

Chapter 03

Impact of Clinical Pilates on Satisfaction With Life of Women With Urinary Incontinence

Paula Clara Santos^{1,2,3*}, Sofia Lopes^{1,3,4}, Ricardo João Teixeira^{4,5,6}, Carla Macedo⁷, Rogério Azevedo⁸ and Cristina Mesquita^{1,3}

¹Department of Physiotherapy, Health School of Polytechnic Institute of Porto, Portugal

²Research Centre in Physical Activity, Health and Leisure, Faculty of Sport, University of Porto, Portugal

³Center for Research in Rehabilitation, Health School of Polytechnic Institute of Porto, Portugal

⁴CESPU, Institute of Research and Advanced Training in Health Sciences and Technologies, Portugal

⁵University of Aveiro, Department of Education and Psychology, Portugal

⁶Clínica da Ordem, Psychology Department, Portugal

⁷Hospital of Braga, Physiotherapy Department, Portugal

⁸Physiotherapy Department, Lusitânia Football Club of Lourosa, Portugal

***Corresponding Author:** Paula Clara Santos, Department of Physiotherapy, Health School of Polytechnic Institute of Porto, Portugal, Email: pcs@ess.ipp.pt

First Published **August 13, 2018**

Copyright: © 2018 Paula Clara Santos, et al.

This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source.

Abstract

The high prevalence of urinary incontinence is a problem of public health due to its physical, psychological, social and economic effects. It affects predominantly all age female gender and may influence satisfaction with life. Clinical Pilates has been studied in healthy subjects and seems to have positive effects on the psychological and general well-being. However, this method lacks evidence upon its effect on women with urinary incontinence. This study aims to assess the impact of a Clinical Pilates exercise-based program on the perception of contraction of pelvic floor muscles and in satisfaction with life of women with urinary incontinence. A quasi-experimental investigation has been carried out with a 60 women sample distributed by an Experimental Group (EG; n=30) and a Control Group (CG; n=30). Participants were aged ≥ 50 years, diagnosed with stress and mixed urinary incontinence, grade ≥ 3 in the Modified Oxford Grading Scale. EG performed 60 minutes classes of Clinical Pilates based exercises twice a week for ten weeks. CG had no intervention. Pelvic floor efficacy was assessed through Broome's Self-Efficacy Scale and satisfaction with life through Satisfaction with Life Scale. Descriptive statistics and the Inferential Statistics were used. The T-Student test, the Wilcoxon and the Mann-Whitney tests were used in case of abnormality with $\alpha = 0.05$). The results showed that the Clinical Pilates exercise-based program had positive effects on the contraction of pelvic floor muscles, total score [79(10.48) vs 35.9(11.44); $p < 0.001$] in both Broome's sub-scales, A [80.71(9.29) vs 35.36(18.57); $p < 0.001$] and B [77.6(11.06) vs 35.36(18.57); $p = 0.02$] and in satisfaction with life [24.00(8.00) vs 16.00 (8.00); $p < 0.001$]. In conclusion, Clinical Pilates has positively influenced participants' perception of pelvic floor muscles contraction and satisfaction with life.

Introduction

The increasing of the average life expectancy of female gender to 84 years, in Portugal, requires new behaviors, lifestyles, expectations and principles, demanding questions on the stereotyped social repre-

sentations, leading to reflect on the difference between standard and healthy aging. It is not aging itself, but the different aging ways [1]. Paúl and Ribeiro [2] describe aging as a process or a set of processes experienced by every living creatures, expressing itself through both the loss of adapting ability and the decreasing of functionality, being associated to countless changings impacting on population's mobility, autonomy and health.

By 2050, the older people will rise as well as some disfunctions like urinary incontinence (UI), associated to this demographic changing, and there will be a 55% women raising with UI [3]. The UI prevalence is a public health issue, with severe physical, psychological, social and economic consequences. The International Continence Society defines UI as any complaint of involuntary urine loss [4]. The current female/male incidence ratio is 2:1 and 200 million people worldwide suffer from it. In Europe, the percentage of women is 18 to 42%. In Portugal, 33.3% of women over 40 suffer from UI [3,5,6].

