

Sedentary behaviour in the workplace

Sedentary behaviour in the workplace: prevalence, health implications and interventions

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1 **Abstract**

2 **Introduction:** This paper reviews the prevalence and health risks of excess sedentary behaviour in
3 office workers, and the effectiveness of sedentary workplace interventions in a manner accessible to
4 practitioners.

5 **Sources of data:** A narrative review of empirical studies obtained from PubMed and Web of Science.

6 **Areas of agreement:** Office workers are highly sedentary, increasing their risk of health problems.
7 Interventions using individual, organisational and environmental level strategies can be effective for
8 reducing workplace sitting.

9 **Areas of controversy:** The effects of sedentary workplace interventions on health is inconsistent.
10 This may be due to a lack of randomised controlled trials powered to detect changes in health
11 outcomes.

12 **Growing points:** Multicomponent interventions that use a combination of the strategies above may
13 be the most effective for reducing sitting.

14 **Areas timely for developing research:** Determining the long-term health and cost-effectiveness of
15 sedentary workplace interventions is a priority to encourage employer buy-in for their implementation.

16

17 **Keywords:** sitting, office workers, occupational health, sit-stand desks, sedentary behaviour, physical
18 activity.

19

20 **Introduction**

21 Society has developed into a modernised environment that is conducive to engagement in high
22 volumes of sedentary behaviour i.e. any waking behaviour while in a sitting, reclining or lying posture
23 with an energy expenditure of ≤ 1.5 metabolic equivalents (METs)¹. People are now able to carry out
24 nearly all of their daily activities whilst sat down. A growing body of evidence is emerging
25 demonstrating adverse associations of excess sedentary time with physical and mental health²⁻⁴.
26 Sedentary behaviour is now considered a unique hazard to health and only high volumes (60-75
27 minutes/day) of moderate-to-vigorous physical activity (MVPA) may offer protection against excess
28 sedentary time⁵. Desk-based office workers are inevitably exposed to high amounts of sedentary time
29 due to the requirement to be seated while working at a desk. This narrative review considers the
30 prevalence of sedentary behaviour, the health risks of excess sedentary time, and the effects of
31 interventions to reduce sedentary behaviour in office workplaces. It is anticipated that this review is
32 easily accessible and of benefit to health practitioners, policy makers and employers seeking to
33 promote the health of working adults. The review was informed by peer-reviewed journal articles
34 obtained from a scoping search of PubMed and Web of Science databases using search strings
35 pertaining to 'office workers', 'sedentary behaviour', 'health outcomes' and 'interventions'. There was
36 no restriction placed on study design for the included literature but articles were required to be
37 empirical research.

38

39 **Prevalence of sedentary behaviour in office workers**

40 Many jobs that were traditionally labour-intensive are now carried out using computer-operated
41 methods, while seated technical and desk-based office work has become increasingly prevalent⁶. This
42 has led to a significant reduction in occupation-related energy expenditure from 1960 to 2008 of
43 approximately 140 kcal per day for men and 124 kcal per day for women⁷. Office workers have
44 become a popular group to study in the sedentary behaviour field given that this type of work is
45 inherent of prolonged periods of sitting and lower amounts of physical activity.

46 The prevalence of sedentary behaviour in large samples of office workers has been explored
47 using self-report methods. The Stormont study, which was a large cross-sectional analysis 4,436
48 employees in the Northern Ireland Civil Service, found that office workers self-reported sitting for
49 625 \pm 168 minutes on a workday⁸. This accounted for 60% (376 \pm 106 minutes) of total daily sitting

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50 time⁸. Australian desk-based office workers (n=801) also reported that sitting at work accounted for
51 60% (median sitting time = 300 minutes/day) of their total daily sitting time⁹. Findings from the
52 Stormont study suggest that office workers who were younger (18-29 years-old), obese, worked full-
53 time and single/divorced/widowed engaged in the most amount of sitting time⁸. Higher total daily
54 sitting time also appears to be negatively associated with age and positively associated with body
55 mass index in office workers⁹. There may thus be specific office-based employee groups who could
56 be targeted for health promotion purposes. However, the sensitive nature of targeting specific
57 employee subgroups for intervention would require careful consideration.

