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*How do older adults respond to Active Australia physical activity questions? Lessons from cognitive interviews*

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**How Do Older Adults Respond to  
Active Australia Physical Activity Questions?  
Lessons from Cognitive Interviews**

1 Abstract

2 The aim of this study was to examine older adults' understanding and interpretation of a  
3 validated questionnaire for physical activity surveillance, the Active Australia Survey (AAS). To  
4 address this aim, cognitive interviewing techniques were used during face-to-face semi-  
5 structured interviews with 44 adults aged 65-89 years. Qualitative data analysis revealed that  
6 participants were confused with questionnaire phrasing, misunderstood the scope of activities to  
7 include in answers, and misunderstood the time frame of activities to report. They also struggled  
8 to accurately estimate the frequency and duration of their activities. Our findings suggest that  
9 AAS questions may be interpreted differently by older adults than intended by survey  
10 developers. Findings also suggest that older adults use a range of methods for calculating PA  
11 frequency and duration. The issues revealed in this study may be useful for adapting AAS for use  
12 in older community-dwelling adults.

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14 *Keywords:* physical activity, exercise, qualitative methods, interviews, questionnaire, survey,  
15 aged, elderly

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1 Evidence on the beneficial effects of physical activity (PA) in older adults (Chodzko-Zajko  
2 et al., 2009; Nelson et al., 2007) is largely based on epidemiological studies, in which  
3 questionnaires have, in light of their ease of administration and relatively low cost, been the  
4 preferred method of assessment (Bauman, Phongsavan, Schoeppe, & Owen, 2006; Lagerros &  
5 Lagiou, 2007). In Australia, the Active Australia Survey ([AAS]; Australian Institute of Health  
6 and Welfare, 2003) is widely used for federal (Armstrong, Bauman, & Davies, 2000) and state-  
7 specific physical activity surveillance (e.g., Chau, Smith, Chey, Merom, & Bauman, 2007;  
8 Tomlin, Joyce, & Patterson, 2012), as well as in population-wide intervention research (Marshall  
9 et al., 2004; Merom et al., 2004) . Because of its relatively strong measurement properties,  
10 including good validity and reliability (Brown, Burton, Marshall, & Miller, 2008; Brown, Trost,  
11 Bauman, Mummery, & Owen, 2004; Timperio, Salmon, & Crawford, 2003) and its  
12 responsiveness to change (Reeves et al., 2010), AAS is increasingly being used in other  
13 countries. In line with a growing focus on the importance of PA for older people, AAS is also  
14 increasingly being used to assess PA levels in this population group. However, little is known  
15 about how older people cope with the recall and formulation aspects of responding to questions  
16 about a behaviour as complex as PA.

17 Our aim was therefore to examine older people's understanding and interpretation of the  
18 questions asked in AAS, in order to uncover cognitive problems that they may have with  
19 responding to PA questions. We used cognitive interviewing methods, as use of these methods  
20 has uncovered cognitive problems during the development of questionnaires in other fields  
21 (Collins, 2003; Drennan, 2003) and during the refinement and development of other PA  
22 measures (Fisher, Falkner, Trevisan, & McCauley, 2000; McKenna, Foster, & Page, 2004; Nigg  
23 et al., 2005; Topolski et al., 2006).

## Method

### *Participants*

As reported previously [REDACTED], we recruited 55 community-dwelling residents of Brisbane, Australia, aged  $\geq 65$  years. We purposively sampled to include men and women with varying education and PA levels given that these factors influence understanding of PA questionnaires (Durante & Ainsworth, 1996). To recruit older adults with different levels of PA and education levels, flyers were displayed at a variety of voluntary organisations with large numbers of older adult members and located in different suburbs of the city (e.g., bridge clubs, senior centres, and exercise centres for older adults), and emails and notices in e-newsletters were sent to university staff to encourage them to pass along the study details to eligible friends and relatives. Potential participants were initially screened by telephone. Those who reported an inability to walk  $>100$  meters without aid, were unable to speak and understand English, or were unable to cognitively respond to our questioning, were ineligible. The study protocol was approved by the [REDACTED] Ethics Committee.

### *Cognitive Interviewing*

The theoretical framework underpinning the interview process was the Conrad and Blair question-and-answer model of survey response (Conrad & Blair, 1996), a revised version of the Tourangeau question-and-answer model (Tourangeau, 1984). In accordance with this model, we sought to understand participants' progression through three stages of responding to a question: 1) comprehension (understanding the meaning of the words used and the information being requested); 2) response formulation (information retrieval and mental calculations required to develop responses); and 3) response mapping (fitting answers into pre-specified response

1 formats). To document participants' progress through these stages, two cognitive interviewing  
2 techniques were used. The first was concurrent think-aloud, and the second was scripted and  
3 unscripted probing (Beatty & Willis, 2007; Drennan, 2003; Jobe & Mingay, 1989). The  
4 interview protocol was pre-tested in three practice interviews and refined after each of these  
5 interviews.