This dysfunction prevails most in female gender in all age groups, with menopause presenting a mild to moderate peak [6]. UI has a multifactorial etiology with the most common cause being pelvic floor muscles (PFM) dysfunction [7].

Different UI types are divided according their characteristics: 1) Stress Incontinence occurs due to the increase of the abdominal pressure and to the transitory inability of the urethral sphincter mechanism, resulting in involuntary leakage of urine on coughing, sneezing, laughing or on physical effort or exertion, often occurring on women aged between 45 and 65 [8]. Pelvic floor traumatism during pregnancy and delivery are suggested to be its main risk factors [9]; 2) Urge Incontinence is described as a detrusor hyperactivity resulting from involuntary bladder contractions [10]; 3) Mixed Incontinence is the combination of Urge Incontinence and Stress Incontinence symptoms, whose predominance can prevail over each other. Its origin is unknown, but some connection can exist between the detrusor hyperactivity and the sphincter incompetence, affecting social, psychological, occupational, domestic, physical and sexual life, triggering symptoms of depression, loneliness and anxiety [10-12].

To obtain a successful aging similar to Rowe and Kahn's model [13], people must have low risk of illness and inabilities, a healthy life-style, and keep an active social life. On the other hand, the WHO [1] defines active aging as a process to optimize opportunities to health, participation and security to potentiate well-being and quality of life (QoL) throughout aging.

Well-being has been developed into two distinct fields, one within the scope of adult's development and mental health – psychological well being– and another more connected to psychosocial aspects, to quality and satisfaction with life conditions and circumstances – subjective well being [14].

Satisfaction with Life (SL) is considered a subjective well being dimension, of cognitive origin, representing each individual's psychological evaluation about life [15]. It has been defined as a person's assessment on its very own life, supposing that its global nature becomes into a stable assessment and not completely dependent on the current person's emotional condition [16,17]. These dimensions display each one's feelings of satisfaction and happiness with itself, with its social and family attachments, with the past personal achievements and with the future expectations [18,19]. Therefore, it allows identifying how satisfied and happy an individual feels in different psychological domains and which are the psychological resources he manages: in the relationship with itself, with the others and the surrounding and its abilities to adapt [15].

Although UI is not considered a serious physical disease or directly affects people's lives, numerous psychological, social and economic problems are associated with it [20,21]. As mentioned, UI can be considered a public health problem due to its magnitude, the costs for the patient and society, and the consequences on QoL [22]. Although UI is not a life-threatening disease [23], the loss of urine implies a number of repercussions in adult women's QoL [24,25], emotional state, and sexual intercourse [26,27], which configures it a health psychology field of study as well.

UI limits the individual's lifestyle as it alters the way it judges itself, as it sees and perceives its body and how it interacts with it [28]. It is estimated that PFM exercises can reduce incontinence events in 95% [29]. They are recommended as a first-line treatment and considered as a non-invasive method without collateral effects [30]. Therefore, Clinical Pilates exercises could be used, consisting in a set of exercises adapted from those original of Pilates method, divided into several levels of difficulty to be applied into physical rehabilitation. It can be applied individually or in group, having in mind each person's problem [31]. Clinical Pilates exercises hold low intensity when compared to aerobic exercises. They include a breathing component, which has several advantages to aerobic capacity as well as to mental health, evidencing focus through the attention given to breathing [32].

Eight basic principles are essential to this intervention: breathing, focus, core, posture, alignment, light movements, accuracy, and control [33-35]. Abdominal and back muscles, together with the diaphragm and the pelvic floor frame a cylinder of supporting muscles. Hence, PFM are trained during exercise and movement [36]. Contraction of PFM during Pilates exercises opposes to the increasing of the intra-abdominal pressure effect caused by the exercise practice, thus preventing urine leakage and strengthening PFM [36]. Group exercises increase social interaction among participants, especially among subjects with similar health status. In fact, group exercises provide participants life experience exchanges, new friendship bonds and an increasing on well being, thus influencing positively their maintenance in the program and their social role [37].

Several authors reveal the ability of physiotherapeutic intervention based on Clinical Pilates exercises in healthy women, reporting its positive effects to both physical and psychosocial levels. However, scarce researches have been assessing the effect of this method in women with UI. Therefore, this chapter aims to present a study that assesses Clinical Pilates effects on the UI, and the ability of contraction of PFM, as well as the SL in women aged over 50 with Stress or Mixed UI.

