & Noakes, 2017), with fatigue as a
183 crucial factor. Pacing decisions have been suggested to be the outcome of the interplay
184 between the sensation of fatigue and exercise expectations (Lambert, 2005; Noakes, St Clair
185 Gibson & Tucker, 2009). In addition, planning and self-regulation skills have been identified
186 as essential (Elferink-Gemser & Hettinga, 2017).

187 As early as 1996, Ulmer theorized the existence and functioning of a closed-loop feedback
188 control system for optimal adjustment of effort during exercise to manage physical energy
189 resources in relation to the known demands of the task. A framework for examining
190 extracellular regulation of muscular metabolic rate during exercise was provided, which
191 suggested central regulation occurred by optimising the perception of effort or
192 teleoanticipation along with feedback from peripheral physiological systems (e.g. working
193 muscles) so that tasks could be completed within physiological capacity (Edwards & Polman,
194 2012; Marino, 2014). Based on previous experiences, the pacing process can be learned and
195 optimised (Foster et al., 2009; Micklewright et al., 2012), and a distinction has been made

196 between pre-planned deliberate strategic elements that determine optimal pacing (i.e. macro
197 pacing), and more intuitive adaptations that occur while engaging in activities (i.e. meso and
198 micro pacing) (Edwards & Noakes, 2009; Micklewright, Kegerreis, Raglin & Hettinga, 2017).
199 These factors are relevant when exercising in diverse environments where multiple factors of
200 varying importance impact on exercise-related decision-making (Smits et al., 2014).

201 Though the relevance of understanding the regulation of exercise intensity for a broader
202 audience of exercisers has been highlighted (Smits et al., 2014), the majority of pacing
203 research has tended to be limited to managing and describing competitive performances.
204 However, the principles underlying pacing and the regulation of exercise intensity could also
205 apply in medical and clinical contexts, extending well beyond the maintenance of physical
206 efforts in a single task. By self-managing and spreading physical efforts across multiple daily
207 tasks, it is possible for individuals to have greater confidence to engage in many activities they
208 may not have previously thought possible, which accumulatively represent a more active,
209 fulfilling lifestyle, of greater physical engagement. This can be achieved by employing better
210 strategies to manage fatigue symptoms and distribute the limited available energy resources
211 to prevent overactivity causing periods of subsequent inactivity. The next section overviews
212 the literature regarding activity pacing and its potential to stimulate a physically active lifestyle.

213 **Activity pacing as a concept to influence physical activity behaviour**

214 Within the concept of activity pacing in rehabilitation, a distinction can be made between
215 '*naturalistic pacing*' and '*programmatically pacing*'. The distinction between naturalistic pacing
216 and programmatic pacing is analogous to the distinction between macro pacing, and meso
217 and micro pacing in sport. The main difference between concepts being that in rehabilitation,
218 it is applied to the pacing of activities over a day instead of the pacing of a single race or
219 exercise bout in sports. Naturalistic pacing comprises the level of activity pacing that a person
220 implements in daily life without a specifically instructed activity pacing programme (Nielson,
221 Jensen, Karsdorp & Vlaeyen, 2013). Programmatic pacing involves treatment with pacing
222 instruction to allow individuals to participate in activities in a way that should not exacerbate
223 their symptoms, which then allows planned and calculated increases in activity (Andrews,
224 Strong & Meredith, 2012). While pacing in sport is very much oriented towards the relatively
225 straightforward goal of setting the best performance and using all the available energy as
226 efficiently as possible, activity pacing has added complexities. These complexities are
227 underpinned by the need to engage in physical activity behaviour to improve fitness and
228 mobility, while at the same time preventing too severe fatigue symptoms that will impact on
229 any subsequently planned physical activity. It is therefore more of a lifestyle strategy.

