



REVIEW

What is the role of smartphones on physical activity promotion? A systematic review and meta-analysis

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Abstract

Objectives To identify and evaluate the effect of interventions that used cell phones as a means to promote physical activity (PA).

Methods The databases searched were MedLine/PubMed, Scopus, SPORTDiscus, PsycINFO, Science Direct, Lilacs, and SciELO. After removing duplicates, applying exclusion criteria, and checking the reference lists, 45 studies were reviewed. The Downs and Black (D&B) scale measured methodological quality, and a random effect model was used to compute the meta-analysis of PA by the reported unit (minutes per day or steps per day), delivery agent (application (APP), SMS, or other), and PA measurement (questionnaire, accelerometer, pedometer).

Results Mobile phone-based PA interventions were efficient in increasing both minutes [10.49; CI (3.37–17.60); $p = 0.004$] and steps per day [735.17; CI (227.72–1242.61); $p = 0.005$] in adults when compared to baseline. Furthermore, APP-based interventions were able to increase the number of steps ($p = 0.04$) and minutes per day of PA ($p = 0.04$) in adults. Also, 85% of included manuscripts were classified as moderate- to high-quality articles.

Conclusions Mobile phone-based PA interventions, inclusive those delivery by APP, were effective to increase minutes and steps per day in adults.

Keywords Physical activity · Interventions · Mobile devices · Adults

Introduction

The high burden of physical inactivity has been the subject of several studies in the area of epidemiology (Kohl et al. 2012; Lee et al. 2012; Reis et al. 2016) and according to Sallis et al. (2016) is responsible for more than 5 million deaths per year in world. In this sense, combating physical inactivity (PI) has been one of the main objectives of health organizations (Bauman et al. 2013; Hallal et al. 2012; WHO 2010), mainly due to its association with chronic non-communicable diseases (CNCD), such as obesity, diabetes, cardiovascular diseases, depression, and others

(Humphreys et al. 2014; Strohle 2009; Wicker et al. 2015). Another important point to highlight is the economic burden caused due to adopting an inactive lifestyle. Data released by Ding et al. (2016) estimate that PI cost about \$53 billion to health systems worldwide in 2013, evidencing the need for more health promotion and prevention actions.

To improve health promotion effects, it is necessary to understand the reasons that lead to the adoption of inactive behavior. It is possible to highlight in this issue the increasing use of cell phones and smartphones, historically associated with PI and sedentary behavior (Kim et al. 2015; Rosenberg et al. 2010). Nevertheless, this type of device represents a useful tool for daily task practices and even for leisure and social interaction, making it essential for majority of the population. Pratt et al. (2012) indicated a high growth in access to mobile devices between 1997 and 2009 (from 0.01 to 4.3% of the population in low-income countries, from 0.21 to 23.8% in middle-income countries, and from 11.2 to 51.9% in high-income countries). In a study conducted in the USA, Lepp et al. (2013) verified the

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total minutes spent using mobile devices in men (298.9 min/day) and women (313 min/day), which represents one-fifth of the 24 h a day.

As a result of this increase in mobile device usage, Roberts et al. (2014) suggested that structural features, including stylized ringtones, attractive graphics, and ease of online accessibility may induce or even enhance the use of mobile devices. In this way, the use of such gadgets can become an allied tool since greater access to this type of equipment in a large part of the population (Fukuoka et al. 2010; Roberts et al. 2014; Thorsteinsen et al. 2014) and the emergence of new applications for the monitoring of physical activity (PA) practice can be utilized beneficially.

Thus, Pratt et al. (2012) suggested that interventions based on the use of new information and communication technologies, especially mobile devices, have similar effects when compared to planned PA interventions. Also, this suggested intervention has lower costs, which represents greater ease of execution, especially in low- and middle-income countries. Thus, the objective of the present study is to identify the effect of smartphone-based interventions in PA promotion.

Methods

The PRISMA statement for reporting systematic reviews was used to ensure that the methodology and results were conducted and reported systematically (Moher et al. 2009; electronic supplementary material).

Literature search

This systematic review sought intervention studies that aimed to promote a physically active lifestyle. The search was completed in October 2018 and included the following databases: MedLine/PubMed (English), Scopus (English), SPORTDiscus (English), PsycINFO (English), Lilacs (English and Portuguese), and SciELO (Portuguese). The search in these databases included the keywords related to physical activity (e.g., physical exercise, physical activity, motor activity) and to cell phone and mobile devices (e.g., smartphone, mobile devices, motion sensor, cell phone, app, application, mobile phone). In databases where the main language was Portuguese, the correct equivalent in that language for each keyword was used. Moreover, there were no language and time limitations. All search strategies are available as a supplemental file.

All articles were included in this study and exported to EndNote reference management software ($\times 7$ version), and duplicates were excluded. Initially, two independent reviewers (NF and TSS) checked all titles and abstracts identified in the electronic databases to include eligible

articles for the full-text analysis. Moreover, both reviewers checked the reference lists of published systematic reviews and meta-analyses about smartphone and PA promotion available on MedLine to identify additional articles. Both reviewers then reviewed the potential eligible articles for inclusion. In the case of disagreement between the first two reviewers, a third independent reviewer (ELC) helped to resolve the issue by consensus. Figure 1 presents the PRISMA flow diagram of this methodology.