Methods

Participants

A quasi-experimental research has been conducted with a non-randomized sample of 60 women aged over 50 and diagnosed with stress or mixed UI. The inclusion criteria were: presenting a score ≥ 3 in the Modified Oxford Grading Scale [38], presented below; ability to read and write and meeting clinical criteria to perform exercise. Women presenting cognitive impairments were excluded. The sample was divided into two groups: Experimental Group (EG) (n=30) and Control Group (CG) (n=30). EG performed sessions of Clinical Pilates twice a week for ten weeks. The CG did not perform any session. However, they had the opportunity to perform them at the end of the study. The Flowchart sample is presented in Figure 1.

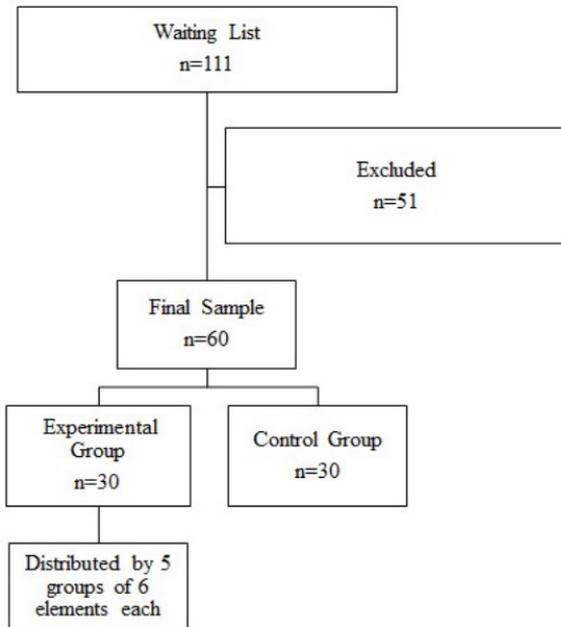


Figure 1: Flowchart sample.

Measures

Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS; Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, [39]). This is a 5-item scale designed to measure global cognitive judgments of one's life satisfaction. Participants indicate how much they agree or disagree with each of the 5 items using a 7-point scale that ranges from 7 ('strongly agree') to 1 ('strongly disagree'). A higher final score represents a greater Pearson's correlation with satisfaction with its own life. With a 30 to 35 score, the patient is 'extremely satisfied' with her life; between 25 and 29, 'very satisfied'; between 20 to 24, the patient is 'satisfied'; between 10 and 19, the patient is 'unsatisfied'; and from 5 to 9, 'extremely unsatisfied' with her life [40]. The SWLS is a valid and reliable measure of life satisfaction, suited for use with a wide range of age groups and applications [41]. Reliability showed good internal consistency with Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.78$ [42]. Data collection over the years has shown a 0.93 correlation for a 1-year interval, and a 0.91 correlation for a 4-year interval [43].

Broome Pelvic Muscle Exercise Self-Efficacy Scale (PMSES; Broome, [44]). This 23-item scale is divided into two subscales: efficacy expectations and outcome expectations. Part A is a 14-item subscale that examines efficacy expectations by asking subjects to respond to items illustrating a variety of situations. Participants are asked to indicate how confident they are in performing activities such as contracting pelvic muscles, performing pelvic muscle contractions while lying down, standing, and sitting. The Part B of the scale is a nine-item subscale that examines outcome expectations. In part B, subjects indicate their confidence that the activity (performance of PFM) will prevent unwanted urine loss. Some of the situations included in the scale are coughing, sneezing, laughing, and waiting in line for a restroom. Using a rating scale of 0 to 100, the subjects circle the number that best corresponds to their performance and belief that PFM will prevent unwanted urine loss in certain situations. Total scores for parts A and B are averaged for a total scale score. The higher

the score, the greater the person's perceived efficacy and outcome expectation. The range of scores are 0 to 32 (low self-efficacy), 33 to 66 (moderate self-efficacy), and above 66 (high self-efficacy). These ranges were based on the total possible score equally divided. The scores can then be used to assess a person's perceived efficacy expectation and outcome expectations. The PMSES has been adapted and validated for the Portuguese population by Branquinho, Marques, and Robalo [45], presenting high internal consistency ($\alpha = 0.92$) and good intraobserver reliability indices ($0.55 < r < 0.99$) [44,45].

