

1 **Prevalence and disparities in adolescents' sedentary behaviour from 23 African**
2 **countries: Evidence from WHO Global school-based Student Health Survey**

3

4 Ulric S. Abonie, PhD Martin Ackah, MPH

5 Department of Sport, Exercise & Rehabilitation, Northumbria University, Coach Lane

6 Campus, Benton, NE7 7XA, Newcastle upon Tyne, United Kingdom

7

8

9

10

11 **Corresponding author:** Dr Ulric S. Abonie, Northumbria University, Department of Sport,
12 Exercise & Rehabilitation, Coach Lane Campus East, Newcastle upon Tyne NE7 7XA, +44
13 (0) 1912156135, ulric.abonie@northumbria.ac.uk

14

15

16

17

18

19

20

21 “This is an Accepted Manuscript of an article published by Elsevier Ltd in Public Health on
22 29/04/2024, available online: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.puhe.2024.03.025>

23

24 **Abstract**

25 **Objectives:** Studies on sedentary behaviour among adolescents in Africa are limited, hindering
26 public health initiatives. The aim of this study was to examine the prevalence, age, gender,
27 country's income level and sub-regional disparities of sedentary behaviour among adolescents
28 in Africa.

29 **Study design:** Cross sectional.

30 **Methods:** Adolescents who participated in the Global school-based Student Health Survey
31 from the 23 participating African countries were included in the study. Sedentary behaviour
32 was assessed with a self-reported questionnaire. A meta-analysis using random effect
33 modelling was used to estimate the prevalence, age, gender, country's income level and sub-
34 regional disparities of sedentary behaviour.

35 **Results:** 63635 adolescents (12 to 17 years) were included in the analysis. The prevalence of
36 sedentary behaviour was significantly among adolescents in Southern Africa and East Africa
37 compared to adolescents in West Africa and North Africa ($Q = 25.15$; $p < 0.001$). No disparities
38 were found for age ($Q = 1.51$; $p = 0.22$), gender ($Q = 0.10$; $p = 0.75$), country's income level
39 ($Q = 4.37$; $p = 0.11$), and survey year ($Q = 1.03$; $p = 0.31$). Results were heterogeneous between
40 countries.

41 **Conclusions:** The results suggest that a significant proportion of adolescents in Africa engage
42 in sedentary behaviour, with highest prevalence found in Southern Africa and East Africa. This
43 highlights the need for context-specific policy design and interventions to increase physical
44 activity engagement and limit sedentary behaviour among adolescents in Africa.

45 **Keywords:** Adolescents, Africa, Gender, Global School Health Survey, Sedentary behaviour.

47 **Implications and contribution**

48 A significant prevalence of sedentary behaviour was found, with higher estimates among
49 adolescents in Southern Africa and East Africa compared to West Africa and North Africa.
50 This highlights the need to embed the foundation for lifelong reduced sedentary behaviour at
51 the early stages of life to reduce associated burden of non-communicable diseases in Africa.

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

65

66

67 **Introduction**

68 Globally, lifestyles are changing due to economic, educational, cultural and technological
69 developments, resulting in an increase in sedentary behaviour.¹ Sedentary behaviour is an
70 independent predictor of cardiometabolic diseases including type 2 diabetes and cardiovascular
71 disease even in individuals who engage in recommended levels of physical activity.² An
72 estimated 6-10% of non-communicable diseases and 9% of premature mortality are linked to
73 sedentary behaviour.³ Sedentary behaviour refers to any activity (i.e., sitting, lying down,
74 watching television, and other types of screen-based activity) that entails an energy expenditure
75 of ≤ 1.5 metabolic equivalent units.⁴ The adolescent period is more susceptible to take risks that
76 affect their health and are the most sedentary of pediatric populations, with 57% of their after-
77 school period spent being sedentary.⁵⁻⁸

78 Conversely, a dose-response relation between increased sedentary behaviour and health risk in
79 adolescents has been reported. The evidence indicates that leisure time sedentary behaviour is
80 related to negative health outcomes such as increased depressive symptoms, unfavorable body
81 composition, cardiovascular risk factors, poor physical fitness, lower self-esteem, and lower
82 quality of life in adolescents.⁹⁻¹¹ This association is generally stronger for recreational screen
83 time as the specific exposure variable than for total sedentary time in adolescents.^{12,13}
84 Consequently, sedentary behaviour guidelines recommend that adolescents should restrict their
85 leisure time sedentary behaviour to less than two hours per day and minimize prolonged
86 sitting.¹⁴⁻¹⁶ An estimated 18-51% of adolescents in Africa engage in leisure time sedentary
87 behaviour and sedentary behaviour is associated with negative health risks such as overweight,
88 obesity and depressive symptoms among adolescents in Africa.¹⁷⁻²⁰

89 Accelerated urbanization processes, globalisation, and changes in lifestyles has led to physical
90 activity transition and resulting sedentary behaviour of the African population, whose cultural,

91 socioeconomic activities and unique characteristics was previously endowed by a very active
92 lifestyle compared to the rest of the world.^{1,21} In the past, education activities took place in
93 outdoors especially in the African rural settings, characterized by physical engagement, and
94 adolescents spent long hours outdoors in active physical activities. Regrettably, this is now
95 characterized by sedentary behaviour partly due to the influx of accessible labour-saving
96 devices and facilities especially in the African urban settings that have flooded the lives of
97 adolescents, with affluence linked to sedentary behaviour among adolescents in Africa.^{1,20,22,23}

98 Conversely, studies exploring the impact of economic development and sedentary behaviours
99 among adolescents have been inconclusive.²⁴ While some studies show a positive association
100 between sedentary behaviour and country's economic growth^{25,26} others found a negative or no
101 association.^{27,28} Literature indicates there is increasing levels of sedentary behaviour among in-
102 school adolescents, and many do not engage in recommended levels of physical activity, in the
103 developing world.^{1,29} Additionally, it is reported that one in every four adolescents engaged in
104 leisure time sedentary behaviour, in the developing world.³⁰

105 The increasing levels of sedentary behaviour coupled with the growing burden of non-
106 communicable diseases in Africa, and the known association between sedentary behaviour and
107 non-communicable diseases, presents a public health challenge in Africa. Unfortunately, there
108 is limited research regarding sedentary behaviour during adolescence in Africa,^{31,32} making it
109 challenging to estimate the burden of sedentary behaviour in the region and develop context-
110 specific recommendations. The very few available studies on sedentary behaviour in Africa
111 used small sample sizes and were limited to small geographical areas, predominantly South
112 Africa.^{23,29,32,33}

113 Understanding the prevalence of sedentary behaviour among adolescents in Africa is important
114 to inform policy decisions and help guide intervention development and implementation to