#### 6 *Interview Protocol*

7 Each participant provided informed consent and completed a questionnaire on socio-  
8 demographic and health-related characteristics before the start of a face-to-face interview with  
9 two interviewers. One interviewer [REDACTED] led the interview while another [REDACTED] (or a  
10 research assistant) audio-recorded, noted non-verbal communication and asked probing  
11 questions.

12 During the interview, the participant completed four short PA surveillance questionnaires  
13 as part of a larger study on measurement of PA in older adults. In addition to AAS, the  
14 participant responded to the Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System (Centers for Disease  
15 Control and Prevention, 2003), the PA Scale for the Elderly (Washburn, Smith, Jette, & Janney,  
16 1993), and the International PA Questionnaire (Craig et al., 2003). These questionnaires were  
17 included in the larger study because they are the most frequently used PA surveillance  
18 questionnaires and they have been used with older adults. To decrease possible bias from  
19 questionnaire ordering, the order of questionnaire administration was determined by a computer-  
20 based random order generator, and the participant was instructed before the start of each new  
21 questionnaire after the first one, to respond as if the person had not already completed other  
22 questionnaires. Interviews concluded with the participant receiving a \$20 gift voucher.

23 For the current analysis, only AAS questions were examined, and thus the specific

1 interview protocol used for gathering data about AAS is described next. Each participant was  
2 asked to practice the cognitive interviewing think-aloud technique and then to use the technique  
3 in responding to AAS questions (See Appendix for AAS questions). The participant was asked to  
4 read each AAS question aloud, verbalize the process of formulating an answer, and write the  
5 answer on a printed copy of the questionnaire. Thus, although interviews were held in a face-to-  
6 face setting, the process of completing AAS replicated a survey context as much as possible, in  
7 that each participant completed a pen and paper version of AAS as part of the interview process.  
8 If a participant did not adequately verbalize the process used for formulating an answer, the  
9 interviewers asked probing questions to learn whether the participant understood the intent of the  
10 question (e.g., *What activities are you including in your answer?*) and how the person had  
11 formulated a response (e.g., *How did you come up with this answer?*). The interviewers also  
12 noted any difficulties in recording responses on the printed copy of the questionnaire.

### 13 *Active Australia Physical Activity Survey*

14 AAS is an 8-item measure developed for PA surveillance of adults aged 18 to 75 years  
15 (Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, 2003): see Appendix. It assesses four PA domains in  
16 the following order: walking (*for recreation, exercise or to get to and from places*), vigorous  
17 gardening and heavy work around the yard (*which made you breathe harder or puff and pant*),  
18 vigorous PA (*that makes you breathe harder or puff and pant, [e.g., jogging, cycling, aerobics,*  
19 *competitive tennis]*), and moderate PA (*e.g., gentle swimming, social tennis, golf*). For each  
20 domain, participants reported the number of times the activity was performed in the previous  
21 week, as a measure of frequency, and the total time (hours and minutes) spent in the activity in  
22 the last week, as a measure of duration. The vigorous gardening and yardwork questions are  
23 included after the walking questions to allow participants to report such activities but to dissuade

1 them from reporting these activities in questions about vigorous PA that follow. Responses to the  
2 gardening and yardwork questions are not subsequently used for computing PA scores, and thus  
3 were not analysed in the present study.

#### 4 *Data Analysis*

5 As described elsewhere ( [REDACTED] ), each interview for the larger study,  
6 which included the use of cognitive interviewing techniques with the four PA questionnaires,  
7 was transcribed into a word processing file, and field notes about the interview were added to the  
8 file. Data within the file were labeled to reflect the specific questionnaire and PA domain to  
9 which they pertained (e.g., AAS walking questions). Each file was then imported into NVivo 8  
10 qualitative analysis software (QSR International, Melbourne, Australia) to organize, manage and  
11 code the data. The importation process automatically created a category in NVivo for each label,  
12 to allow for the coding of data separately by domain within each questionnaire (e.g., walking,  
13 vigorous PA, and moderate PA domains in AAS). Data pertaining to AAS were used for the  
14 analysis described in this paper.