Eligibility criteria

The following eligibility criteria, according to the PICOS (Population, Intervention, Comparator, Outcomes, and Study design) question, were considered for inclusion of articles in this systematic review.

Population

The review included adults (> 18 years) with no restriction based on physical or cognitive condition. Studies including individuals with risk factors (e.g., high cholesterol, overweight, obesity, diabetes, etc.) or known cardiometabolic diseases (e.g., Type 2 diabetes, coronary heart disease, heart failure, etc.) were eligible for inclusion.

Intervention

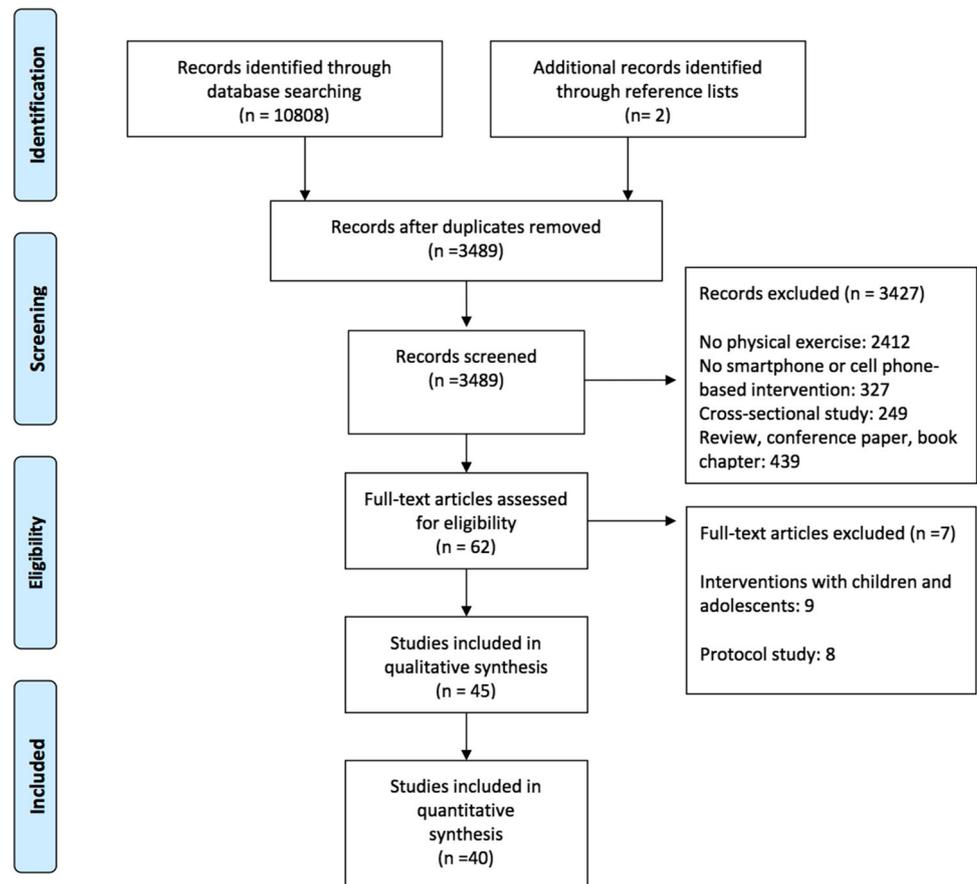
The review included studies with physical activity interventions (RCT or not) that used either SMS or an APP to promote PA. Also, based on concepts of Caspersen et al. (1985), interventions composed by any form of physical exercise were not considered. There was no restriction on intervention duration.

Comparator

Control groups and baseline measurements were comparators for intervention effect values. Control groups that included any type of physical exercise interventions were not included.

Outcomes

Physical activity level measured by questionnaire, pedometer, or accelerometer was the primary outcome. To be included in the meta-analysis, the outcome should be reported as steps per day or minutes per day. Studies that reported PA in other forms (e.g., days per week, MET per minute per week) were included only in the systematic review.

Fig. 1 Flow diagram of articles selection stages

Study design

Experimental studies published in any language were considered.

Quality of evidence

After selecting all articles, the Downs and Black (1998) and Centre for Evidence-Based Medicine's level of evidence (Howick et al. 2011) scale was used to evaluate the quality of articles. The Downs and Black scale was designed to analyze randomized and non-randomized clinical trials and consists of 27 questions about writing, external and internal validity and statistical power of the manuscripts. Each domain has its own maximum score, and the sum of them generates a total score ranging from 0 to 32 points.

According to the literature (Fukuoka et al. 2010; Roberts et al. 2014), studies that reach scores above 50% of the maximum value have moderate methodological quality. Likewise, Willems et al. (2015) defined studies that scored equal to or greater than 19 points, reflecting two-thirds of the maximum achievable score, should be considered with high methodological quality.

Data extraction

Two researchers (NF and TSS) independently conducted all data extraction using standardized spreadsheets developed by the research group and previously tested at the beginning of the review, and when there was disagreement between them, a third researcher (ELC) was consulted to reach a consensus. The sample size was obtained from each study as well as means and ranges for population age and follow-up time. Regarding intervention characteristics, data were extracted from delivery agent, PA measurement strategy, number and types of groups, and the key findings. For quantitative analysis, the amount of physical activity measured in steps or minutes per day (mean and standard deviation) was extracted from each group.