115 enhance adolescents present health and improve their health over the life course, as it been
116 evident that adolescence sedentary behaviour continues, and in some instances increase in
117 adulthood.³⁴⁻³⁶ The aim of this study was thus to examine the prevalence of leisure time
118 sedentary behaviour, and age, gender, country's income level and sub-regional disparities
119 among adolescents from countries in Africa that participated in the Global school-based
120 Student Health Survey (GSHS).³⁷ We hypothesized that there would be age, gender, country's
121 economic growth and sub-region differences in sedentary behaviour, based on previous
122 literature.^{38,39}

123 **Methods**

124 **Data source and study design**

125 The Global school-based Student Health Survey (GSHS)³⁷ is an observational study of health
126 behaviour and risk factors among schoolchildren and young people. The survey was developed
127 through a collaboration of WHO and the US Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, who
128 together provided technical support to participating countries across the stages of study
129 planning, data collection, and preliminary data analysis. Detailed methodology is described
130 elsewhere in literature [https://www.who.int/teams/noncommunicable-](https://www.who.int/teams/noncommunicable-diseases/surveillance/systems-tools/global-school-based-student-health-survey/methodology)
131 [diseases/surveillance/systems-tools/global-school-based-student-health-survey/methodology](https://www.who.int/teams/noncommunicable-diseases/surveillance/systems-tools/global-school-based-student-health-survey/methodology)).

132 In summary, the GSHS used a two-stage cluster sample design to gather data that was typical
133 of all the students in the chosen schools within the participating countries. In the stage one,
134 schools were selected with probability proportional to size sampling, and in the stage two a
135 random selection of classrooms took place within each selected school. All students in the
136 randomly selected classrooms were eligible to participate in the survey. Data collection using
137 self-administer questionnaires was performed during one regular class period. The sedentary

138 behaviour multiple-choice questionnaire was translated into the local language in each
139 participating country. Responses were completed on computer scannable sheets.

140 The standardization of survey methodology and content enables comparisons of GSHS-
141 participating countries. Ethical approval was obtained from the national government
142 administration (Ministry of Health and/or Education) and an institutional ethics and/or protocol
143 review committee of each participating country. Both verbal and written consents were
144 obtained from all participants (students, children), their parents, and/or the school officials.
145 Participants confidentiality was ensured through anonymity of the data. Data were weighted
146 for non-response and probability selection.

147 Twenty-three nationally representative datasets from Africa included the variables used in the
148 current analysis. The GSHS question and wording on sedentary behaviour was the same during
149 the data collection period of the included countries. Some countries such as Egypt provided
150 datasets from more than one survey, and for those countries, we chose only the most recent
151 dataset. Ghana provided separate data files for junior and senior high schools; for of this
152 country, we created a single national data file by merging the two data sets. The survey's
153 response rate for each country ranged from 98% in Algeria to 69% in Uganda. The
154 characteristics of each country's survey are provided in Table 1.

155 **Measure**

156 Sedentary behaviour

157 Sedentary behaviour was measured by a single question, *'How much time do you spend during*
158 *a typical or usual day sitting and watching television, playing computer games, talking with*
159 *friends, or doing other sitting activities country, such as COUNTRY SPECIFIC EXAMPLES?'*

160 The following prompt preceded the question to prime students to consider only non-classroom-
161 based sitting in their response: ‘The next question asks about the time you spend mostly sitting
162 when you are not in school or doing homework’.

163 The responses varied between less than 1 hour per day and more than 8 hours per day. In
164 accordance with previous studies, sedentary behaviour was defined as daily sitting time of
165 greater than two hours^{7,15,40} and the variable was dichotomized (≥ 2 hours/day or not) in this
166 study.

167 Socio-demographic and economic variables

168 The sociodemographic variables included age, sex, and country’s income level. These variables
169 are available in the GSHS dataset and were selected based on previous literature.^{9,26,27,38}

170 Countries’ income level was based on United Nation classifications.⁴¹ Countries’ economic
171 status were categories as low-income countries, lower-middle income countries, upper-middle
172 income countries, and high-income countries based on countries’ status at the time of data
173 collection.

174 **Statistical analysis**

175 The socio-demographic and economic data were described and characterized using descriptive
176 statistics such as frequencies, tables, and percentages. Meta-analysis using random-effect
177 modelling was used to estimate the prevalence of sedentary behaviour (overall and age, gender,
178 country-income level and sub-region disparities) as described by DerSimonian and Laird⁴².

179 Heterogeneity was visually inspected using the forest plot and quantified using the Higgins’s⁴³
180 I^2 statistic to assess the level of between-country heterogeneity and explored by conducting
181 subgroup analyses for age (12-14 years vs. 15-17 years), gender (male vs. female), income
182 level (low-income vs. lower-middle income vs. upper-middle income) and sub-region
183 (Southern Africa vs. East Africa vs. North Africa vs. West Africa). A value of $<40\%$ is often

184 considered as negligible and 40–60% as moderate heterogeneity.⁴³ Missing data in the survey
185 were not analyzed. The prevalence of sedentary behaviour, as well as age, gender, countries'
186 income level and sub-region differences were assessed using proportions with 95% confidence
187 intervals and visually represented on forest plots. All analyses were conducted using STATA
188 (Stata Statistical Software: Release 16; College Station, TX; Stata Corp LP).