15 Using the Conrad and Blair model (Conrad & Blair, 1996), a participant's AAS responses  
16 were further coded into the comprehension, response formulation, and response mapping stages  
17 of questionnaire response. This model suggests that within each stage, participants can encounter  
18 computational, lexical, logical, omission, or temporal problems (Conrad & Blair, 1996), and  
19 thus, in coding AAS data, we specifically sought out evidence of these problems in completing  
20 AAS within each stage. In addition, we created a separate 'Activities' theme to describe the  
21 variety of activities that participants reported that they had included in their response to AAS  
22 questions.



1 Two researchers ( ) jointly developed the initial themes within each stage in the  
2 Conrad and Blair model. They began by first analyzing AAS data from participants who  
3 completed AAS as the first of the four questionnaires they completed for the larger study  
4 described above. Next, the researchers used these themes to jointly code transcripts from  
5 participants who completed AAS as their second or third questionnaire, and they noted any  
6 themes that they had not noted in transcripts already coded. The first author then reviewed all  
7 themes, merged those that overlapped, and summarized the findings. To assess the credibility of  
8 the findings, she reviewed the transcripts of participants who completed the AAS as the first  
9 questionnaire in their interview, to ensure that the summary reflected only themes present in  
10 these transcripts and thereby to exclude the possibility that themes could have been influenced by  
11 the completion of PA questionnaires prior to completion of AAS. The second author then  
12 reviewed the summary to confirm that the major themes were captured and the data were well  
13 represented.

#### 14 Results

15 Characteristics of the analysis sample ( $n = 44$ ) are presented in Table 1. Participants' ages  
16 ranged from 65 to 89 years. Most participants were born in Australia and were retired although a  
17 few still worked, at least part-time. Half did not have a university degree, and some reported  
18 difficulty managing on their income. All participants reported at least good health although a few  
19 were limited in their ability to walk 1 km.

20 The activities included in participant responses to questions about walking, vigorous PA,  
21 and moderate PA are shown in Table 2. Participants reported these activities during the think-  
22 aloud process or, when not verbalized during that process, during probing of the activities they

1 were including in their responses. Activities are categorized into transport-related activities,  
2 housework, exercise/sport, and other activities.

3 There was variation in the way that participants understood AAS instructions and wording  
4 and in the way they formulated and mapped responses. This led to both under-reporting and  
5 over-reporting of frequency and duration of activities. Specific problems with comprehension,  
6 response formulation and response mapping are summarized in Table 3 and described in detail  
7 below.

### 8 *Comprehension of the Requested Information*

9 *Misunderstanding the scope of activities for inclusion in each domain.* Most participants  
10 understood that they were to include walking for exercise and for transport in responses to  
11 walking questions. A few participants, however, when probed, indicated that they had not  
12 included walking for transport and thus under-reported their walking. Some included start-and-  
13 stop walking in the house, walking around the yard, or walking while doing housework, and  
14 some included walking as part of playing a sport (e.g., golf, lawn bowls), resulting in over-  
15 reporting. One man asked, “What if I also did some running?...I’m going to include running as  
16 well as when I’m walking.”

17 With the examples of vigorous and moderate PA provided in AAS limited to sports and  
18 exercise, most participants limited the activities they reported as vigorous or moderate to such  
19 activities and may have under-reported their activities as a result. For example, one woman said,  
20 “I don’t play competitive sport anymore,” so reported no moderate PA. A few participants  
21 considered the examples to be the only activities to report, and reported no activity if they had  
22 not done any of the example activities.

1           Some participants said they did no activities that made them puff and pant and therefore  
2 reported no vigorous PA, as would be appropriate based on the AAS definition of vigorous PA.  
3 One male, who focused on the puff and pant criterion, limited his response to the portion of his  
4 cycling that made him puff and pant (i.e., the riding uphill). Most participants, however, said  
5 they did not puff or pant but they did vigorous PA that made them breathe heavier, “work  
6 harder,” or “get warmer” and included such activities in their responses, which may have  
7 resulted in over-reporting of vigorous PA. One man explained the inclusion of his golfing as  
8 vigorous PA, “Golf is probably the most vigorous that I did,... and it is hard work getting up  
9 some of the hills pulling a buggy;...I might breathe a little bit harder, but I don’t get to the  
10 puffing or panting stage.”