58 Questionnaire-based methods for evaluating sitting time are important for collecting data from
59 large samples in a time and cost-effective manner and provide important information regarding the
60 context and domain of behaviour. However, self-report methods may lead to underestimations in
61 sitting time due to social desirability bias or an inability to accurately recall this behaviour¹⁰. The
62 activPAL device is a small activity monitor that attaches to the anterior of the thigh and can be worn
63 continuously during the monitoring period (typically seven days) to provide a valid and reliable
64 assessment of sitting, standing, stepping and postural transitions (i.e. moving from a sitting to
65 standing posture and vice versa)^{11,12}. This device, which is currently considered the gold-standard for
66 measuring sitting time, has been used to evaluate the prevalence of sitting in relatively smaller
67 samples of office workers. In a study of university office workers (n=78), participants spent 79% of
68 their working day seated (6.4 hours/day) and engaged in an average of 9.8 hours of sitting across the
69 total waking day¹³. Australian government office workers (n=231) also engaged in sitting for an
70 average of 79% of their working hours and spent more time sitting on a workday (69%) compared with
71 a non-workday (56%), when measured using this device¹⁴. The findings from these device-based
72 studies show that sitting time is higher compared with self-report data. In addition to being able to
73 assess total daily and workplace sitting, a key advantage of using such devices is the ability to assess
74 the way in which sedentary time is accumulated. In addition to total daily sedentary time being
75 detrimentally associated with health risks, engaging in prolonged bouts of sedentary time is also
76 associated with poorer health status (e.g. elevated metabolic biomarkers), independent of physical
77 activity levels and total daily sedentary time¹⁵. Data from device-based studies suggests that office
78 workers could be at an increased risk of cardiometabolic disease as they spend a large proportion of
79 time engaging in prolonged bouts of sitting (i.e. ≥30 minute bouts) during working hours and across

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80 the whole working day^{13,14}. For instance, in Australian government office workers, 42±19% and
81 36±13% of workplace and total working day time, respectively, was spent in prolonged sitting bouts¹⁴.

82 The evidence reviewed suggests that office workers engage in high volumes of total and
83 prolonged sedentary behaviour during working hours and across the whole day. It may thus be
84 appropriate to focus occupational health promotion interventions on reducing and breaking up
85 sedentary behaviour in office workers both in and outside of work.

86

87 **Health implications of sedentary behaviour**

88 There is a body of evidence supporting the notion that engaging in high amounts of sedentary time is
89 associated with adverse health outcomes. A systematic review of 794,577 participants found that
90 there was a 112%, 147% and 90% increased risk of diabetes, cardiovascular disease and
91 cardiovascular disease mortality, respectively, in individuals who engaged in the most amount of
92 sedentary time compared with those who engaged in the least³. Similar findings have been reported
93 in other evidence reviews^{2,16}. High volumes of sedentary time have also been associated with an
94 increased incidence of cancers such as colon and breast cancer^{17,18}, although other studies have
95 reported no association¹⁹. In addition to associations with physical health, high volumes of sedentary
96 behaviour appear to be associated with an increased risk of poor mental health including more severe
97 depression, anxiety and psychological distress^{4,20}. In office workers specifically, higher occupational
98 sitting time and time spent sitting while at a computer was detrimentally associated with mental
99 health^{20,21}. This evidence demonstrates that higher sedentary time is adversely associated with
100 physical and mental health in office workers and the general population.