189 **Results**

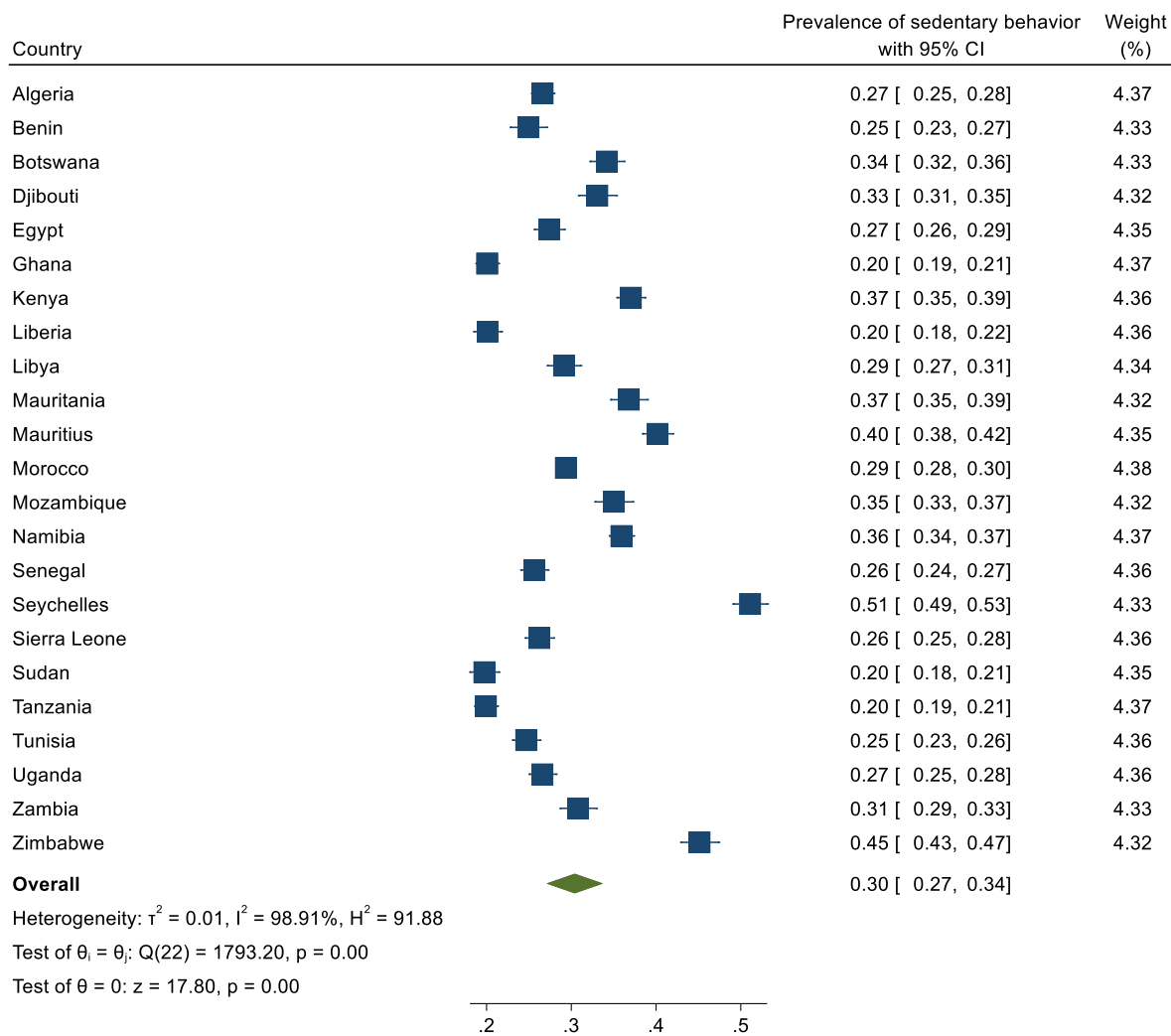
190 **Sample characteristics.**

191 63635 adolescents aged 12 to 17 from twenty-three African countries were included in this
192 study. The sample size varied from 1576 in Benin to 6368 in Morocco. There was 2412 missing
193 data, ranging from 9 in Benin to 322 in Kenya. Majority were females (50%) and middle
194 adolescents, 15-17years (53%). The percentage of female participation peaked in Seychelles
195 (54%) and fell to its lowest in Sudan (18%). For the included countries, the survey was
196 conducted between 2003 and 2017, and consisted of ten low-income, seven lower middle-
197 income, and six upper middle-income countries. Furthermore, the included countries consisted
198 of three Southern African, five West Africa, six North Africa and nine East Africa countries.

199 Insert table 1 near here

200 **Prevalence and distribution of sedentary behaviour**

201 Figure 1 shows the prevalence of sedentary behaviour among adolescents in the included
202 countries. The estimated prevalence of sedentary behaviour was 30% (95% CI: 27%-34%). In
203 terms of country specific estimates, sedentary behaviour was most prevalent in Seychelles
204 51%, (95% CI: 47%-55%), followed by Zimbabwe 45%, (95% CI: 41%-50%), and Mauritius
205 40% (95% CI: 37%-44%). The prevalence was least in Liberia 20%, (95% CI: 16%-24%), and
206 Sudan 20%, (95% CI: 15%-24%).

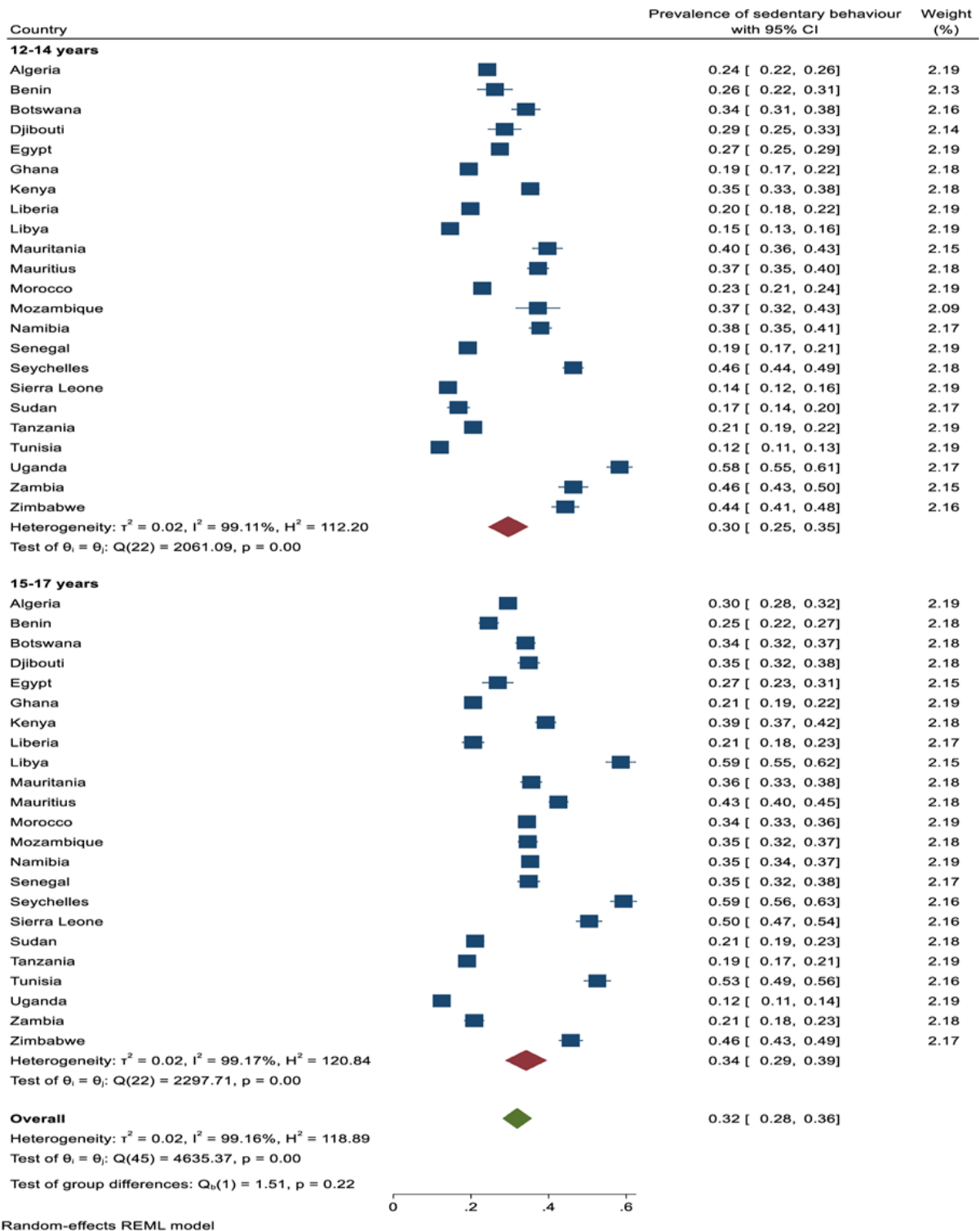


207 Random-effects REML model

208 Figure 1: Prevalence of sedentary Behavior among adolescents in Africa.

209 The age disparity in sedentary behaviour is shown Figure 2. 31% (95% CI: 28%-34%) and
 210 30% (95% CI: 26%-34%) of early adolescents (12-14 years) and middle-aged adolescents (15-
 211 17 years) respectively engaged in sedentary behaviour.