11           Most participants interpreted moderate PA to only include exercise and sports. Some  
12 however interpreted the term more broadly and likely over-reported their activities. One man  
13 interpreted moderate PA to be “physical activities that were not working, not sort of pottering  
14 around the house.” Another man, who questioned what types of activities were left to report as  
15 moderate after having reported walking and vigorous PA, concluded that he should record  
16 walking that he had not already reported, including “walking that wasn’t for 10  
17 minutes...ordinary walking around the house, household chores”. Others also included their  
18 housework as the previous questions (about vigorous PA) had specifically instructed to not  
19 include housework. For example, one woman said, “Okay, now I get to talk about the other kinds  
20 [of activity];...cleaning house would count, so let’s see...mopping, sweeping, vacuuming,  
21 spraying the carpet, and straightening up and doing other things - moving things around, re-  
22 arranging.”

1        *Differing interpretation of 'times'.* The word *times* as a measure of activity frequency was  
2 interpreted in two different ways. In reporting walking or cycling for transport, some participants  
3 counted each portion of the journey as a separate time (e.g., walking “into town and out of town”  
4 as two times), and others counted the whole journey as one time. AAS is not clear on which  
5 definition of *time* is appropriate and thus it is not clear if there was under- or over-reporting by  
6 some participants. Almost all participants correctly counted each session of continuous exercise  
7 as one time (e.g., one “time” for one session at the gym that included multiple activities)  
8 although one woman over-reported by counting each session at the gym as two times, one for the  
9 time she spent on a stationary bike and the second time for the time she spent on a rowing  
10 machine.

11        *Misunderstanding 'at least 10 min' of continuous activity.* All participants seemed to  
12 understand that they were to include walking lasting at least 10 min, but some were confused by  
13 the *walking continuously for at least 10 min* wording. A few participants interpreted the phrasing  
14 to mean that they were only to consider each 10+ min walk to have lasted only 10 min, no matter  
15 the total duration of the walking. For example, one woman reported that the total time of her four  
16 walks (each up to 1 hour in length) took 40 min (each walk allowed to be counted as 10 min x 4  
17 walks). Thus she under-reported her walking duration. One man also thought that each of his  
18 walks could only be counted as lasting 10 min in duration even though his walks lasted longer  
19 than 10 min. He decided to report a greater frequency of walking than actually done, to  
20 compensate for the fact that he was counting each walk as a 10-min walk (i.e., 10 walking  
21 sessions lasting more than 10 min, each reported as 15 walking sessions each lasting 10 min). As  
22 a result, he over-estimated his walking frequency in order to more accurately capture duration.  
23 One woman understood that she was to report the number of days, instead of the number of

1 sessions, in the previous week that she had walked continuously for 10 min, and therefore she  
2 recorded 7 times of walking, and as a result, under-reported her walking frequency.

3 *Misunderstanding the duration of activity.* Some participants over-reported the duration  
4 of activities by reporting the entire duration of an activity rather than the portion that pertained to  
5 the question being asked. For example, some participants reported the total duration of their  
6 shopping within their responses to the walking duration question although the shopping  
7 inevitably involved standing as well. Golfers typically described their entire time on the golf  
8 course as time spent walking or doing moderate or vigorous PA even though they were not  
9 moving the entire time. However, a few participants correctly reported as vigorous PA only that  
10 part of an activity that made them breathe heavier, such as the walking uphill or the most  
11 strenuous part of a bicycle ride.

#### 12 *Problems with Formulating Responses*

13 *Miscalculating frequency.* Participants used a variety of strategies to calculate activity  
14 frequency that resulted in under-reporting for some and over-reporting for others (listed in Table  
15 4). A common strategy was to mentally go back through the week and count the number of  
16 sessions. However, this process was difficult for recalling walking. Participants would often start  
17 with counting the number of walking sessions but then needed to do some guesswork because  
18 they could not remember every walking session. A woman said,

19 I'm just trying to remember what we did on the weekend, it's a little hazy. I  
20 remember we did shopping and various things. I can't remember for certain if  
21 we did some exercise [walking], but I think we did some...so, yeah, I just  
22 added another day for the weekend because I can't remember exactly what.

1           A few participants reported that they were physically active every day, and therefore  
2 recorded seven times to represent 7 days of activity. For some participants the seven times  
3 represented the minimum amount of times. For example, one man explained that he only  
4 reported the early morning walks he did “religiously every day” but that he had not included  
5 other walking.

6           Most participants reported activity of the past 7 days; however, some did not. Using words  
7 like “on a regular basis,” “on average”, “weekly” or using the present tense (e.g., “I walk at least  
8 once or twice a week”), these participants reported their general impressions about the amount of  
9 activity they did as part of their daily lives and such reporting may have inflated their estimates  
10 of PA frequency. One woman reported, “I walk to [the] bridge and then I walk back home, so  
11 that’s twice a week, that’s four times. And then I have...walking to school on the volunteer day  
12 and 3 days that I just walk in the morning.” One man explained that it was better for him to  
13 remember the number of times he “regularly” did the activity given the previous week was  
14 “erratic” for which he reported “difficulty answering your questions.”