Procedure

Data collection and the intervention have been conducted in Hospital of Braga, in Northern Portugal, Physiotherapy Department facilities, from, April to July 2016, within a controlled environment, provided by the administration to the head physiotherapist responsible for the class execution. After group distribution and before class EG attended a previous briefing for study introduction and objectives. Informed consent terms have been signed for participation and the initial assessment instruments filled in. Clinical Pilates and basic anatomy concepts have been explained taking into consideration all sessions' principles application. EG performed twice a week sessions with one hour duration for 10 weeks. The group was divided into five-element classes to strengthen the right supervision and exercise execution. Sessions were divided in accordance with women's skill improvement. Consequently, seven sessions have been performed with easy performance exercises, followed by seven sessions of moderate difficulty, and by five sessions of advanced difficulty. Sessions were also divided into three phases: warm-up, core, and stretching. Warm-up lasted seven minutes, core thirty minutes, and stretching eight minutes. CG was aware of study information and its participation in a first session. This group filled in the same assessment instruments, thus allowing future group characterization and comparison. CG had the opportunity to perform the exercises after the end of the investigation. Both groups have been reassessed after the 10 weeks.

Ethics

The study was submitted and approved by the Ethics Committee from Hospital of Braga (CESHB 006/2016). All participants participated voluntarily in the study and provided written informed consent according to the Helsinki's Declaration.

Statistics

Measures of central tendency have been used in the description and sample characterization, mean and median, as well as dispersion measures, such as standard deviation and interquartile range. For normality verification, the Shapiro-Wilk test was applied to age, body mass index (BMI), menopause, marital status, household, PMSES and SWLS. The parametric T-Student test was used for paired data, and applied to variables showing normal distribution, both to comparison before and after Clinical Pilates intervention, to CG and to independent variables (between groups). Nonparametric tests have been applied to variables showing a not normal distribution. Wilcoxon test for paired samples, as a comparison before and after Clinical Pilates or with no intervention. Mann-Whitney test was applied to independent samples between the two groups. All data have been collected and analysed through Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (version 23.0). Significance level was $p = 0.05$ (confidence interval 95%) [46].

Results

Sample Characterization of Socio Demographic Factors

Table 1 shows homogeneity between groups without statistically meaningful differences for age, BMI, menopause, marital status, and living with whom. Women in EG and CG are aged over 56 and in average are overweight (BMI > 25). Two thirds are in menopause and the majority live with the family.

Table 1: Characterization and analysis of socio-demographic factors.

	EG (n=30)	CG (n=30)	p value
Age (years) ^c	57 (7,0)	56 (12)	0,830
BMI (Kg/m ²) ^a	28 (5,26)	26,7 (3,70)	0,273
Menopause ^b	24 (80%)	22(73,3%)	0,761
Marital status ^b			
Married	25(83,3%)	22(73,3%)	0.771
Single	1(3,3%) 2(6,6%)	3(10%)	
Widow	2(6,6%)	2(6,6%)	
Divorced		3(10%)	
Household ^b			
Family	28 (93,3%)	24 (80%)	0,254
Alone	2 (6,7%)	6 (20,0%)	

Note. ^aMean and standard deviation; ^bnumber of participants presenting a determined and percentage; ^cMedian value and interquartile deviation.

Effect of Clinical Pilates on Women’s Belief with UI about Satisfaction with Life

At baseline (M0) no significant statistical differences have been found between groups in relation to SL perception ($p > 0.05$). After the 10-week intervention (M1) significant differences, $p < 0.001$, could be seen (cf. Table 2). After Clinical Pilates intervention, the EG has improved its belief in SL (20, 0 vs 24,0; $p > 0.01$). Nevertheless, the CG exhibited a tendency to a SL worsening, although no statistical meaningful differences have been found between the two assessment moments.

Table 2: Clinical Pilates effect on the subject’s belief on Satisfaction with Life.