Statistical analyses

Data were reported as mean difference (MD) and 95% confidence interval (CI). The use of mean differences ("difference in means") was based on the adequateness of this standard statistic when outcome measurements in all studies are made on the same scale. However, we reported subgroup analysis as standardized mean differences (SMD)

because studies measured the same outcome (physical activity), but across a variety of scales (e.g., minutes per week, steps per day, MET min per week). When a study had more than one intervention, the interventions were included in the analysis individually.

The Higgins I^2 statistic was calculated to estimate the statistical heterogeneity between the studies. Values above 75% and $p < 0.10$ were used to indicate high heterogeneity (Higgins et al. 2003). A random-effects model was conducted in the presence of high or low statistical heterogeneity for the between-interventions meta-analyses. The meta-analysis was conducted using Review Manager software (RevMan 5.3, Nordic Cochrane, Denmark). For all analyses, the significance level was set at $p < 0.05$. Furthermore, a subgroup analyses based on delivery methods and PA measurement strategies were conducted to identify their effect on PA promotion (DerSimonian and Laird 1986). Publication bias was assessed using Egger's test (Egger et al. 1997).

Results

Systematic review

We found 10,808 manuscripts in the databases, which were added to the library. After applying inclusion and exclusion criteria in titles and abstracts, 62 original articles were retained for the next step: reading the full text.

Characteristics of the intervention studies are included in the review as available Table 1 and electronic supplementary material. Among the 45 studies included in the systematic review, samples were composed of an median of 77 individuals, ranging from 20 (Duscha et al. 2018) to 32,229 (Mitchell et al. 2018) and with a mean age of 40.7 ± 14.4 years. The mean interventions' duration was $12.9 (\pm 11.4)$ weeks, and the most used delivery method was APP (69%).

Seventeen interventions were performed with healthy individuals (OHurling et al. 2007; Fjeldsoe et al. 2009; Cheung et al. 2012; Kirwan et al. 2012; Suggs et al. 2013; King et al. 2013; Maher et al. 2015; Thorsteinsen et al. 2014; Hebden et al. 2014; Blake et al. 2015; Naimark et al. 2015; Partridge et al. 2015; Rabbi et al. 2015; Cowdery et al. 2015; Rospo et al. 2016; Choi et al. 2016; Harries et al. 2016), and ten with participants diagnosed with any non-communicable chronic disease (Nguyen et al. 2009; Bond and Thomas 2015; Cadmus-Bertram et al. 2015; Hartman et al. 2016; Paul et al. 2016; Wang et al. 2016; Bender et al. 2017; Duscha et al. 2018; Ormel et al. 2018; Park et al. 2018).

Evaluation of manuscript quality

Concerning the qualitative evaluation of the studies added to the systematic review, the average score obtained by the Downs and Black scale was 23 ± 4 points (electronic supplementary material). The maximum score reached among the evaluated articles was 29 points (Glynn et al. 2014; Walsh et al. 2016). Also, 35 studies were added to this review and meta-analysis scored at least 19 points, presenting moderate or even high methodological quality. In addition, among the analyzed articles, 87% (41) were characterized as randomized clinical trials. Among these, the mean quality score was 24 ± 4 points, confirming the methodological quality expected in this type of study.

Any evidence of publication bias was not observed when APP-based ($p = 0.426$) and SMS-based ($p = 0.201$) interventions were analyzed. Indeed, when the studies were analyzed by outcome (minutes per week: $p = 0.051$; steps per day: $p = 0.257$), they also did not present statistically significant evidence of publication bias.

Meta-analysis

Among the 45 studies included in the systematic review, 89% (40) were included in quantitative analysis. From these, 54% (24) used a control group and 29% (13) utilized SMS as a form of intervention delivery.

Initially, the results presented that when compared to a control group, the smartphone-based interventions increase on average 12.02 min per day of PA in adults [CI (5.45–18.60); $p < 0.001$; $I^2 = 72\%$; Fig. 2a]. Regarding PA reported in steps per day, smartphone-based interventions lead to an average increase of 1999.59 steps per day [CI (1036.49–2962.69); $p < 0.001$; $I^2 = 88\%$; Fig. 2b]. Also, individuals in intervention groups had an average of 275.02 MET min per week higher than control groups [CI (48.90–501.14); $p = 0.02$; $I^2 = 84\%$; Fig. 2c].

Subgroup analysis was done based on delivery agent (i.e., SMS, APP) and physical activity measurement (i.e., questionnaire, pedometer, accelerometer) (Fig. 3). The analysis showed that studies based on APP use had a statistically positive effect on steps per day [SMD 0.18; CI (0.01–0.35); $p = 0.04$; $I^2 = 82\%$] and minutes per day [SMD 0.31; CI (0.01–0.60); $p = 0.04$; $I^2 = 96\%$]. Nevertheless, MET min per week [SMD 0.07; CI (– 0.59 to 0.74); $p = 0.83$; $I^2 = 96\%$] was significantly improved by interventions. Also, interventions that did not use any other form of feedback instead of APP achieved significant improvement in PA level in adults [SMD 0.36; CI (0.21–0.52); $p < 0.001$; $I^2 = 86\%$; electronic supplementary material].