230 Within the concept of naturalistic activity pacing, there is a lack of clarity in the direction of the
231 relationship between physical activity behaviour and symptom outcome. The conundrum here
232 is do persons engage in more pacing behaviour in daily life due to an increase in perceived
233 symptoms (symptom-contingent) or do persons engage in more pacing behaviour and thereby
234 reduce their perceived symptoms (symptom-reduction) (Antcliff et al., 2015; Nijs et al., 2008).
235 More insight in relations between physical activity, fatigue and naturalistic pacing could provide
236 input to develop strategies and possible interventions to help persons with high fatigue
237 complaints manage their fatigue through 'programmatic' pacing.

238 In programmatic pacing, patients receive a specific treatment with pacing instructions to learn
239 and stimulate optimal activity pacing behaviour. The specific goal of this training varies
240 depending on the theoretical orientation of the treatment and may include a focus on pain
241 reduction, lessening of fatigue, and/or increased overall activity (Nielson, Jensen & Hill, 2001).
242 It is more of an instructional and educational pacing strategy where individuals may learn to
243 become more naturalistic in their approach to their pacing of life activities.

244 While several studies support links between programmatic pacing and lower levels of fatigue
245 and disability (Murphy et al., 2008; Nielson and Jensen, 2004; van Koulil et al., 2010; Kos et
246 al., 2015), a number of studies show no association (Murphy et al., 2010; Nijs et al., 2009;
247 White et al., 2011). In a sample of people with chronic fatigue syndrome, programmatic pacing
248 was associated with low fatigue severity, high leisure time physical activity, improved personal
249 activity goal progress and health related quality of life (Marques et al., 2015).

250 Likewise, in 2010 Murphy, Lyden, Smith, Dong & Koliba reported in their study that
251 programmatic pacing was associated with low fatigue severity. Similarly, van Koulil et al.,
252 (2010) found a reduction in fatigue severity and a trend towards improvement in physical
253 function related to concurrent programmatic pacing and exercise training. Additionally, though
254 not statistically significant, participants in a study of programmatic pacing demonstrated
255 increased physical activity and physical functionality (Murphy et al., 2008).

256 Contrariwise, White et al., (2011) showed that programmatic pacing did not improve fatigue
257 and physical functioning compared to graded exercise therapy and cognitive behavioural
258 therapy. Additionally, Nielson et al., (2013) reported that increased pacing was associated with
259 higher levels of pain and fatigue and suggested that future research should be based on a
260 clear theoretical foundation and consider the context in which the behaviour occurs. These
261 findings may suggest that if programmatic pacing has a role then it may be to develop a more
262 self-directed naturalistic pacing approach to lifestyle management which would aid longitudinal
263 engagement in physical activity.

264 In a study to measure naturalistic pacing behaviour in 30 women with osteoarthritis (OA),
265 Murphy, Smith & Alexander, (2008) reported that naturalistic activity pacing was related to
266 lower physical activity. Furthermore, when compared with low engagement in activity pacing,
267 high engagement in activity pacing persons had more severe, escalating symptoms.
268 Alternatively, Murphy, Kratz, Williams & Geisser, (2012) in their study on associations between
269 symptoms, coping strategies, and physical activity in adults with OA reported that naturalistic
270 pacing moderated the relationship between fatigue and physical activity. Those with high
271 levels of activity pacing have the smallest association between fatigue and physical activity.
272 Also, with decreasing use of pacing, the association between fatigue and physical activity
273 becomes increasingly negative.

274 In addition, Murphy and Kartz, (2014) studied naturalistic pacing in 162 older adults with OA
275 and reported that high activity pacing was associated with higher subsequent levels of fatigue
276 and that naturalistic pacing seemed symptom-contingent and not reinforced by symptom
277 reduction. They further stated that naturalistic pacing may be distinct from programmatic
278 pacing in terms of outcomes. Similarly, Andrews et al., (2012) reported that an increase in
279 disability relating to naturalistic pacing may reflect the ineffectiveness of pacing if not used to
280 gradually increase an individual's activity level. They further suggested that people with better
281 psychological functioning who experience more disruption through fatigue in daily life are more
282 inclined to pace their activity.