		EG (n=30)	CG (n=30)	Intergroup intervention value (p)
Satisfaction with Life (SL) ^a	M0	20,0 ± 11,0	17,0 ± 10,0	0.085
	M1	24,0 ± 8,0	16,0 ± 8,0	< 0.001*
Intragroup intervention value (p)		< 0.001	0.020	

Note. ^aMedian value and interquartile deviation; M0 = baseline; M1 = 10 weeks after starting investigation. *highly significant $p < .001$.

Clinical Pilates Effect on Pelvic Floor Functionality

M0 (Table3) shows that groups are homogeneous in relation to PFM contraction self-efficacy ($p > 0.05$). Regarding the perception of pelvic floor functionality, both groups presented initial values (M0) between 33 and 66, which indicate moderate self-efficacy. At the end of the intervention, values obtained in the EG had been higher, above 66, indicating a high self-efficacy. Although values have been maintained between 33 and 66, the CG has shown a significant decreasing. Women in the CG worsened their condition, both in scale subdivision and in total score. The EG has shown a positive effect either in part A, which refers to the perception of PFM contraction without urine leakage during an activity, and in part B, referring the same perception in an activity preventing urine leakage.

Table 3: Clinical Pilates effect on the subject's belief on the PMSES.

PMSES		EG	CG	Intervention value (p)
Part A ^b (PFM contraction without urine leakage)	M0	43,9 ± 42,7	35,7 ± 20,2	0.329
	M1	80,7 ± 10,4	35,4 ± 19,1	< 0.001*
Intragroup Intervention value (p)		< 0.001	< 0.001	
Part B ^a (PFM contraction as urine leakage prevention)	M0	45,0 ± 22,1	35,9 ± 13,9	0.063
	M1	77,6 ± 11,1	33,9 ± 13,6	< 0.001*
Intragroup Intervention value (p)		< 0.001	0.002	
Final Score (Part A +Part B)	M0	46,7 ± 21,8	37,7 ± 11,6	0.051
	M1	79,0 ± 10,5	35,9 ± 11,4	< 0.001*
Intragroup Intervention value (p)		< 0.001	< 0.001	

Note. ^aMean value and standard deviation; ^bMedian value and interquartile deviation.
*highly significant $p < .001$.

Correlations between PMSES and SWLS

Table 4 shows the associations between SL and PFM self-efficacy (M1). They are closely connected therefore both scale gains are similar. These results can be seen both in the final score and in the different subscales.

Table 4: Pearson's correlation between SWLS and PFM self-efficacy, after Clinical Pilates.

		Part A Broome scale	Part B Broome scale	Total Broome scale
Total Satisfaction with Life	r	0.469	0.414	0.454
	p	< 0.001	0.001	< 0.001*

*highly significant $p < .001$

Discussion

At the end of the Clinical Pilates ten-week program the women improved their perception of SL, compared to those who have not participated. Therefore, this method contributed to their psychological and social well-being [47,48]. The women in the CG presented a worsening in the perception of SL during this period, which might be explained by the aggravating factors caused by this health condition. Cardoso and colleagues [49] sustain that there is a growing negative impact in the life of women with UI, and an increasing number of health problems associated to this condition, and also the escalating financial problems, either to the patients as well as to the health care services [49,50].

Self-efficacy on contracting PFM has shown that the exercise program based on Clinical Pilates in classes has been effective, raising self-efficacy levels on PFM contraction. These results are similar to the ones from Soares [51], who has shown that PFM voluntary contraction exercises, associated to Clinical Pilates, are key principles holding a lot of benefits, such as the improvement of perception and body awareness of pelvic floor, an increasing in vascularization, tonicity and PFM strength [51].

Clinical Pilates exercises have impacted effectively to raise women's self-efficacy on the perception of exercise, thus improving the confidence to contract PFM and diminishing the symptomatology associated to UI and SI. A better muscle performance is associated to Clinical Pilates exercises, by decreasing the probability of occurring

several physical problems, which appear with aging. Hay-Smith and colleagues [52] referred that patients with a good training would be able to maintain the habit of contracting these muscles during months [52,53]. The women who have not performed the exercise program worsened slightly their condition after the 10 weeks, which might be connected with UI natural progression, as physical inactivity harms negatively pelvic floor, diminishing muscle activation and with a consequent atrophy, thus decreasing its function [54].