101 There appears to be a dose-response association between self-reported total daily sitting time
102 and all-cause mortality risk; a 5% increased risk for each additional hour of sitting per day in adults
103 who sit at least 7 hours/day²². This dose-response was not seen in adults who sat less than 7
104 hours/day. A meta-analysis of more than 1 million participants also found that 7 hours of self-reported
105 daily sitting time was the cut-off at which mortality risk started to increase²³. However, the cut-off was
106 at 9 hours/day when sitting time was measured using device-based methods such as
107 accelerometry²³. This is in agreement with research showing that self-report measures underestimate
108 total daily sitting time by a couple of hours compared to device-measured estimates¹⁰. Based on
109 these findings, and the prevalence of sedentary behaviour in office workers discussed above, it would

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110 appear that office workers are a high-risk population group that would benefit from intervention.
111 However, a causal role of sedentary behaviour leading to adverse health outcomes cannot be
112 assumed based on observational study designs. It is plausible, for instance, that poor physical or
113 mental health could lead to increased sedentary behaviour. In the limited longitudinal research
114 available that has evaluated the risk of health outcomes in response to changes in sedentary time, the
115 change in depressive symptoms over five years was not related to changes in sedentary time in
116 socioeconomically disadvantaged women²⁴. Further studies of this nature are required to further
117 elucidate the potential long-term causal effects of sedentary behaviour on physical and mental health
118 outcomes.

119 There is evidence that the increased risk of cardiovascular disease, cancer and all-cause
120 mortality from high amounts of sitting may be dependent on the physical activity levels of the
121 participants. For instance, a dose-response association between sitting time with cardiovascular
122 disease mortality was observed in people engaging in the least amount of physical activity, whereas
123 this association was less consistent in more active groups²⁵. There was also no association between
124 daily sitting time and all-cause mortality in individuals who engaged in the greatest amount of physical
125 activity⁵. However, this equated to around 60-75 minutes of moderate-intensity physical activity every
126 day. Although this volume of moderate physical activity is unlikely to be achieved by the majority of
127 office workers, interventions may need to be designed taking into consideration the physical activity
128 levels of the target group.

129 In addition to considering the associations of total daily and occupational sitting time with
130 health, the pattern in which sitting time is accumulated has emerged as an important area for
131 research. Activity monitors that use inclinometry and accelerometry have made it possible to assess
132 peoples' sedentary behaviour patterns, including sedentary bout durations, usual bout length, the
133 number of breaks in sedentary time, the intensity of the physical activity during these breaks, and the
134 number of postural transitions. Office workers accumulate a large proportion of their sitting time in
135 prolonged bouts (e.g. bouts lasting at least 30 minutes)¹⁴. This may be of concern as greater amounts
136 of prolonged sitting are adversely associated with body mass index, waist circumference, high-density
137 lipoprotein cholesterol and triglycerides²⁶. Furthermore, the detrimental association of sitting time with
138 metabolic biomarkers appears to become stronger when sitting bouts are accumulated in longer
139 durations²⁶. It may thus be importance to avoid prolonged periods of sitting. Indeed, research

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140 demonstrates that engaging in more breaks from sedentary time throughout the day is beneficially
141 associated with a range of cardiometabolic disease biomarkers^{15,27,28}. Carson, Wong, Winkler, Healy,
142 Colley, Tremblay²⁷ found that each 10 additional breaks in sedentary time per day (a break being
143 defined as a sedentary bout interrupted by ≥ 1 minute of light activity or MVPA) was associated with
144 significant improvements in waist circumference, blood pressure, cholesterol, glucose and insulin.
145 These associations were independent of MVPA and the total time spent in sedentary behaviour.
146 However, as discussed previously, such observational study designs make it difficult to infer a causal
147 effect of sedentary behaviour patterns on health.