Table 1 Characteristics of the intervention studies included in the review

Author	Country	Sample/age (mean \pm SD)	Physical activity measurement	Study duration/delivery agent	Conclusions
Abbaspoor et al. (2018)	Iran	100/28.4 \pm 3.6	Questionnaire	10 weeks/SMS	Intervention increased PA
Bender et al. (2017)	USA	45/58.0 \pm 10.0	Accelerometer	3 months/APP	Intervention increased PA
Blake et al. (2015)	UK	296/38.8 \pm 10.2	Questionnaire	12 weeks/SMS + e-mail	Intervention increased PA
Bond and Thomas (2015)	USA	30/47.5 \pm 13.5	Accelerometer-like motion sensor	3 weeks/APP	Intervention increased PA
Cadmus-Bertram et al. (2015)	USA	51/60 \pm 7.1	Accelerometer	16 weeks/Fitbit + calls	Intervention increased PA
Cheung et al. (2012)	China	88/35.4 \pm 11.6	Pedometer	12 weeks/SMS + pedometer	Intervention increased PA
Choi et al. (2016)	USA	35/33.7 \pm 2.6	Accelerometer; questionnaire	12 weeks/APP + SMS	Intervention not increased PA
Cowdery et al. (2015)	USA	40/median:32.0	Accelerometer; questionnaire	12 weeks/APP + e-mail	Intervention not increased PA
Dodd et al. (2018)	Australia	162/30.9 \pm 5.7	Questionnaire	36 weeks/APP	Intervention not increased PA
Duscha et al. (2018)	USA	20/69.4 \pm 8.4	Pedometer	12 week/APP + e-mail + calls	Intervention not increased PA
Fanning et al. (2012)	USA	116/41.4 \pm 7.6	Accelerometer	12 week/APP	Intervention increased PA
Fjeldsoe et al. (2009)	Australia	185/28 \pm 6	Questionnaire	12 weeks/SMS + calls	Intervention increased PA
Fukuoka et al. (2010)	USA	41/48	Pedometer	3 weeks/APP + Pedometer	Intervention increased PA
Garcia-Ortiz et al. (2018)	Spain	833/51.9 \pm 12.1	Accelerometer; Questionnaire	12 months/APP	Intervention not increased PA
Gilson et al. (2016)	Australia	44/51.9 \pm 12.1	Activity tracker	20 weeks/APP	Intervention not increased PA
Glynn et al. (2014)	Ireland	139/44.1 \pm 11.5	Pedometer	8 weeks/APP	Intervention increased PA
Harries et al. (2016)	USA	152/18–40	Questionnaire	6 week/APP	Intervention increased PA
Hartman et al. (2016)	USA	54/59.5 \pm 5.6	Accelerometer	6 weeks/APP + Calls	Intervention increased PA
Hebden et al. (2014)	Australia	51/22.9 \pm 4.6	Questionnaire; accelerometer	12 weeks/APP + SMS + E-mail	Intervention increased PA
Hurling et al. (2007)	UK	77/40.4 \pm 7.6	Questionnaire; accelerometer	9 weeks/APP + e-mail	Intervention increased PA
King et al. (2016)	USA	95/60.0 \pm 9.3	Accelerometer; questionnaire	8 weeks/APP	Intervention increased PA
Kirwan et al. (2012)	Australia	200/39.7 \pm 12.5	Pedometer	3 months/APP	Intervention not increased PA
Maher et al. (2015)	Australia	110/35.6 \pm 12.4	Pedometer; Questionnaire	8 weeks/APP + e-mail	Intervention increased PA
Mitchell et al. (2018)	Canada	32,229/ 33.7 \pm 11.6	Built-in smartphone accelerometer	12 weeks/APP	Intervention increased PA
Naimark et al. (2015)	Israel	85/47.9 \pm 12.3	Questionnaire	14 weeks/APP	Intervention increased PA
Nguyen et al. (2009)	USA	43/68 \pm 11	Accelerometer	6 weeks/SMS + calls	Intervention increased PA
Ormel et al. (2018)	Netherlands	32/33.6 \pm 11.2	Questionnaire	12 weeks/APP	Intervention increased PA

Table 1 (continued)

Author	Country	Sample/age (mean \pm SD)	Physical activity measurement	Study duration/delivery agent	Conclusions
Park et al. (2018)	South Korea	356/50.4 \pm 9.5	Questionnaire	12 week/APP	Intervention increased PA
Partridge et al. (2015)	Australia	250/27.7 \pm 4.9	Questionnaire	12 week/APP + SMS + e-mail + calls	Intervention increased PA
Paul et al. (2016)	UK	23/56.0 \pm 10.0	Accelerometer	6 weeks/APP	Intervention increased PA
Rabbi et al. (2015)	USA	17/28.3 \pm 6.9	Daily diary	3 weeks/APP	Intervention not increased PA
Recio-Rodriguez et al. (2016)	Spain	833/51.9 \pm 12.1	Accelerometer; questionnaire	3 months/APP	Intervention increased PA
Rospo et al. (2016)	USA	33/43.3	Pedometer	2 weeks/APP	Intervention increased PA
Sharma et al. (2017)	India	400/18–64	Questionnaire	12 months/SMS + calls	Intervention increased PA
Stephens et al. (2017)	USA	62/median: 20	Questionnaire	3 months/APP + SMS	Intervention not increased PA
Stuckey et al. (2011)	Canada	26/56.6 \pm 6.9	Pedometer	8 weeks/APP	Intervention increased PA
Suggs et al. (2013)	UK	158/39.5 \pm 11.8	Questionnaire	12 weeks/SMS + e-mail	Intervention decreased PA
Thorsteinsen et al. (2014)	Norway	21/55.3 \pm 11.2	Electronic form	12 weeks/SMS + <i>Web site</i>	Intervention not increased PA
van Drongelen et al. (2014)	Netherlands	502/40.9 \pm 8.4	Questionnaire	6 months/APP	Intervention increased PA
Walsh et al. (2016)	Ireland	55/20.5 \pm 2.1	App-in pedometer	5 weeks/APP	Intervention increased PA
Wang et al. (2016)	USA	67/48.2 \pm 11.7	Accelerometer	6 weeks/SMS + Fitbit	Intervention increased PA