The results of this research are similar to those of Boyle and colleagues [55], whose sample comprised 403 women, aiming to determine the training effects of PFM in women with UI, when compared to no training or treatment. It was concluded that PFM training exercises should be included in the UI treatment, due to their positive effects [55].

UI might lead to a discomfort in the social life through fear, shame and humiliation when leaking urine, which can drive these women to isolation [56], affecting their interpersonal relationship, emotions and well-being [57]. Clinical Pilates has influenced positively the way women perceive life, and Dumoulin and colleagues [58] sustain that PFM training is a golden-pattern for UI treatment, thus evidencing an “A” level. Conservative treatment, connected to pelvic floor re-education, and using educative measures, is an effective option [28].

Comparing the results obtained between the correlations between SL and the PMSES, it can be seen that they associate with each other. Anatomic-physiological and psychosocial gains also correlate. Clinical Pilates can lead to positive changes in lifestyle, having short and long-term health benefits. Evidence has been showing that a low physical activity level is a risk factor for non-transmissible chronic diseases and consequently poor QoL. A healthy lifestyle implies the habit of physical activity practice [59].

A study conducted by Joia, Ruiz, and Donalisio, [60] concluded that health and independence have been the main determinants of

happiness, which reinforce the perception of social and family relations. The authors also sustain that SL has been connected to the report of good family conditions and social relationships, and to the balance between objectives and fulfilments. Participants have shown themselves highly motivated during the intervention, showing interest in the method and availability to continue their participation. Patients also kept a visible interest in sharing information among them, thus creating a good atmosphere in all sessions. This is quite positive, once they concluded that the main determinant factor of perception of high SL is a steady social relationship, which is conditioned by UI [60].

Health professionals should pay attention to this condition at a prime and at a secondary phase, having in mind all the UI factors, so that transdisciplinary health teams can provide women with UI a friendly and warm care in physical, emotional and psychosocial aspects [61].

The current investigation presents as a main limitation a small sample size. Further studies are required to evaluate other psychosocial aspects connected with this health condition, as the current health model does not focus on health as the absence of illness, rather on a daily resource.

We have concluded that the exercises based on Clinical Pilates, performed in classes, improved the health condition of women with mixed incontinence or stress incontinence, influencing positively both their self-efficacy and SL. These exercises strengthen their daily routine and UI management by decreasing urine leakage. They also potentiate family and social lifestyle promoting SL in women with UI.

References

1. World Health Organization. Envelhecimento ativo: Uma política de saúde [Active ageing: a policy framework]. Brasília: Organização Pan-Americana da Saúde. 2005.
2. Paúl C, Ribeiro O. Manual de gerontologia [Manual of gerontology]. Lisboa: Climepsi. 2012.

3. Botelho F, Silva C, Cruz F. Incontinência urinária feminina [Female urinary incontinence], *Acta Urológica*. 2007; 24: 79-82.
4. Freitas E, Py L. Tratado de geriatria e gerontologia, 3ª edição [Treaty of geriatrics and gerontology, 3rd edn]. Rio de Janeiro: Guanabara Koogan. 2011.
5. Ferreira M, Santos P. Incontinência urinária de stress e fisioterapia [Urinary stress incontinence and physical therapy]. *Patient Care*. 2009; 66-70.
6. Faculdade de Medicina da Universidade do Porto. Prevalência e tratamento de incontinência urinária na população portuguesa não institucionalizada [Prevalence and treatment of urinary incontinence in the non-institutionalized Portuguese population]. Serviço de Higiene e Epidemiologia da Faculdade de Medicina da Universidade do Porto, Portugal. 2008.
7. Januário P. Análise comparativa de dois procedimentos de estimulação elétrica nueromuscular utilizados no tratamento da IU de esforço feminina [Comparative analysis of two nueromuscular electrical stimulation procedures used in the treatment of female UI]. Master's dissertation in Physiotherapy (unpublished). Postgraduate Program in Physiotherapy. Universidade Metodista de Piracicaba, Brazil. 2007.
8. Gray M, Moore K. Cuidados de enfermagem em urologia no adulto e na criança [Nursing care in urology in adults and children]. Loures: Lusociência. 2012.
9. Santos PC, Mendonça AD, Alves O, Barbosa AM. Prevalência e impacte da incontinência urinária de stress antes e durante a gravidez [Prevalence and impact of stress urinary incontinence before and during pregnancy]. *Acta Médica Portuguesa*. 2006; 19: 349-356.