148 The short-term (acute) causal effects of prolonged sitting and breaking up sitting on
149 cardiometabolic and mental health have been documented in laboratory-based studies in which
150 participants have followed strict protocols. These studies have consistently found that breaking up
151 prolonged sitting with 2-5 minutes of light or moderate-intensity physical activity every 20-30 minutes
152 leads to significant reductions in postprandial (post-meal) glucose levels over the course of a single
153 day in participants who are healthy, overweight/obese, or have Type 2 diabetes²⁹⁻³¹. Benefits have
154 also been seen for a range of other cardiometabolic biomarkers such as triglycerides, insulin and
155 blood pressure^{31,32}, although there is conflicting evidence³². Studies have reported improvements in
156 cognitive function in response to breaking up prolonged sitting over a single day^{33,34}. In a simulated
157 office environment, alternating sitting and standing every 30 minutes for 8 hours/day led to reductions
158 in postprandial glucose, fatigue and lower back musculoskeletal discomfort over a 5-day period^{35,36}.
159 Similarly, cardiometabolic health was improved when participants substituted several hours of sitting
160 with standing and walking over a period of four days in free-living conditions^{37,38}. These findings
161 suggest that reducing and breaking up sedentary time, in the short-term, may benefit physical and
162 mental health. Although the long-term effects of sedentary behaviour on health have been seldom
163 researched, long-term interventions that have reduced workplace sitting have led to improvements in
164 metabolic biomarkers, mental health and quality of life^{39,40}. Sedentary behaviour interventions in the
165 workplace should thus be considered as a health promotion strategy for office workers, although the
166 long-term causal relationships between sedentary behaviour and health requires further study.

167

168 **Workplace sedentary behaviour interventions**

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169 The development and implementation of interventions to reduce and break up sedentary behaviour in
170 office workers could be an important strategy for public health promotion. Evidence regarding the
171 effects of workplace interventions on sedentary behaviour and health has been growing in recent
172 years⁴¹. These interventions have typically incorporated individual (e.g. self-monitoring of sitting time),
173 organisational (e.g. walking and standing meetings) and environmental level strategies (e.g. providing
174 sit-stand desks)^{39,42,43}. The use of sit-stand desks offers an obvious opportunity for reducing sitting at
175 work as it allows individuals to stand whilst continuing with their normal desk-based tasks. Provision
176 of these desks alone or in combination with providing information around sitting and counselling
177 reduces workplace sitting by an average of 57 minutes/day after 3 to 12 months⁴¹. A systematic
178 review found that multicomponent interventions utilising a combination of individual, organisational
179 and environmental level strategies may be most effective for reducing workplace sitting (mean
180 reduction of 89 minutes/8-hour workday)⁴⁴. Indeed, the Stand More AT (SMArT) Work and Stand Up
181 Victoria multicomponent interventions that incorporated strategies such as education around sitting,
182 health coaching, self-monitoring and feedback on sitting, and sit-stand desk provision, led to
183 reductions in sitting by 45 to 83 minutes/workday after 12 months in two large randomised controlled
184 trials^{39,45}. There were also significant reductions in prolonged sitting time and increases in
185 standing^{39,45}. However, reductions in sedentary behaviour have not been consistently reported.
186 Interventions focusing only on educational and behavioural strategies appear to be less effective than
187 multicomponent and environmental strategies (i.e. sit-stand desks)⁴⁴. These findings help to inform
188 the implementation of future workplace interventions.

189 During the development of interventions, it is important to consider the meaning and function
190 of sitting in the workplace and the associated barriers and facilitators to changing behaviour. Office
191 workers view sitting less at work to be incompatible with the time pressure and demands of work as
192 moving away from the desk is seen as wasting time and not being productive^{46,47}. This could be
193 particularly relevant for call centre workers who have restricted opportunity to move away from the
194 desk. There is thus an organisational cultural expectation that work needs to be done while sitting at a
195 desk. The use of sit-stand desks was identified by office workers as a strategy that could overcome
196 this cultural barrier as it enables individuals to continue working at their desk while standing^{46,47}.
197 Organisational support, such as policy changes and senior management buy-in for sitting less, are
198 also seen as important facilitators of behaviour change^{46,47}. Using behaviour-change theory to

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199 understand the barriers and facilitators to reducing sedentary behaviour in the workplace and
200 informing intervention strategies is thus recommended. Indeed, this approach was used in the SMARt
201 Work study that led to significant long-term reductions in workplace sitting and improvements in work
202 engagement, occupational fatigue, sickness presenteeism, anxiety and quality of life³⁹.