Studies that used SMS service in direct communication with the sample did achieve a significant increase at PA informed in steps per day [SMD 0.34; CI (0.02–0.66); $p = 0.04$; $I^2 = 8\%$]. On the other hand, when the main outcome was reported in minutes per day, SMS-based interventions were not effective in promoting PA [SMD 0.42; CI (– 0.07 to 0.90); $p = 0.09$; $I^2 = 80\%$]. There were insufficient data available to perform meta-analysis with studies that used both SMS and APP as delivery agents.

Furthermore, studies that measured PA using questionnaires [SMD 0.47; CI (0.06–0.87); $p = 0.02$; $I^2 = 78\%$; minutes per day], pedometers [SMD 0.36; CI (0.18–0.54); $p < 0.001$; $I^2 = 0\%$; steps per day] and accelerometer [SMD 0.28; CI (0.01–0.55); $p = 0.04$; $I^2 = 87\%$; minutes per day] achieved statistical significance in relation to the program effect. However, interventions that measured PA by accelerometers did not significantly increase steps per day [0.12; CI (– 0.09 to 0.32); $p = 0.27$; $I^2 = 86\%$] in their sample (Fig. 4).

Discussion

Main findings

The main findings observed from this meta-analysis were that smartphone-based interventions focused on PA promotion are able to increase either minutes or steps per day in adults. Therefore, these results allow a preliminary view on the positive impact of these interventions, and considering the current scenario of physical inactivity as evidenced by Andersen et al. (2016), the study and discussion of this type of action become essential for a better improvement of quality of interventions in different cultural and economic contexts.

Possible explanations

Previously, Schoeppe et al. (2016) performed a systematic review on efficacy of interventions that use apps to improve diet, physical activity, and sedentary behavior. The authors highlighted the need for studies comparing the