15           The next strategy was to multiply the number of sessions “normally” done per day by 7  
16 days (e.g., “Really probably 3 times a day, x 7 days, 21 times.”). This strategy was used most  
17 frequently for calculating the number of walks, given difficulties in remembering all walking  
18 sessions. A related strategy was to guess what was normally done during the week. One woman  
19 said, “I’m only guessing because I can’t possibly remember how many times I go [walking], but  
20 I do one every morning, that’s 10 minutes, and I go to the shops maybe...it depends what I’m  
21 doing so I can only guess”. A unique strategy used by one woman was to subtract the number of  
22 days that she did not cycle from 7 days (as ‘it was raining’), to arrive at the number of days she  
23 did moderate PA in the previous week. Her rationale was that “I do normally get out on the

1 bike”, so if she could recall specific instances of not cycling, she would arrive at the correct  
2 number of cycling sessions.

3 *Miscalculation of duration.* Participants calculated the total time spent in activities of the  
4 previous week or of a “regular” week using a range of strategies that resulted in under-reporting  
5 for some and over-reporting for others (Table 4). Calculations included multiplication (of the  
6 minutes of an activity repeated during the week) and/or summing (adding up duration of  
7 different activities). For some individual activities, such as incidental walking or “doing things  
8 with the grandkids”, a guesstimate of an activity’s duration was made before calculations were  
9 done to arrive at the total weekly duration. For other activities, particularly exercise and sporting  
10 activities, participants knew the duration of their activities as they had timed the activities or the  
11 activities were a set length, like an aqua aerobics class or an exercise walk done regularly.  
12 Typically then, participants summed times spent in activities with known durations with time  
13 spent in activities for which they had to guess the durations.

14 In making calculations, some participants clearly over-reported duration as they rounded  
15 up the total time they were reporting. One man admitted, “I’ve overestimated a little bit.”  
16 Sometimes rounding up was to account for incidental walking that was not included in the  
17 response to the walking frequency question. For example, estimated duration of walks included  
18 “another couple of hours for messing around down in the yard” or “whatever 10 minutes I did  
19 around the house”. In contrast, a few participants indicated that they had reported the minimum  
20 duration of their activities. For example, one man reported, “I think 6 hours would probably be  
21 underestimating [my walking], but 6 hours minimum anyhow.”

22 A number of participants miscalculated the total time spent in an activity domain. Some  
23 errors were simple math miscalculations: “2 hours a day, 7 days in a week: that’s 140 hours.”

1 The main difficulties, however, were with calculating the total weekly duration for activities of  
2 varying lengths, trying to account for incidental activities, and multiplying the minutes of an  
3 activity performed on multiple days and then adding this to the minutes of other activities. One  
4 woman reported, “Well, 6 days at 40 minutes, that’s 2 hours and 40 minutes, and the one day is  
5 60 minutes. Now have I done that sum rightly? So together its 3 hours and 40 minutes?”

6 Some strategies for calculating duration were only used in calculating the duration of  
7 walking activities. One such strategy was estimating the total time spent walking on a “normal”  
8 day and multiplying that by 7 days to arrive at a total weekly duration of walking. The  
9 participants who understood that the duration of each walk could only count as 10 min multiplied  
10 the number of walks, or guessed the number of walks, by 10 min, no matter the actual length of  
11 the walks.

12 *Reporting the same activity in multiple domains.* Some participants reported the same  
13 activity in the walking domain and either the vigorous or moderate PA domain and thus over-  
14 reported the frequency and duration of their PA. For example, walking for exercise was often  
15 included in both the walking and vigorous PA domains. Some participants included sports and  
16 exercise, like golf and aqua aerobics, as both walking and moderate PA. Activities for which the  
17 intensity varied over the course of the session (e.g., exercise classes) were typically reported as  
18 vigorous PA only.

19 *Problems with Mapping Response Options*

20 Once participants had formulated their responses to questions about frequency of activities  
21 (number of times), they had no difficulties mapping responses to the response boxes. However,  
22 they did encounter some difficulty with mapping responses to questions about duration (total  
23 time in the previous week) to the response options. The response options included two boxes to



1 record hours followed by two boxes to record minutes. Therefore, some participants divided to  
2 convert minutes into hours, in order to fit answers into the boxes. One participant calculated, “20  
3 times x 10 [minutes] is 200 minutes,” but to then put her response into the response boxes, she  
4 miscalculated: “it would be 4 hours, wouldn’t it?” Such miscalculations lead to both under-  
5 reporting and over-reporting of duration of activities.