212 Test of between group difference revealed no significant difference between middle-aged
 213 adolescents and early adolescents ($Q = 1.51$; $p = 0.22$).



214

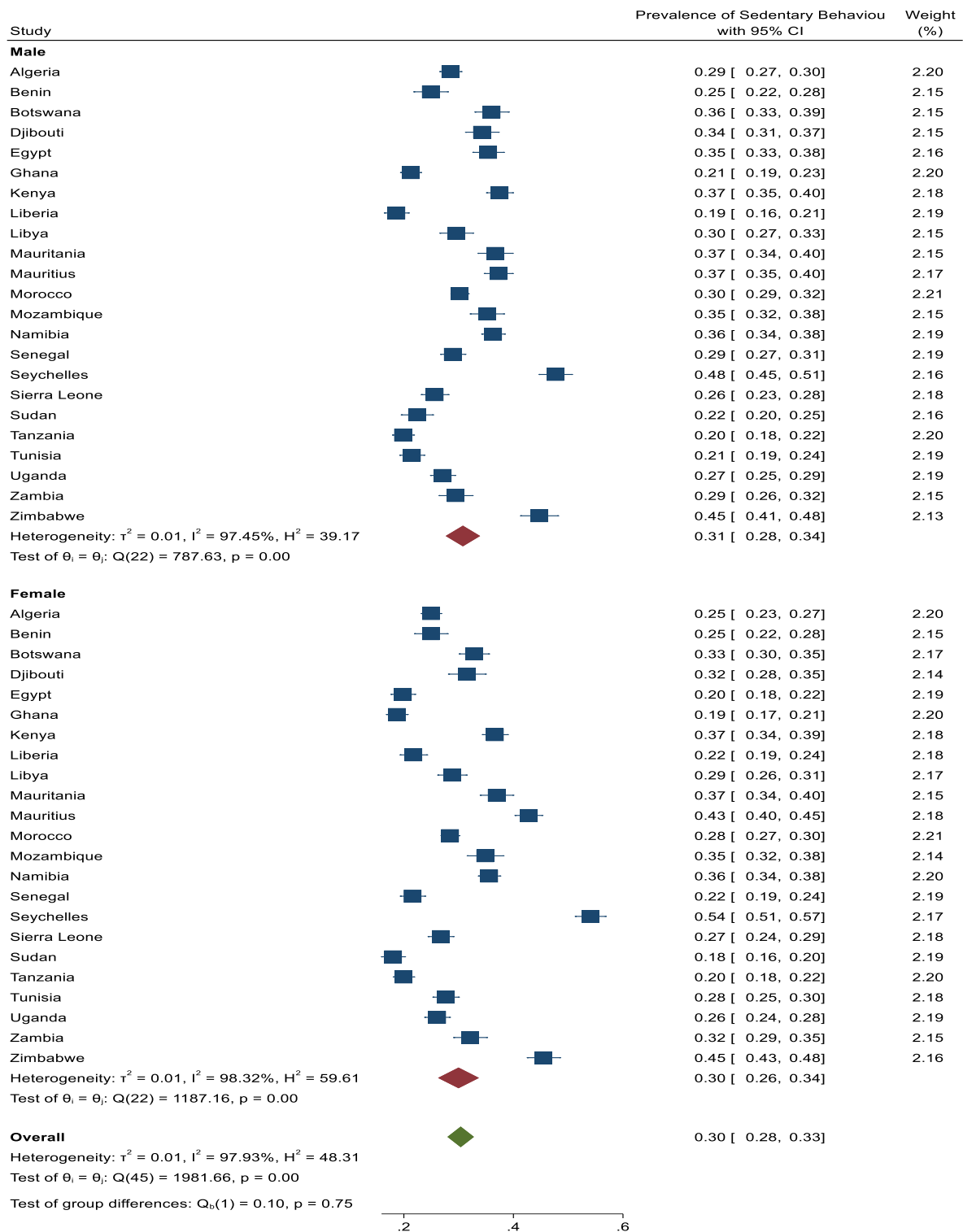
215 Figure 2: Prevalence of sedentary Behavior among adolescents stratified by age.

216 The distribution of sedentary behaviour according to gender is illustrated in Figure 3. 31%

217 (95% CI: 28%-34%) males and 30% (95% CI: 26%-34%) of females engaged in sedentary

218 behaviour.