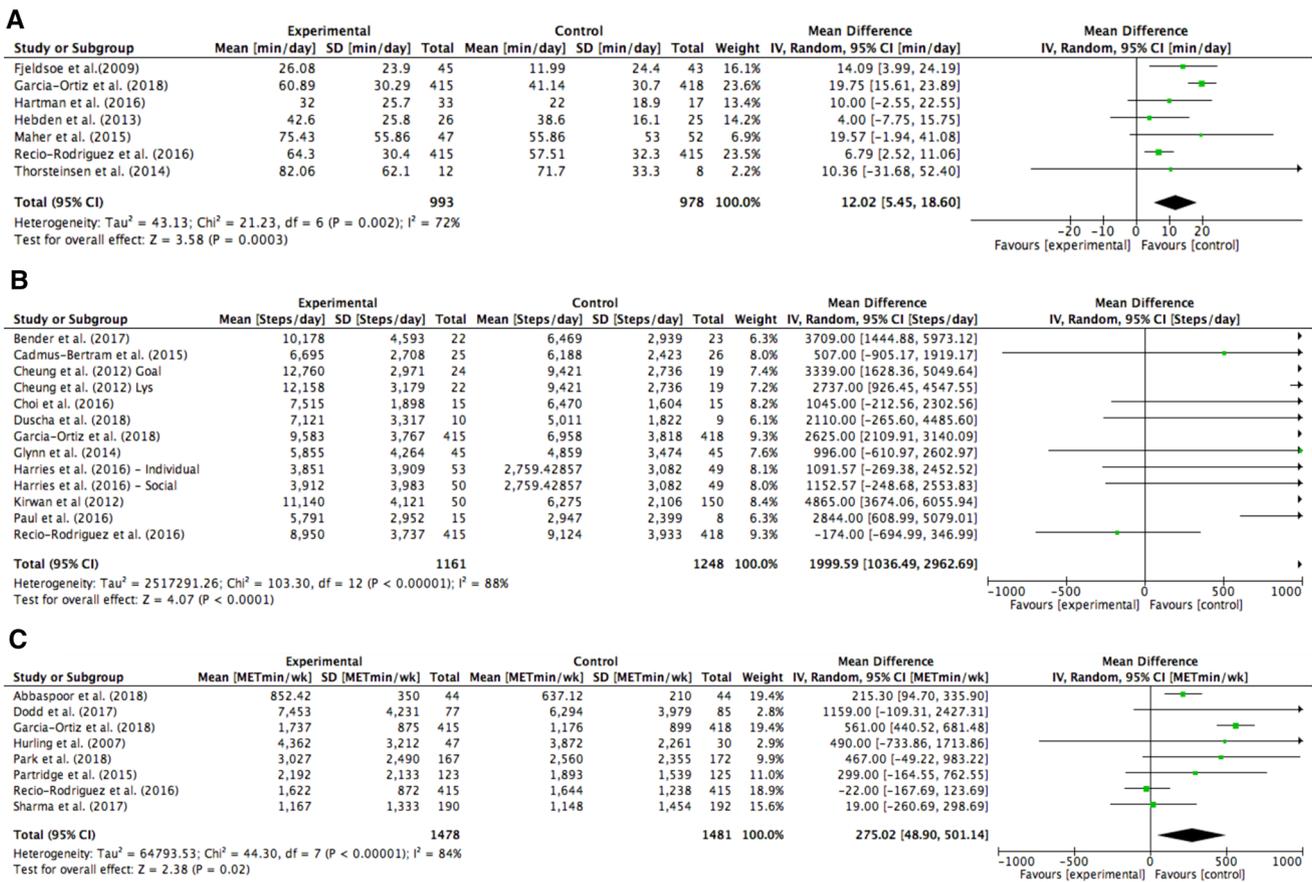


Fig. 2 Effect of smartphone-based interventions to promote physical activity in adults (age > 18 years). Values are expressed in minutes per week (a), steps per day (b), and metabolic equivalent of task per minute per week (c) compared to control group

efficacy of APP-only-based intervention with multi-component interventions that use apps in combination with other intervention strategies (e.g., calls, SMS). Here, we exposed that interventions using only an APP as delivery agent had a significant benefit on PA promotion; however, interventions that used APP plus calls, e-mails, or both did not achieve the same improvement.

In this way, the several studies included in this review sought to discuss the role that cell phones can play in daily routines, as well as to demonstrate their effects in regular PA practice in different populations. Also in this sense, Bort-Roig et al. (2014) sought to assess the feasibility of measuring PA through smartphones and discuss their influence in practice. The authors considered the use of this type of tool as a new field to be studied and also demonstrated a wide range of innovative intervention strategies to be used, emphasizing the potential that this technology has for promoting PA. One strength of mobile device use is the easy access to a variety of types of APP, with diverse functions.

The findings related in this review allow us to conclude that interventions using new communication technologies may be useful tools when it comes to promoting PA

practice. As stated by Harries et al. (2016), some minimal features made APP-based interventions effective in increasing PA level in adults: APP running automatically, low financial investment (no additional devices are needed), and promotion of engagement through simple curiosity. Being on continuously, APP measures walking inherent in PA practice that is not usually considered as ‘exercise.’ Besser and Dannenberg (2005) explained this curiosity provides encouragement to those who were not previously aware that day-to-day walking could be seen in this way.

When the studies that identified the effect of smartphone use as a tool for PA promotion (measured in minutes per day) were analyzed, this meta-analysis evidenced a positive effect [SMD: 0.599; CI (0.363–0.834); p < 0.001; I² = 23.0%]. Similar results can be found in the study conducted in the UK by Hurling et al. (2007), where authors observed an increase in 138 min per week in the PA level (p < 0.001) after 9 weeks of intervention based on PA practice through contact via an APP installed on participants’ smartphones. Similarly, Bond and Thomas (2015) in the USA found an increase in the level of light PA (p < 0.05) and moderate-to-vigorous PA (p < 0.01)