## 6 Discussion

7 This study documents the cognitive processes used by a sample of older Australian adults  
8 to respond to a self-administered version of AAS, a PA surveillance questionnaire that uses  
9 open-ended response options for questions about the frequency of sessions of walking, moderate  
10 PA and vigorous PA over the past week and the duration (total time) of these activities for that  
11 time period. The data from cognitive interviews suggest variation in the way that older adults  
12 *understood* the questions, and *formulated* and *mapped* their responses. This led to both under-  
13 reporting and over-reporting. Below we summarise our findings and make suggestions for  
14 possible ways to improve the accuracy of the data collected from older adults and possibly other  
15 adults as well, acknowledging that further research is needed to clarify if the same cognitive  
16 processes and problems occur in younger age groups, and that any changes made to AAS would  
17 need to be tested in both older and younger adults, before being used for population level  
18 surveillance.

### 19 *Understanding the Questions*

20 Walking questions were the first to be asked, and participants wanted to include all their  
21 walking, including activities that were more appropriate to include later as either vigorous PA or  
22 moderate PA (e.g., golf) and that often got included in these other domains as well. Such  
23 ‘double-dipping’ has been reported for other PA questionnaires, in samples of middle-aged

1 adults (Altschuler et al., 2009) and, by us, of older adults ( [REDACTED] ). To decrease such  
2 misclassification and over-reporting, we do not recommend changing the ordering in which  
3 domains are asked. In adapting a PA questionnaire for older adults, researchers in Sweden found  
4 that participants were uncomfortable with first being presented with questions about activities  
5 done rarely or seldom (vigorous and moderate PA), and therefore, questions about activities done  
6 frequently (walking) were arranged to be first (Hurtig-Wennlof, Hagstromer, & Olsson, 2010).  
7 We do suggest that to decrease the tendency to report the same activity more than once, in  
8 introductory instructions, participants be instructed that AAS will ask separately about walking,  
9 vigorous PA and moderate PA and that activities reported in one domain of activity are not to be  
10 reported in other domains.

11 Another issue was that some participants did not understand that *continuous* meant non-  
12 stop walking. We have found this to be a problem for the short 7-day form of the International  
13 PA Questionnaire (IPAQ) too ( [REDACTED] ). Adding that start-and-stop walking, such as  
14 walking around the house or in shops, is not to be included or simply rephrasing *continuous* to  
15 *non-stop* walking may help address this problem. The wording *at least 10 min* in the walking  
16 frequency question was also problematic. Other researchers have found that participants do not  
17 consider the 10-min rule to be an absolute cut-off for walking questions (Rzewnicki, Van den  
18 Auweele, & De Bourdeaudhuij, 2003). In the current study, some participants did not understand  
19 that *at least 10 min* was to be applied to the walking duration question as well. Clarifying that  
20 participants are only to include walking reported in the frequency question (e.g., re-stating that  
21 only walking lasting at least 10 min is to be reported for the duration question or revising the  
22 term *walking this way* that is used in the duration question) could address the issue.

1 Another issue most relevant to walking questions was misunderstanding about the number  
2 of sessions to report for transport-related activity. The simplest suggestion for change would be  
3 to instruct how to count *each* session of active travel. However, for calculating the prevalence of  
4 people meeting PA guidelines that call for doing PA at least 5 days of the week, or most days of  
5 the week (Australian Government Department of Health and Aged Care, 1999), it would be more  
6 useful to inquire about the number of days, instead of number of *times* for calculating PA  
7 frequency. Doing so would also reduce the cognitive processing required to answer the question  
8 and decrease other problems we uncovered in reporting frequency of activity.

9 Questions about vigorous PA were the easiest to understand as these activities tend to be  
10 planned, structured activities, and we recommend that no changes be made to these questions.  
11 Most participants correctly relied on the description of vigorous PA rather than on the examples.  
12 Similar to our previous findings for IPAQ (██████████), only a few participants  
13 considered the examples to be choice-limiting checklists, although most participants reported an  
14 entire session of activity rather than the component of the session that was vigorous-intensity.  
15 However, in comparison to IPAQ, in completing AAS, participants tended to struggle much less  
16 with deciding what activities to include as vigorous PA. This may reflect a number of factors.  
17 First, IPAQ provides examples of vigorous PA but no description, and participants perceived that  
18 the IPAQ examples were activities that could be performed at different intensities. In the present  
19 analysis, participants did not express such confusion with the examples, and no participant  
20 questioned the meaning of the vigorous PA description (*breathe harder or puff and pant*). Some  
21 participants did include moderate PA or walking as vigorous PA because their breathing  
22 increased when they did those activities. In contrast to IPAQ and most other PA questionnaires,  
23 AAS asks participants to report vigorous gardening and yard activities immediately before the

1 vigorous PA question to discourage participants from reporting these activities as vigorous PA.  
2 Moreover, AAS instructs participants to exclude household chores, gardening and yardwork  
3 from responses to vigorous PA questions, decreasing the range of activities participants have to  
4 consider in their responses.