203 Although there are a growing number of studies showing that interventions are effective for
204 reducing workplace sitting⁴¹, employers may be concerned with the cost and productivity implications
205 associated with providing their staff with active workstations and accompanying intervention
206 strategies. Although treadmill and cycling workstations may decrease work performance if the user is
207 not familiar with them, there does not appear to be any detrimental effects on work performance when
208 using sit-stand desks⁴⁸. Furthermore, participants of the SMARt Work multicomponent intervention
209 reported improvements in job performance, work engagement, occupational fatigue, sickness
210 presenteeism, anxiety and quality of life³⁹. This would suggest there is potential for productivity gains
211 from such interventions. Many workplace interventions have also led to significant improvements in
212 risk markers for cardiometabolic disease (e.g. blood pressure, glucose, and adiposity)⁴⁹. However, as
213 found in a systematic review of workplace sedentary behaviour interventions, these benefits have
214 often been limited to a small selection of the health risk markers measured and some interventions
215 did not improve any health markers⁴⁹. Interventions with limited effects on health have, however, been
216 conducted over relatively short timeframes (e.g. up to 12 weeks). Longer duration interventions may
217 be needed for health improvements to occur. Studies have also not been sufficiently powered to
218 detect changes in health parameters⁴⁹. There may be specific behaviour change techniques that are
219 more effective in sedentary workplace sedentary interventions, such as goal setting, habits and social
220 influence, and others that are less promising e.g. self-reward and verbal persuasion about capability
221 to reduce sitting⁴⁹. Further intervention research that employs randomised controlled trial designs
222 powered to detect changes in markers of health are thus needed. These interventions should be
223 developed based on evidence-informed behaviour change strategies that may be optimal for
224 changing behaviour and their cost-effectiveness evaluated. This will help to determine whether the
225 health benefits of sedentary behaviour workplace interventions outweigh the costs of implementation,
226 which would make them a more attractive proposition to businesses and employers.

227

228 **Considerations in the wake of COVID-19**

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229 At the time of writing this review, the world was in the midst of the coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-
230 19) pandemic. COVID-19-related restrictions resulted in large increases in sitting time in the general
231 population, which was associated with worse mental health⁵⁰. The pandemic also affected the way in
232 which many desk-based employees work. For instance, the UK government recommended that
233 employees conduct their work at home wherever possible to reduce the risk of COVID-19
234 transmission. It is plausible that there may be a permanent shift towards more home working as
235 employers may deem this to be a productive and cost-effective way of operating. Research is thus
236 urgently needed to identify the short, medium and long-term effects of COVID-19 on workplace
237 sedentary behaviour and the development and delivery of interventions to reduce sedentary
238 behaviour in desk-based workers during and beyond the pandemic.

239

240 **Conclusions**

241 Sedentary behaviour is highly prevalent in office workers and is often accumulated in prolonged
242 uninterrupted bouts. This places them at higher risk of adverse health outcomes, such as chronic
243 disease and mental ill-health. The development and evaluation of interventions aimed at reducing and
244 breaking up sedentary time in the workplace has thus received a great deal of attention from
245 researchers in recent years. A large number of these interventions have achieved reductions in
246 workplace sitting in the short (<3 months) and long-term (12 months). Although such interventions
247 have led to improvements in health and job-related outcomes, further research is required to
248 determine their long-term health and cost-effectiveness to further support their adoption in workplace
249 policy and practice.

250

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382 **Data availability statement:** No new data were generated or analysed in support of this research..