283 While not the focus of this review, some interesting works have examined self-paced and
284 imposed-pace exercise in sports. Together, they demonstrate that imposed-paced exercise
285 presents a significantly greater physiological challenge than self-paced exercise (Edwards et
286 al., 2011; Lander, Butterly & Edwards, 2009). However, the ability to dynamically self-pace
287 effort is an important behavioural response to homeostatic challenges. In this way, the
288 individual is able to down regulate effort when necessary and up regulate when feeling strong.
289 Knowing physical limitations is an important part of self-regulated exercise and so developing
290 these skills in programmatic pacing would be an important strategy to aid further independent
291 self-regulation.

292 From the preceding paragraphs, most of the few studies on activity pacing focused on
293 programmatic pacing with little emphasis on naturalistic pacing (Antcliff et al., 2015; Nielson
294 et al., 2001). Together, these findings demonstrate that despite the frequent use and
295 theoretical benefits of activity pacing, there is a dearth of and conflicting empirical evidence
296 regarding effects of activity pacing (Jones et al., 2015; Nielson et al., 2001), although its
297 application to clinical and rehabilitation contexts appears promising.

298

299 ***Over-activity vs. under-activity***

300 The existence of different concepts and definitions of activity pacing which translate into its
301 implementation may have contributed to the current lack of clarity about the nature and impact
302 of activity pacing (Murphy and Kratz, 2014). In some studies, activity pacing is described as
303 adjusting to one's condition and staying within limited amounts of energy by alternating
304 activities and incorporating rest periods (Murphy et al., 2010; White et al., 2011). In other
305 studies, activity pacing is described as modifying behaviour by going slower, taking breaks,
306 maintaining a steady pace and splitting tasks into manageable pieces, managing symptoms
307 whilst reducing relapses and gradually increasing activity (Antcliff et al., 2015; Kos et al., 2015;
308 Nielson et al., 2013; Nijs et al., 2009; Nijs et al., 2008).

309 Most interventional designs of activity pacing focused on symptom-reduction and in particular
310 on preventing over-activity. Instructions are based on limiting or avoiding those activities that
311 exacerbate symptoms. While some studies advised patients not to undertake activities that
312 demanded more than 70% of their perceived available energy levels (White et al., 2011),
313 others advised activity duration 25–50% lower than the capacity participants reported (Kos et
314 al., 2015). The evidence that over-activity may perpetuate fatigue and subsequent functional
315 decline may have contributed to this phenomenon of focusing mostly on symptom reduction
316 and preventing symptom exacerbation by curtailing over-activity.

317 The large focus on preventing over-activity may however represent a gap in literature as
318 underactivity has also been linked to functional impairment (Birkholtz et al., 2004). It is possible
319 that the current inconclusive findings on activity pacing may be accounted for by variation in
320 characteristics such as illness duration, physical behaviour and attitudes towards both
321 naturalistic as well as programmatic activity pacing. Studies that reported poor outcomes may
322 have sampled persons with prior underactive behaviour for whom instructions regarding
323 prevention of over-activity is likely to be non-beneficial (Andrews et al., 2012; Murphy and
324 Kartz, 2014; Murphy, Smith & Alexander, 2008), while positive outcomes may have been
325 obtained in an overactive sample of the population (Kos et al 2015; van Koulil et al., 2010). It
326 can thus be inferred that interventions modelled based on the assumption that over-activity
327 needs to be prevented are less likely to be effective in underactive persons. Equally, with
328 activity pacing related to activity management, it is imperative to consider the physical
329 behaviour and attitudes towards physical activity of persons when delivering an intervention
330 (Murphy et al., 2008). An individually-tailored approach, based on characteristics that are
331 unique to that person, related to the outcome of interest, and derived from an individual
332 assessment (Rimer and Kreuter, 2006), is therefore needed.