219 There was no significant difference between the males and females ($Q = 0.10$; $p = 0.75$).



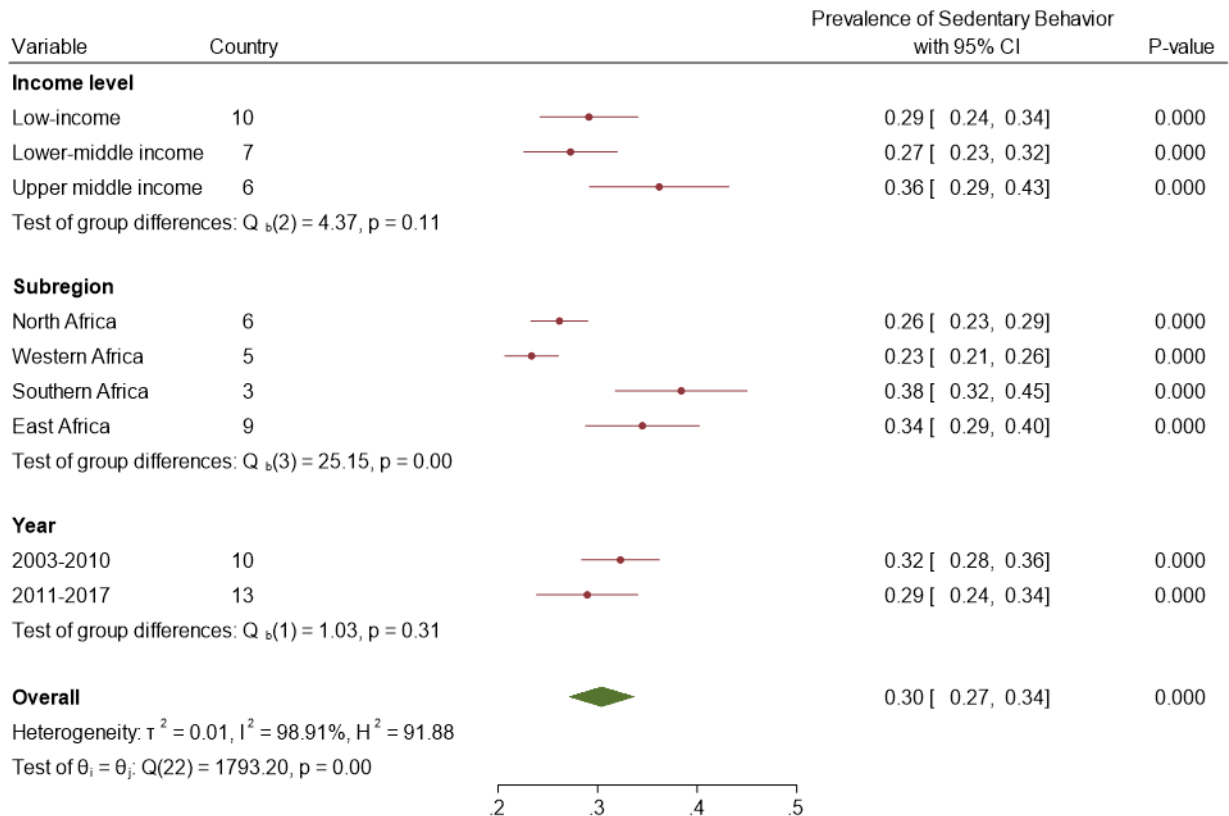
220 Random-effects REML model

221 Figure 3: Prevalence of sedentary Behavior among adolescent stratified by sex.

222

223 **Prevalence of sedentary behaviour stratified by income level, sub-region and survey year**

224 Figure 4 shows the results of the prevalence of sedentary behaviour by country's income level,
 225 sub-region and survey year.



226 Random-effects REML model

227 Figure 4: Prevalence of sedentary Behavior among adolescents stratified by income, sub-
 228 region, and year of publication of data.

229 With respect to country's income level 29% (95% CI: 24%-34%) of adolescents in low-income
 230 countries, 27% (95% CI: 23%-32%) of adolescents in lower-middle income countries and 36%
 231 (95% CI: 29%-43%) of adolescents in upper-middle income countries engaged in sedentary
 232 behaviour. There was no significant difference in relation to country's income level ($Q = 4.37$;
 233 $p = 0.11$).

234 In terms of sub-regional estimates, 38%, (95% CI: 32%-45%) of adolescents in Southern
 235 Africa, 34% (95% CI: 29%-40%) of adolescents in East Africa, 26% (95% CI: 23%-29%) of

236 adolescents in North Africa, and 23% (95% CI: 21%-26%) of adolescents in West Africa
237 engaged in sedentary behaviour. Test of between group difference revealed adolescents in
238 Southern Africa and East Africa engaged in significantly higher sedentary behaviour compared
239 to adolescents in West Africa and North Africa ($Q = 25.15$; $p < 0.001$).

240 Analysis of sedentary behaviour with respect to year of survey revealed the prevalence of
241 adolescents' sedentary behaviour was 32% (95% CI: 28%-36%) for surveys conducted
242 between 2003 – 2010 and 29% (95% CI: 24%-34%) for surveys conducted between 2010 –
243 2017. There was no significant difference in sedentary behaviour with respect to survey year
244 ($Q = 1.03$; $p = 0.31$).

245 **Discussion**

246 This study evaluated the prevalence, age, gender, country's economic growth and sub-regional
247 disparities of sedentary behaviour among adolescents (12-17 years) from the twenty-three
248 African countries who participated in the GSHS. Consistent with previous surveys of sedentary
249 behaviour among adolescents in Africa^{30,32} we found that considerable proportion of in-school
250 adolescents in the African countries who participated in the GSHS engaged in leisure time
251 sedentary behaviour.

252 The current finding is higher than that reported in the study by Vancampfort et al.,³⁰ (26%) but
253 lower than that of the study by Arundell et al.,⁸ (57%). It is worth noting that the study by
254 Vancampfort et al.,³⁰ used a higher cut-off point (≥ 3 hours) than the recommended >2 hours
255 used in this current study, included adolescents from low-and middle-income countries across
256 the globe, and did not provide regional estimates. Also, the systematic review by Arundell et
257 al.,⁸ included studies of adolescents from North America, Europe, Australia, and Taiwan, with
258 no data from Africa. A possible explanation for the relatively lower prevalence of sedentary
259 behaviour found in our study may be the highly physical nature of activity opportunities and

260 relatively limited electronic devices in the context of screen time for adolescents in Africa.^{1,21}
261 Although Africa has witnessed rapid digitization of education materials, this has largely been
262 confined to some parts of the urban settings and relatively low, with the cost of an entry-level
263 internet-enabled device more than 20% of average monthly income in many African
264 countries.²¹ Conversely, in some parts of Africa, especially in the rural settings, education
265 activities still take place outdoors, focusing on nature based and experiential learning,
266 characterized by physical engagement and active transportation.¹ Thus, the overdependence on
267 screen-based sedentary behaviour, which have been evident a major contributor to sedentary
268 behaviour, and account for about a third of total sedentary behaviour in other parts of the
269 world,⁴⁴ is somewhat reduced in the African setting.

270 Regarding gender, we found comparable prevalence of sedentary behaviour among males and
271 females, and no gender disparity in sedentary behaviour. This finding corroborates those
272 reported in similar studies.^{29,32} Guthold et al.,²⁹ in their study of sedentary behaviour in
273 schoolchildren from countries across the globe, found comparable prevalence for males and
274 females in African countries. Similarly, Micklesfield et al.,³² in their study examining sedentary
275 behaviour patterns, and associations with individual, maternal, household, and community
276 factors among rural South African adolescents, found no gender difference in sedentary
277 behaviour. Our finding, however, contradicts that of the study by Muthuri et al.,²³ that found
278 females engaged in higher sedentary behaviour than males in sub-Saharan Africa. A possible
279 explanation for the lack of gender disparity in the present study may be the comparability in
280 adolescent females' household activities and males' recreational activities in the context of
281 sedentary behaviour within the African sub-region. Previous studies from elsewhere in the
282 world have attributed gender disparity in sedentary behaviour to the higher opportunity for
283 adolescent males to engage in recreational activities compared to females.^{8,38} In Africa,
284 household activities typically performed by adolescent females such as sitting to prepare meals

285 or hand wash clothes and dishes provide similar opportunity to that of recreational activities
286 males engage in.

287 Additionally, we found that the prevalence of sedentary behavior among middle adolescents
288 was comparable to that in early adolescents. This finding corroborates those reported in similar
289 studies investigating sedentary behaviour in adolescence in sub-Saharan Africa^{22,31}, but
290 contradicts the findings of other similar studies in sub-Saharan Africa, low-and middle-income
291 countries, and the UK.^{30,32,45} A possible explanation for the current finding may be the
292 similarity in lifestyle in these age groups including seated hobbies like reading and talking with
293 friends, increased educational activities because of transition into secondary school and limited
294 active traveling due to being in a boarding school.^{1,46} This highlights the need to embed the
295 foundation for lifelong reduced leisure time sedentary behaviour at the early stages of life in
296 this part of the world.¹ Consequently, scaling up regional policy efforts to reduce sedentary
297 behaviour is critical to reducing the prevalence and burden of non-communicable diseases in
298 the sub region.

