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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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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, Mambri, 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  
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