5 Participants were, however, uncertain about the type of PA to include for *other more*  
6 *moderate* PA, given no definition of moderate was provided and most of the walking and  
7 exercise had already been reported. Thus, a definition and examples are suggested. Our previous  
8 research also found that older adults were uncertain about the types of PA to report as moderate  
9 PA for IPAQ (██████████), and confusion with the intensity of activity to include as  
10 moderate PA has been reported for other PA questionnaires in younger populations (Altschuler  
11 et al., 2009; Craig et al., 2003; Ham, Macera, Jones, Ainsworth, & Turczyn, 2004; Rzewnicki et  
12 al., 2003). In focus groups with older Australian women (Brown, Fuller, Lee, Cockburn, &  
13 Adamson, 1999), participants agreed that many activities (e.g., walking, exercise classes, golf,  
14 cycling) could be performed at different intensities, which makes decisions about categorising  
15 PA as moderate difficult without definitions of intensity provided. Such findings may explain  
16 why questions measuring moderate PA have lower test-retest reliability estimates than walking  
17 and vigorous PA questions (Brown, Trost, Bauman, Mummery, & Owen, 2004).

#### 18 *Formulating and Mapping a Response*

19 As shown for other PA questionnaires (██████████  
20 ██████████) and for answering questions in surveys more generally (Tourangeau, Rips, &  
21 Rasinski, 2000), participants used a number of strategies and often used a mix of strategies for  
22 calculating frequency and duration of their activities. Walking in particular required a mix of  
23 strategies. Asking participants to recall incidental behaviour like walking is known to be

1 problematic, and so some degree of individual error is likely. Providing further clarification  
2 about the type of walking to include and exclude (e.g., include non-stop walking; exclude  
3 walking in shops) could decrease the number of sessions that participants have to recall, and as a  
4 result may somewhat improve computations, and therefore estimations.

5         However, it should be acknowledged that for habitual activities like walking, it was very  
6 difficult for participants to recall with accuracy each session and the duration of each session in  
7 the last week. Thus, few participants relied exclusively on episodic enumeration (recalling and  
8 counting) for calculating frequency or summing total weekly min of walking for calculating total  
9 duration. Most needed to at least supplement calculations with estimations based on their general  
10 impressions of frequency and duration. Turning such impressions into numerical responses can  
11 be a challenge and may result in flawed estimations (Tourangeau et al., 2000). Indeed, for some  
12 participants, the cognitive effort required to recall each session and its duration was too great and  
13 therefore they guessed. This finding is in line with those from previous studies of how people  
14 respond to surveys (Tourangeau et al., 2000).

15         This difficulty with retrieval of PA sessions may be explained by the role of memory in  
16 responding to questionnaires. Durante and Ainsworth (1996) discuss theories of memory relevant  
17 to the recall of PA behaviour. In short, these theories contend that general, abstract memories are  
18 distinct from memories of specific events, but that general memories “intrude” when trying to  
19 retrieve the memory of a specific event, potentially decreasing the accuracy of the recall of the  
20 event. Also, as the time since the event increases, the memory of the specific event become less  
21 clear and blends with similar memories, leading to further inaccuracies in the recall of the event.  
22 Durante and Ainsworth (1996) explain that these issues are particularly problematic for recalling  
23 specific events that are highly habituated. In the current analysis, the theories of memory indicate

1 that retrieval of specific sessions of PA, particularly a highly habituated activity like walking,  
2 may be influenced by general recollections of “usual” PA, leading to an inaccurate assessment of  
3 the frequency and duration of specific sessions.

4 For the measurement of PA, there is debate about whether activities of a usual week or a  
5 specific week should be assessed. Our findings indicate that for at least some older adults,  
6 reporting a usual week may be preferred, a finding supported by our analysis of older adults’  
7 responses to IPAQ ( ) and by others (Durante & Ainsworth, 1996). Problems  
8 with short-term memory may be a particular problem for some older adults (Jonker, Geerlings, &  
9 Schmand, 2000) for whom being asked to recall specific events could be stressful.