10. Braunwald E, Fauci AS, Kasper DL, Hauser SL, Longo DL, et al. *Harrison Medicina Interna (17ª Edição)* [Harrison Internal Medicine (17th edn)]. Porto Alegre: Artmed. 2009.
11. Lisboa VF, Pedroso M. O impacto da incontinência urinária nos aspectos psicossociais e na atividade sexual feminina [The impact of urinary incontinence on psychosocial aspects and on female sexual activity]. *Revista de Enfermagem UNISA*. 2007; 8: 82-85.
12. Mello M. Repercussões Psicossociais e familiares na incontinência urinária feminina [Psychosocial and familial repercussions in female urinary incontinence]. Master's Dissertation (unpublished) presented to the Graduate Program in Family Health, Universidade Estácio de Sá, Brazil. 2010.
13. Rowe J, Kahn R. Successful aging. *The Gerontologist*. 1997; 37: 433-440.
14. Keyes CL, Shmotkin D, Ryff CD. Optimizing well-being: the empirical encounter of two traditions. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*. 2002; 82: 1007-1022.
15. Novo R. Para além da eudaimonia: O bem-estar psicológico em mulheres de idade adulta avançada [Beyond eudaimonia: The psychological well-being in women of advanced adulthood]. Coimbra: Dinalivro. 2003.
16. Galinha I. Bem-estar subjectivo: Factores cognitivos, afectivos e contextuais [Subjective well-being: Cognitive, affective and contextual factors]. Coimbra: Quarteto. 2008.
17. Pavot W, Diener E, Colvin C, Sandvik E. Further validation of the Satisfaction with Life Scale: Evidence for the cross-method convergence of well-being measures. *Journal of Personality Assessment*. 1991; 57: 149-161.
18. Keyes CL, Ryff CD. Generativity in adult lives: Social structural contours and quality of life consequences. In DP Mc-

- Adams, E de St. Aubin, editors. *Generativity and adult development: How and why we care for the next generation*. Washington: American Psychological Association. 1998; 227-263.
19. Ryff CD, Keyes CL. The structure of psychological well-being revisited. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*. 1995; 69: 719-727.
 20. Corcos J, Beaulieu S, Donovan J, Naughton M, Gotoh M. Quality assessment in men and women with urinary incontinence. *The Journal of Urology*. 2002; 168: 896-905.
 21. Lopes MH, Higa R. Restrições causadas pela incontinência urinária à vida da mulher [Constraints caused by urinary incontinence to women's lives]. *Revista da Escola de Enfermagem*. 2006; 40: 34-41.
 22. Azevedo AA. *Incontinência urinária: Impacto no feminino [Urinary incontinence: impact on the female]*. Coimbra: Formasau. 2004.
 23. Lazzeri M, Novara G. Urinary incontinence: Ensure that the patient's voice is heard. *European Urology*. 2008; 53: 1125-1128.
 24. Aslan G, Köseoğlu H, Sadik Ö, Gimen S, Cihan A, et al. Sexual function in women with urinary incontinence. *International Journal of Impotence Research*. 2005; 17: 248-251.
 25. Virkud A. Management of stress urinary incontinence. *Best Practice & Research Clinical Obstetrics and Gynaecology*. 2011; 25: 205-216.
 26. Kelleher C. Quality of life and urinary incontinence. *Baillière's Clinical Obstetrics and Gynaecology*. 2011; 14: 363-379.
 27. Saleh N, Bener A, Khenyab N, Al-Mansori Z, Muraikhi AA. Prevalence, awareness and determinants of health care-