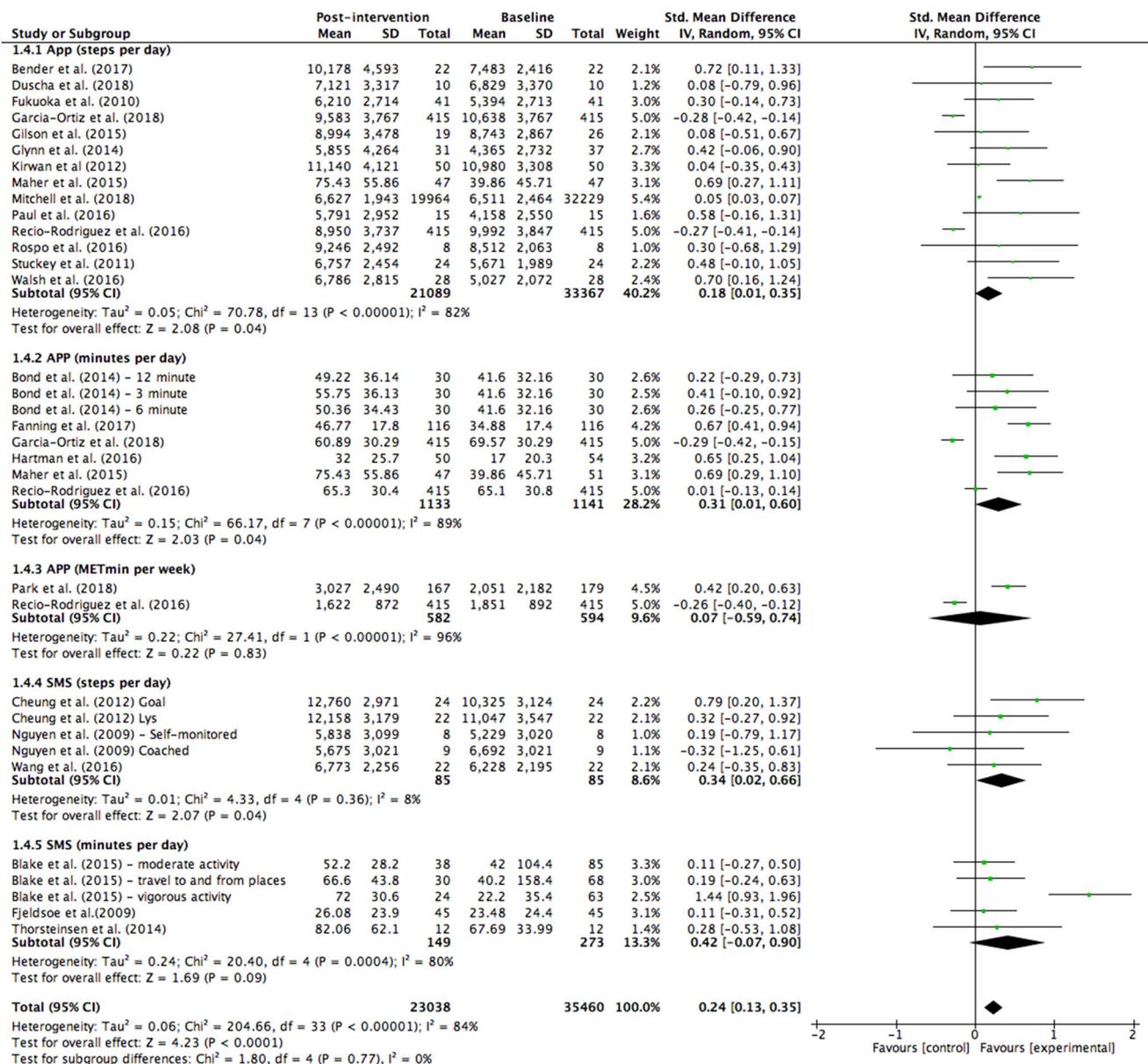


Fig. 3 Subgroup analysis based on delivery agents. Effect of smartphone-based interventions to promote physical activity in adults (age > 18 years)

compared to baseline values. In another case, a 12-week intervention in Norway by Thorsteinsen et al. (2014) used cell phones and SMS to assess the level of PA in healthy adults residing in that country and identified an increase in minutes of PA from week 1 (473.8) to the last week of the intervention (574.4).

When analyzing the data on steps per day, it was observed that the programs produced a positive effect in increasing PA among samples [0.238; CI (0.050–0.425); $p = 0.013$; $I^2 = 0.0\%$]. These results are in line with those observed by Fukuoka et al. (2010) who found that incentive messages delivered by an APP increased the participants' number of steps by 20%. At the end of the intervention

period, it was possible to verify an increase of approximately 800 steps per day ($p < 0.001$). Likewise, Wang et al. (2016) observed an augment of approximately 550 steps in subjects who made use of an application that sent key messages of support and incentive to PA practice. On the other hand, the study by Cheung et al. (2012) presented a rise of 1066 steps per day on average in individuals participating in a Hong Kong intervention that was basically based on sending SMS to support the practice of PA.

The findings in this review allow us to conclude that interventions using new communication technologies may be useful tools when it comes to promoting PA practice. Nonetheless, the effects observed so far still require more