299 Contrary to our hypothesis, we found no significant difference in the prevalence of sedentary
300 behaviour in relation to country's economic growth. The result of a recent systematic review
301 on impact of economic growth on sedentary behaviour were inconclusive.²⁴ Ma et al.,²⁷
302 assessed sedentary behaviour among young adolescents in low- and middle-income countries,
303 and their relationships with national economic development, and found an inverse association
304 between a country's economic growth and adolescent sedentary behaviour. Similarly, Van
305 Cauwenberg et al.,²⁸ investigated differential influences of economic growth on European
306 adolescents' sedentary behaviour and found an inverse relationship between a country's
307 economic growth and adolescent sedentary behaviour. By contrast, Chen et al.,²⁵ assessed the
308 prevalence rates of common health behaviour among adolescents in the five Chinese cities and
309 found a positive relationship between sedentary behaviour and economic growth.

310 Given the accelerated urbanisation processes, globalisation, and changes in lifestyles in Africa
311 over the last two decades, promoting adolescents' sedentary behaviour¹ we examined if year
312 of survey influenced sedentary behaviour. We hypothesized that access to electronic devices
313 would increase with chronological years and thus lead to increased screen-based sedentary
314 behaviour. We found no significant difference in sedentary behaviour between surveys
315 conducted between 2003 – 2010 and those conducted between 2010 – 2017. A possible
316 explanation may be that although Africa has witnessed accelerated urbanisation processes,
317 globalisation, and changes in lifestyles which promotes sedentary behaviour, one out of five
318 persons in Africa uses the internet as compared with four out of five in developed countries,
319 and as with mobile data, device costs as a proportion of income are highest in Africa.²¹
320 Additionally, although electronic devices access in Africa may have increased in recent
321 decades which promotes screen-based activities, screen-based activities only account for a third
322 of total sedentary behaviour, with the rest of sedentary behaviour being spent in other sedentary
323 behaviours.⁷ The African setting largely provide physical opportunities such as active
324 transportation and standing at parks to watch sporting activities.

325 With regards to sub-region, we found the highest prevalence of sedentary behaviour among
326 adolescents in Southern Africa and East Africa regions. Although the underlying reasons for
327 these findings can only be speculated, the degree of urbanization, educational systems,
328 opportunity for physical activity or cultural differences in these regions may account for the
329 current finding, but evidently, research is needed to understand why there are regional
330 differences in adolescents' sedentary behaviour in Africa. Taken together with the previous
331 finding of similar sedentary behaviour among middle-aged adolescents and early adolescents,
332 it likely that the factors that influence sedentary behaviour are complex and varied, and they
333 may differ across different locations and populations. This highlights the need for context-

334 specific exploratory studies to better understand factors influencing sedentary behaviour to help
335 inform policy design.

336 This study possesses a number of strengths. The use of a large representative sample of in-
337 school adolescents, allows for the generalization of the findings to in-school adolescents in the
338 GSHS participating African countries. Additionally, the adoption of random effect model to
339 pool data across the countries is a strength of this study. The study also has some limitations.
340 The GSHS participating African countries included in this analysis exhibited considerable
341 heterogeneity. Readers should therefore be cautious when interpreting the pooled estimates.
342 Emphasis should instead be placed on the distribution in each category and the observed
343 patterns in the data.⁴⁷ Additionally, the inclusion of only in-school adolescents and GSHS
344 participating countries, likely underestimate the extent of sedentary behaviour in the sub-
345 region, as for example only 18% of participants in Ghana and Sudan being female, and Nigeria,
346 the most populous country in the region was not included. Furthermore, the lack of
347 confounding factors adjustments limits the drawing of firm conclusions.

348 **Conclusion**

349 The present study explored the prevalence of sedentary behaviour among adolescents from the
350 twenty-three GSHS participating countries in Africa and found a significant prevalence of
351 sedentary behaviour. Notably, the prevalence was highest among adolescents within the
352 Southern Africa and East Africa sub-regions. The prevalence was similar for early and middle
353 adolescents, males and females and for surveys conducted between 2003 – 2010 and 2011 –
354 2017. Also, country's economic growth did not influence sedentary behaviour. This provides
355 an initial understanding of the prevalence of sedentary behaviour among adolescents in Africa.
356 The considerable prevalence of sedentary behaviour among adolescent in Africa found in study
357 was comparable to those from previous studies and highlight the need for the development of

358 context specific policies and interventions to help reduce sedentary behaviour and associated
359 burden of non-communicable diseases. Future studies should explore ways to help adolescents
360 reduce time spent in sedentary behaviour to minimize subsequent adverse health outcomes.

361 **Acknowledgments:** This study makes use of data from the World Health Organization's
362 Global school-based Student Health Survey (GSHS), which is supported by the Centers for
363 Disease Control in the United States.

364 **Funding:** This research did not receive any specific grant from funding agencies in the public,
365 commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.

366 **Declarations of interest:** none.

367 **Reference**

- 368 [1] L.-J. Wachira, *Lifestyle Transition towards Sedentary Behavior among Children and*
369 *Youth in Sub-Saharan Africa: A Narrative Review*. A Contemporary View, 2021.
- 370 [2] S. Panahi and A. Tremblay, “Sedentariness and Health : Is Sedentary Behavior More
371 Than Just Physical Inactivity ?,” vol. 6, no. September, pp. 1–7, 2018, doi:
372 10.3389/fpubh.2018.00258.
- 373 [3] I. M. Lee, E. J. Shiroma, F. Lobelo, P. Puska, S. N. Blair and P. T. Katzmarzyk,
374 “Effect of physical inactivity on major non-communicable diseases worldwide: an
375 analysis of burden of disease and life expectancy” *Lancet*, vol. 380, no. 9838, pp. 219–
376 229, 2012, doi: 10.1016/S0140-6736(12)61031-9.Impact.
- 377 [4] R. R. Pate, J. R. O. Neill, and F. Lobelo, “The Evolving Definition of “ Sedentary ,””
378 *Exerc Sport Sci Rev*, vol. 29208, pp. 173–178, 2008.
- 379 [5] S. J. H. Biddle, I. Petrolini, and N. Pearson, “Interventions designed to reduce
380 sedentary behaviours in young people : a review of reviews,” *Bristish J. Sport Med.*,