10 For calculating frequency, we have already suggested that days be used instead of *times*.  
11 Such a change would decrease the number of possible events (i.e., days from times) to recall,  
12 making the episode enumeration process easier. If days were used, in conjunction with the  
13 existing ‘last week’ timeframe, participants could be instructed to consider whether the activity  
14 had been performed the previous day and then work backwards to count the total number of  
15 days. This process is used with 7-day recall instruments and is suggested for recall of PA in  
16 questionnaires with short referent periods like AAS (Durante & Ainsworth, 1996). This in turn  
17 may help participants focus on the events of the last week.

18 To decrease errors in converting minutes to hours or vice versa, sufficient numbers of  
19 response boxes (with appropriate instruction) should be provided to allow participants to write  
20 responses in minutes or hours only.

### 21 *Limitations*

22 Responses of participants who completed AAS as the second or third questionnaire may  
23 have been influenced by questions asked in earlier questionnaires included in the larger study.

1 However, we confirmed that all the main issues we describe were evident in the transcripts from  
2 participants who completed AAS first. Also of note is that the design of this research did not  
3 allow for comparisons of cognitive errors between older and younger adults. Therefore, it  
4 remains unknown whether cognitive errors are greater in older populations.

5       There are also limitations to our use of cognitive interviewing techniques. First, as with  
6 cognitive interviewing more generally (Willis, 2005), participants were self-selected and were  
7 thus not representative of all Australian older adults. Our sample was generally well educated  
8 and cognitively healthy. More problems with completing AAS could be expected in people with  
9 cognitive decline, in less well educated populations, and in culturally and linguistically diverse  
10 populations, as these groups may have different interpretations of the concepts in the  
11 questionnaire. Second, the cognitive interview setting creates an artificial testing environment  
12 (Willis, 2005). Participants may have responded differently if they had completed AAS on their  
13 own or if they had been administered AAS using a different mode of delivery (e.g., interviewer-  
14 administered). To decrease the influence of the testing environment, participants were provided  
15 no guidance in how to respond, and probing only occurred once participants had completed  
16 questions of a PA domain. Particular concerns with the think-aloud process are that some  
17 participants do not perform this task well (Willis, 2005) and that it may interfere with the  
18 cognitive process of responding (Beatty & Wallis, 2007). In the current study, some participants  
19 did not engage in thinking aloud, or did it poorly. For those participants, probing questions were  
20 asked, to reveal as much about the thought process as possible. Evidence suggests that responses  
21 to probes like ours, asked immediately following questions, are likely to not be much different  
22 than think-aloud reports (Beatty & Willis, 2007). Third, analysis of cognitive interview data can  
23 result in faulty conclusions if problems are identified that do not exist in survey administration in

1 the field (Beatty & Willis, 2007), and thus testing of suggested changes to AAS is needed before  
2 a revised version is used for surveillance.

### 3 *Future Research*

4 We need to be cautious that making any changes, particularly adding instructions and more  
5 examples, does not make AAS more burdensome to complete and does not confuse people who  
6 would have had no problems completing the current written AAS version. Thus any changes  
7 made to AAS based on our findings would need testing, such as split ballot testing, to learn  
8 whether an altered version that addresses the problems we uncovered provides a more reliable  
9 and valid measure of PA than the current version. However first, learning whether the problems  
10 we uncovered are found across all adult age groups is needed, given AAS is used for population  
11 surveillance. We would suggest cognitive interviewing to do this, prior to comparing an altered  
12 version to the AAS version used in the current study.

### 13 Conclusions

14 Our findings suggest that AAS questions about walking, vigorous PA and moderate PA  
15 may not be interpreted by older adults as intended by the survey developers. They also suggest  
16 that there is variation in the way that older adults interpret AAS instructions and understand the  
17 meaning of the words used in AAS. Data collected from cognitive interviews revealed challenges  
18 in understanding the scope of activities to include, understanding particular wording used in the  
19 questions and instructions, and making the required calculations for formulating and recording  
20 responses. Participants had the most difficulty with the walking questions. Over-reporting errors  
21 were more common than under-reporting errors. Based on the findings, we have made  
22 recommendations that could be used for adapting the self-administered version of AAS for use in  
23 populations that include older community-dwelling adults, although additional research is



1 needed to test the impact of these changes on the accuracy of the data collected. We  
2 acknowledge that making any changes to PA questionnaires like AAS can disrupt the monitoring  
3 of PA over time, and therefore the advantages and disadvantages of using a revised version need  
4 to be carefully considered.  
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