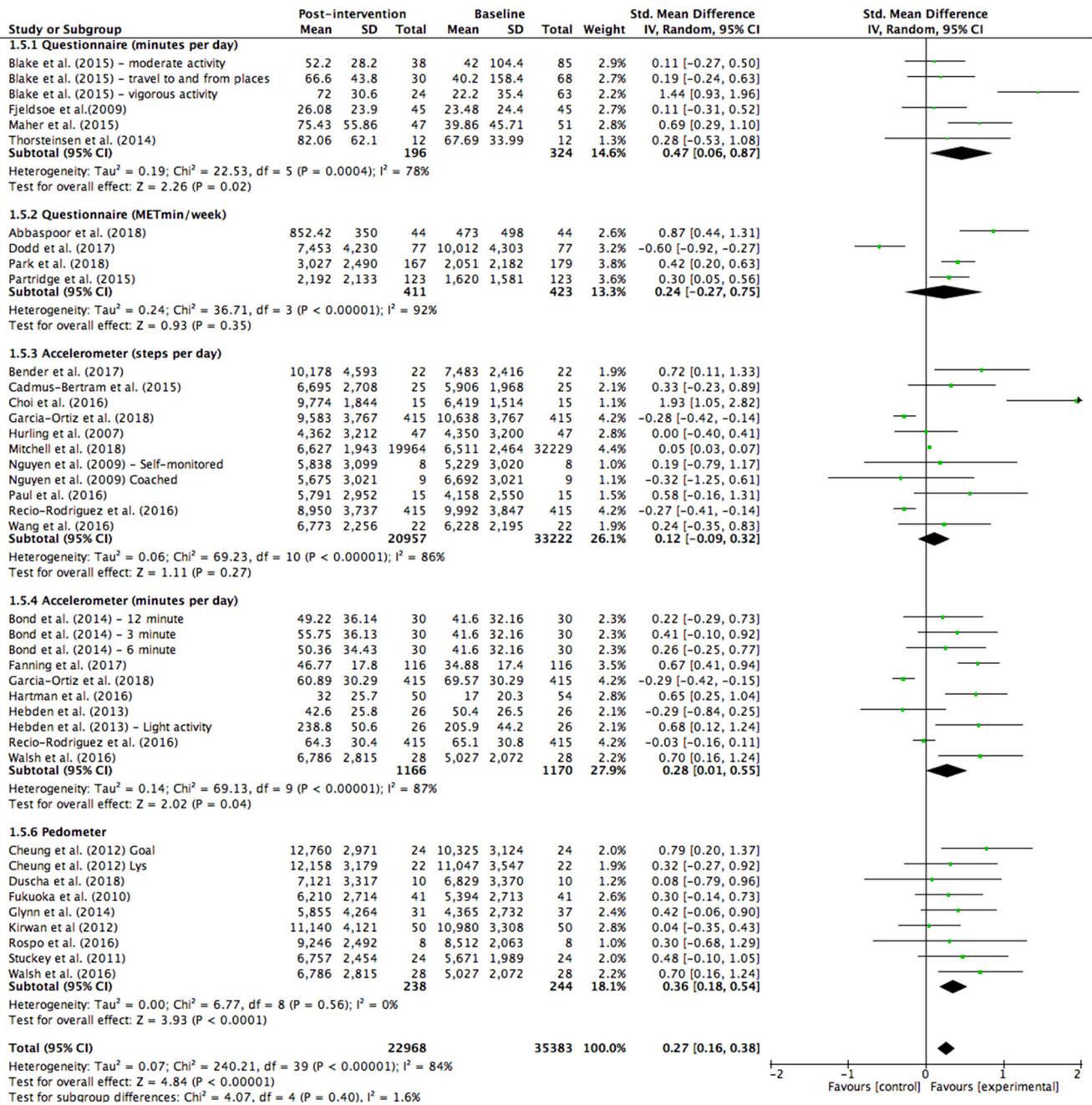


Fig. 4 Subgroup analysis based on instruments to measure physical activity. Effect of smartphone-based interventions to promote physical activity in adults (age > 18 years)

attention, mainly due to the fact that there is no such study in developing countries.

Limitations

The present findings may have been influenced by some limitations. First, only 27.7% of analyzed studies measured PA using accelerometers, which is accepted as an objective measurement. Nevertheless, interventions that adopted this

device to measure PA level also achieved statistical significance on PA promotion. Indeed, is it important to mention that when PA was reported in minutes per day, the interventions could lead to significant improvement in PA level, regardless of how it was measured (e.g., questionnaire, accelerometer).

Another point to be highlighted is the high heterogeneity among studies (I² ≥ 80%). One possible explanation is the large sample size range at analyzed studies (20–32,229

individuals) and different periods of intervention (2–54 weeks). These factors, allied with the sampling process of the population to be analyzed, could exert an important influence on the final effect of the interventions.

Regarding studies' quality, only one article (Cadmus-Bertram et al. (2015) that scored less than 19 points at Downs and Black scale was added in meta-analysis. In order to check its effect on our results, a secondary analysis without data from that intervention was conducted. The analysis reported it was significant change in overall effect of smartphone-based interventions on PA promotion in adults [2131.15; CI (1106.46–3155.83); $p < 0.001$; $I^2 = 89\%$; steps per day].

Also, our results are based on data available from different continents: Americas, Asia, Oceania, and Europe. When subgroup analysis was conducted based on those continents, we observed that there was a significant effect in all those regions (electronic supplementary material). It is important to mention there was no study conducted in Africa added in this review. Hallal et al. (2012) stated that 57.7(56.6–57.4)% of adults from this region reported walking for at least 10 min consecutively on 5 or more days per week. This prevalence is significantly lower compared to other regions, such as Americas, Eastern Mediterranean, Europe, and western Pacific. Then, low-cost interventions aiming to promote walking in this region should be strongly considered, especially when analyzing its cost-effectiveness.

In Ghana, Sarfo and colleagues did a two-arm cluster pilot randomized controlled trial of 60 stroke survivors to assess the feasibility and preliminary efficacy of using a Bluetooth device with a smartphone for monitoring and reporting blood pressure measurements and medication intake for 3 months (Sarfo et al. 2018). Control of systolic blood pressure (< 140 mm Hg) at 3 months was 66.7% in the intervention group and 46.7% in the control group ($p = 0.12$). The medication possession ratio, a measure of adherence to medications, was larger in the intervention group than in the control group.

On the other hand, the ease of carrying out this type of intervention is worth mentioning, given the low cost required for its implementation. As mentioned earlier, a large part of the world's population has access to cell phone devices, including smartphones, thus becoming viable in both high-income and developing countries. Nevertheless, 94% of studies included in the present review were conducted in developed countries. This reports the necessity already presented by Hallal et al. (2012) for a greater debate and elaboration of projects for this public health problem in the population of these countries. For Heath et al. (2012), since there are still disparities in the level of PA in subgroups of populations, public health professionals need to tailor policy and environmental

efforts and programs to promote opportunities for PA everywhere, with specific attention on initiatives in disadvantaged subgroups.

There is moderate- to high-quality evidence on literature that PA practice can be promoted through smartphone-based interventions, especially those using applications and SMS as delivery agents. Based on the results presented in this systematic review and meta-analysis and the widespread use of smartphones, mobiles, and wearable devices, public health professionals have to tailor policy and environmental efforts. This work is necessary in order to promote equal opportunities for PA practice, particularly in disadvantaged subgroups, and thereby reduce health inequality.

Compliance with ethical standards

Conflict of interest Authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Ethical approval This article does not contain any studies with human participants or animals performed by any of the authors.

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