- 381 no. December, 2013, doi: 10.1136/bjsports-2013-093078.
- 382 [6] F. C. Bull *et al.*, “World Health Organization 2020 guidelines on physical activity and
383 sedentary behaviour,” *Br J Sport. Med*, pp. 1451–1462, 2020, doi: 10.1136/bjsports-
384 2020-102955.
- 385 [7] A. G. LeBlanc *et al.*, “Correlates of total sedentary time and screen time in 9-11 year-
386 old children around the world: The international study of childhood obesity, lifestyle
387 and the environment,” *PLoS One*, vol. 10, no. 6, pp. 1–20, 2015, doi:
388 10.1371/journal.pone.0129622.
- 389 [8] L. Arundell, E. Fletcher, J. Salmon, J. Veitch, and T. Hinkley, “A systematic review of
390 the prevalence of sedentary behavior during the after-school period among children
391 aged 5-18 years,” *Int. J. Behav. Nutr. Phys. Act.*, vol. 13, no. 1, pp. 1–9, 2016, doi:
392 10.1186/s12966-016-0419-1.
- 393 [9] V. Carson *et al.*, “Systematic review of the relationships between physical activity and
394 health indicators in the early years (0-4 years),” *BMC Public Health*, vol. 17, no.
395 Suppl 5, 2017, doi: 10.1186/s12889-017-4860-0.
- 396 [10] B. Gopinath, L. L. Hardy, L. A. Baur, and P. Mitchell, “Physical Activity and
397 Sedentary Behaviors and Health-Related Quality of Life in Adolescents,” *Pediatr.*
398 *2012;130:e167;*, no. June, 2012, doi: 10.1542/peds.2011-3637.
- 399 [11] A. G. Leblanc, K. E. Gunnell, S. A. Prince, T. J. Saunders, J. D. Barnes, and J. P.
400 Chaput, “The ubiquity of the screen : an overview of the risks and benefits of screen
401 time in our modern world,” *Transl J Am Coll Sport. Med*, vol. 2, no. 17, pp. 104-113,
402 2017.
- 403 [12] A. D. Okely *et al.*, “A collaborative approach to adopting / adapting guidelines - The

- 404 Australian 24-Hour Movement Guidelines for the early years (Birth to 5 years): an
405 integration of physical activity , sedentary behavior , and sleep,” *BMC Public Health*,
406 vol. 17, no. Suppl 5, 2017, doi: 10.1186/s12889-017-4867-6.
- 407 [13] V. Carson *et al.*, “Systematic review of sedentary behaviour and health indicators in
408 school-aged children and youth : an update 1,” *Appl. Physiol. Nutr.*, vol. 265, no. June,
409 2016.
- 410 [14] J. Chaput *et al.*, “2020 WHO guidelines on physical activity and sedentary behaviour
411 for children and adolescents aged 5 – 17 years : summary of the evidence,” *Int. J.*
412 *Behav. Nutr. Phys. Act.*, pp. 1–9, 2020.
- 413 [15] M. S. Tremblay *et al.*, “Canadian 24-Hour Movement Guidelines for Children and
414 Youth : An Integration of Physical Activity , Sedentary Behaviour , and Sleep 1,”
415 *Appl. Physiol. Nutr. Metab.*, vol. 41, 2016.
- 416 [16] A. D. Okely *et al.*, “A collaborative approach to adopting/adapting guidelines. The
417 Australian 24-hour movement guidelines for children (5-12 years) and young people
418 (13-17 years): An integration of physical activity, sedentary behaviour, and sleep,” *Int.*
419 *J. Behav. Nutr. Phys. Act.*, vol. 19, no. 1, pp. 1–21, 2022, doi: 10.1186/s12966-021-
420 01236-2.
- 421 [17] M. Felez-Nobrega, L. B. Raine, J. M. Haro, K. Wijndaele and A. Koyanagi, "Temporal
422 trends in leisure-time sedentary behavior among adolescents aged 12-15 years from 26
423 countries in Asia, Africa, and the Americas," *Int. J. Behav. Nutr. Phys. Act.*, vol. 17,
424 pp. 1-11, 2020.
- 425 [18] A. Khan, S. Mandic and R. Uddin, "Association of active school commuting with
426 physical activity and sedentary behaviour among adolescents: A global perspective
427 from 80 countries," *J. Sci. Med. Sport*, vol. 24, no. 6, pp. 567-572, 2021..

- 428 [19] D. Vancampfort, B. Stubbs, J. Firth, T. Van Damme and A. Koyanagi, "Sedentary
429 behavior and depressive symptoms among 67,077 adolescents aged 12–15 years from
430 30 low-and middle-income countries," *Int. J. Behav. Nutr. Phys. Act.*, vol. 15, pp. 1-9,
431 2018.
- 432 [20] M. Asare and S. A. Danquah, "The relationship between physical activity, sedentary
433 behaviour and mental health in Ghanaian adolescents," *Child Adolesc. Psychiatry*
434 *Ment. Health*, vol. 9, pp. 1-8, 2015.
- 435 [21] Connected Society. The state of Mobile internet connectivity. GSMA.
436 [https://www.gsma.com/mobilefordevelopment/wp-content/uploads/2019/07/GSMA-](https://www.gsma.com/mobilefordevelopment/wp-content/uploads/2019/07/GSMA-State-of-Mobile-Internet-Connectivity-Report-2019.pdf)
437 [State-of-Mobile-Internet-Connectivity-Report-2019.pdf](https://www.gsma.com/mobilefordevelopment/wp-content/uploads/2019/07/GSMA-State-of-Mobile-Internet-Connectivity-Report-2019.pdf). Accessed 18 March 2024.
- 438 [22] R. M. Ojiambo, C. Easton, J. A. Casajús, K. Konstabel, J. J. Reilly and Y. Pitsiladis,
439 "Effect of urbanization on objectively measured physical activity levels, sedentary
440 time, and indices of adiposity in Kenyan adolescents," *J. Phys. Act. Health*, vol. 9, no.
441 1, pp. 115-123, 2012.
- 442 [23] S. K. Muthuri, L. M. Wachira, A. G. Leblanc, and C. E. Francis, "Temporal Trends
443 and Correlates of Physical Activity , Sedentary Behaviour , and Physical Fitness
444 among School-Aged Children in Sub-Saharan Africa : A Systematic Review," *Int. J.*
445 *Environ. Res. Public Health*, pp. 3327–3359, 2014, doi: 10.3390/ijerph110303327.
- 446 [24] H. Yang, R. An, C. V Clarke, and J. Shen, "Impact of economic growth on physical
447 activity and sedentary behaviors : a Systematic Review," *Public Health*, vol. 215,
448 2023, doi: 10.1016/j.puhe.2022.11.020.
- 449 [25] X. Chen, M. Lau, M. Y. Kan, I. Chiang, and Y. Hu, "Lifestyle and Addictive
450 Behaviors Among Chinese Adolescents in Hong Kong , Macau , Taipei , Wuhan , and
451 Zhuhai — a First Cross-subculture Assessment," *Int. J. Behav. Med.*, pp. 561–570,