333

334 **Recommendations for future research**

335 There is growing consensus for the need of a clear definition of activity pacing (Antcliff et al.,
336 2012; Birkholtz et al., 2004) based on a clear theoretical concept and considerations of the
337 context in which the behaviour occurs (Nielson et al., 2001). This would allow activity pacing
338 studies to be replicated, providing clarity on optimising the effectiveness of activity pacing
339 interventions in the future.

340 Given that different activity profiles (underactivity, overactivity and uneven spread of activity)
341 exist between patients, an individualised approach to activity pacing should be considered in
342 future interventional studies. Thus persons with disabling conditions associated with high
343 fatigue may need to be advised differently constructed on their activity profile. This type of
344 tailored-activity pacing techniques appear warranted to manage fatigue and stimulate
345 physically active lifestyle, to improve health and increase participation of patients.

346 Although studies support the efficiency of self-paced exercise in sports (Edwards and Polman,
347 2012; Edwards et al., 2011; Lander et al., 2009), little remains known about how persons with
348 disabling conditions naturally pace and plan multiple activities across a day and how this
349 relates to fatigue, quality of life and physical activity in the context of their lifestyle. Further
350 research that investigates the nature of pacing in persons with disabling conditions is
351 warranted. Insight into this will contribute to better understanding and explain the current
352 considerable variation in response to activity pacing. Additionally, this will help tailor, adapt
353 and optimise activity pacing interventions to make this more effective and efficient.

354 There is also a need for further evidence-based validity studies of current measures of activity
355 pacing. A number of measures of activity pacing are recent and have undergone limited
356 validity testing (Antcliff et al., 2015; McCracken and Samuel, 2007). Given the variance in
357 definition and implementation across studies, there may be a need to develop new measures
358 or refine existing ones. For example, it may be worthwhile to develop a measure that detects
359 risk of overactivity and underactivity as dimensions of pacing behaviour. This may offer
360 valuable insights into how to tailor activity pacing interventions to help persons with disabling
361 conditions remain or become physically active (Plotnikoff et al., 2013).

362 **Conclusion**

363 Physical inactivity and premature, debilitating fatigue sensations are often reported in persons
364 with disabling conditions and are associated with deconditioning and disability. A physically
365 active lifestyle is of utmost importance to improve quality of life and participation in daily life in
366 persons with disabling conditions. Activity pacing could be a novel, useful adaptive strategy to

367 stimulate a physically active lifestyle in persons with disabling conditions. However, most
368 studies on activity pacing have thus far focused on symptom reduction and curtailing over
369 activity. Empirical work is now required to explore this strategy and this review may be the
370 catalyst to stimulate future work.

371 Considering that both underactivity and overactivity are linked to disability, it is necessary to
372 adopt an individualised approach to activity pacing intervention to provide extra and optimal
373 guidance and support for those with high fatigue complaints. Given the efficacy of self-pacing
374 in sports, there is a need for further exploratory studies on the use of naturalistic pacing in
375 persons with disabling conditions within the context of daily life. Additionally, encouraging
376 persons with disabling conditions to learn to 'listen' to their symptoms and develop a
377 performance template based on previous experience in pursuit of optimal performance may
378 be an efficient way to manage fatigue and stimulate an active lifestyle. This could further
379 improve the effectiveness of activity pacing intervention.

380 The current limited evidence on activity pacing calls for closer inspection of the dimensionality
381 of pacing as it is currently operationalized and its relations to physical activity and fatigue in
382 daily life. Future research on activity pacing and physical behaviour will be welcome to fully
383 understand the link between activity pacing and disability. This will play a key role in the
384 management of disabling conditions and fight the growing incidence of physical inactivity in
385 persons with disabling conditions.

386 **Conflict of Interest**

387 Abonie S. Ulric, Edwards M. Andrew and Hettinga J. Florentina declare that they have no
388 conflict of interest.

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