- 452 2016, doi: 10.1007/s12529-016-9548-9.
- 453 [26] D. Augusto *et al.*, “Physical Education Classes, Physical Activity, and Sedentary
454 Behavior in Children,” *J. Am. Coll. Sport. Med.*, pp. 995–1004, 2018, doi:
455 10.1249/MSS.0000000000001524.
- 456 [27] C. Ma, Y. Zhang, M. Zhao, and P. Bovet, “Physical Activity and Sedentary Behavior
457 among Young Adolescents in 68 LMICs , and Their Relationships with National
458 Economic Development,” *Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health*, 2020.
- 459 [28] J. Van Cauwenberg, A. Loyen, J. Lakerveld, and G. Cardon, “Differential influences
460 of population densification and economic growth on Europeans’ physical activity and
461 sitting time,” *Cities*, vol. 82, no. October 2017, pp. 141–149, 2018, doi:
462 10.1016/j.cities.2018.07.006.
- 463 [29] R. Guthold, M. J. Cowan, C. S. Autenrieth, L. Kann, and L. M. Riley, “Physical
464 Activity and Sedentary Behavior Among Schoolchildren: A 34-Country
465 Comparison,” *J. Pediatr.*, vol. 157, no. 1, pp. 43-49.e1, 2010, doi:
466 10.1016/j.jpeds.2010.01.019.
- 467 [30] A. K. Davy Vancampfort, Tine Van Damme¹, Joseph Firth, Mats Hallgren, Lee Smith,
468 Brendon Stubbs, Simon Rosenbaum¹, “Correlates of leisure-time sedentary behavior
469 among 181 , 793 adolescents aged 12-15 years from 66 low- and middle-income
470 countries,” *PLoS One*, pp. 1–14, 2019.
- 471 [31] O. Y. Mohammed, E. Tesfahun, and A. Mohammed, “Magnitude of sedentary
472 behavior and associated factors among secondary school adolescents in Debre Berhan
473 town , Ethiopia,” *BMC Public Health*, pp. 1–7, 2020.
- 474 [32] L. K. Micklesfield *et al.*, “Physical activity and sedentary behavior among adolescents

- 475 in rural South Africa: Levels, patterns and correlates,” *BMC Public Health*, vol. 14, no.
476 1, pp. 1–10, 2014, doi: 10.1186/1471-2458-14-40.
- 477 [33] J. Mcveigh and R. Meiring, “Physical Activity and Sedentary Behavior in an
478 Ethnically Diverse Group of South African School Children,” *J. Sport. Sci. Med.*, no.
479 January, pp. 371–378, 2014.
- 480 [34] T. Aira, T. Vasankari, O. J. Heinonen, R. Korpelainen, J. Kotkajuuri, and J. Parkkari,
481 “Physical activity from adolescence to young adulthood : patterns of change , and their
482 associations with activity domains and sedentary time,” *Int. J. Behav. Nutr. Phys. Act.*,
483 pp. 1–11, 2021.
- 484 [35] F. B. Ortega *et al.*, “Objectively Measured Physical Activity and Sedentary Time
485 during Childhood , Adolescence and Young Adulthood : A Cohort Study,” *PLoS One*,
486 vol. 8, no. 4, 2013, doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0060871.
- 487 [36] G. Hayes *et al.*, “Tracking of Physical Activity and Sedentary Behavior From
488 Adolescence to Young Adulthood : A Systematic Literature Review,” *J. Adolesc.*
489 *Heal.*, vol. 65, no. 4, pp. 446–454, 2019, doi: 10.1016/j.jadohealth.2019.03.013.
- 490 [37] WHO, “Global School-based Student Health Survey (GSHS),” 2012. <http://>
491 [https://www.who.int/teams/noncommunicable-diseases/surveillance/systems-](https://www.who.int/teams/noncommunicable-diseases/surveillance/systems-tools/global-school-based-student-health-survey)
492 [tools/global-school-based-student-health-survey](https://www.who.int/teams/noncommunicable-diseases/surveillance/systems-tools/global-school-based-student-health-survey). Accessed 23 October 2023.
- 493 [38] J. Brazo-Sayavera, S. Aubert, J. D. Barnes, S. A. González, and M. S. Tremblay,
494 “Gender differences in physical activity and sedentary behavior: Results from over
495 200,000 Latin-American children and adolescents,” *PLoS One*, vol. 16, no. 8 August,
496 pp. 1–14, 2021, doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0255353.
- 497 [39] K. Ishii, A. Shibata, M. Adachi, K. Nonoue, and K. Oka, “Gender and grade

498 differences in objectively measured physical activity and sedentary behavior patterns
499 among Japanese children and adolescents: A cross-sectional study,” *BMC Public*
500 *Health*, vol. 15, no. 1, pp. 1–9, 2015, doi: 10.1186/s12889-015-2607-3.

501 [40] G. Thomas, J.A. Bennie, K. De Cocker, O. Castro and S.J. Biddle, "A descriptive
502 epidemiology of screen-based devices by children and adolescents: a scoping review
503 of 130 surveillance studies since 2000," *Child Indic. Res.*, vol. 13, pp. 935-950, 2020.

504 [41] Human Development Report, *Report 2021/2022*. 2022. Available: [https://](https://https://hdr.undp.org/content/human-development-report-2023-24)
505 <https://hdr.undp.org/content/human-development-report-2023-24>. Accessed 23
506 October 2023

507 [42] R. DerSimonian and N. Laird, “Meta-analysis in clinical trials,” *Control. Clin. Trials*,
508 vol. 7, no. 3, pp. 177–188, 1986, doi: 10.1016/0197-2456(86)90046-2.

509 [43] J. P. T. Higgins and S. G. Thompson, “Quantifying heterogeneity in a meta-analysis,”
510 *Stat. Med.*, vol. 1558, pp. 1539–1558, 2002, doi: 10.1002/sim.1186.

511 [44] G. Thomas, “A Descriptive Epidemiology of Screen-Based Devices by Children and
512 Adolescents : a Scoping Review of 130 Surveillance Studies Since 2000,” *Child Indic.*
513 *Res.*, pp. 935–950, 2020.

514 [45] X. Janssen *et al.*, “Development of sedentary behavior across childhood and
515 adolescence : longitudinal analysis of the Gateshead Millennium Study,” *Int. J. Behav.*
516 *Nutr. Phys. Act.*, pp. 1–10, 2016, doi: 10.1186/s12966-016-0413-7.

517 [45] H. Wechsler, Youth risk behavior surveillance—United States, 2011. *MMWR*
518 *Surveillance Summary*, vol. 61, pp. 1-162, 2012.

519 [46] U. S. Abonie, F. Hoekstra, B. L. Seves, L. H. V. Van Der Woude, R. Dekker, and F. J.
520 Hettinga, “Associations between activity pacing, fatigue, and physical activity in

521 adults with multiple sclerosis: A cross sectional study,” *J. Funct. Morphol. Kinesiol.*,
522 vol. 5, no. 2, 2020, doi: 10.3390/jfmk5020043.

523