- seeking behavior for urinary incontinence in Qatari women: A neglected problem?. *The European Menopause Journal*. 2005; 50: 58-65.
28. Honório M, Santos S. Incontinência urinária no envelhecimento: Impacto no cotidiano e na qualidade de vida [Urinary incontinence in aging: impact on daily life and quality of life]. *Revista Brasileira de Enfermagem*. 2009; 62: 51-56.
 29. Maciel A, Meira MA, Dias RC, Marques LM. Incontinência urinária [Urinary incontinence]. In: EN Moraes, editor. *Princípios básicos de geriatria e gerontologia [Basic principles of geriatrics and gerontology]*. Belo Horizonte: Coopmed. 2008; 423-437.
 30. Bø K, Sundgot-Borgen J. Are former female elite athletes more likely to experience urinary incontinence later in life than non-athletes? *Scandinavian Journal of Medicine & Science in Sports*. 2010; 20: 100-104.
 31. Instituto Português de Reumatologia . Pilates Clínico [Clinic Pilates]. 2013. Retrieved from: <http://www.ipr.pt/index.aspx?p=MenuPage&MenuId=236>.
 32. Küçük F, Livanelioglu A. Impact of the clinical Pilates exercises and verbal education on exercise beliefs and psychosocial factors in healthy women. *Journal of Physical Therapy Science*. 2015; 27: 3437-3443.
 33. Júnior MA, Costa LO, Fuhro FF, Manzoni AC, Oliveira NT, et al. Effectiveness of mat Pilates or equipment-based Pilates in patients with chronic non-specific low back pain: A protocol of a randomised controlled trial. *BMC Musculoskeletal Disorders*. 2013; 9: 16.
 34. Muscolino JE, Cipriani S. Pilates and the “powerhouse” - I. *Journal of Bodywork and Movement Therapies*. 2004; 8: 15-24.

35. Wells C, Kolt GS, Bialocerkowski A. Defining Pilates exercise: A systematic review. *Complementary Therapies in Medicine*. 2012; 20: 253-262.
36. Bø K, Herbert RD. There is not yet strong evidence that exercise regimens other than pelvic floor muscle training can reduce stress urinary incontinence in women: A systematic review. *Journal of Physiotherapy*. 2013; 59: 159-168.
37. Liu-Ambrose TY, Khan KM, Eng JJ, Lord SR, Lentle B, et al. Both resistance and agility training reduce back pain and improve health-related quality of life in older women with low bone mass. *Osteoporosis International*. 2005; 16: 1321-1329.
38. Laycock J, Jerwood D. Pelvic floor muscle assessment: The perfect scheme. *Physiotherapy*. 2001; 87: 631-642.
39. Diener E, Emmons RA, Larsen RJ, Griffin S. The Satisfaction With Life Scale. *Journal of Personality Assessment*. 1985; 49: 71-75.
40. Diener E. Understanding Scores on the Satisfaction with Life Scale. 2006. Retrieved from: <http://internal.psychology.illinois.edu/~ediener/SWLS.html>.
41. Sancho P, Galiana L, Gutierrez M, Francisco E, Tomás JM. Validating the Portuguese Version of the Satisfaction With Life Scale in an elderly Sample. *Social Indicators Research*. 2014; 115: 457-466.
42. Neto F, Barros JH, Barros A. Satisfação com a vida [Satisfaction with life]. In: L Almeida, R Santiago, P Silva, O Caetano, J. Marques, editors. *Acção educativa: Análise psico-social [Educational action: Psycho-social analysis]*. Leiria: ESEL/ APPORT. 1990; 105-117.
43. Diener E, Inglehart R, Tay L. Theory and validity of life satisfaction scales. *Social Indicators Research*. 2013; 112: 497-452.

44. Broome BA. Psychometric analysis of the Broome pelvic muscle self-efficacy scale in African-American women with incontinence. *Urologic Nursing*. 2001; 21: 289-297.
45. Branquinho N, Marques A, Robalo L. Contributo para a adaptação e validação do instrumento de medida “Escala de Auto-Eficácia de Broome” para exercícios da musculatura do pavimento pélvico [Contribution to the adaptation and validation of the “Broome Self-Efficacy Scale” measurement instrument for exercises of the pelvic floor muscle]. *ESSFISIONLINE*. 2007; 3: 3-13.
46. Marôco J. *Análise Estatística com o SPSS Statistics (6ª Edição)* [Statistical Analysis with SPSS Statistics (6th edn)]. Lisboa: ReportNumber. 2014.
47. Bø K, Kvarstein B, Nygaard I. Lower urinary tract symptoms and pelvic floor muscle exercise adherence after 15 years. *Obstetrics & Gynecology*. 2005; 105: 999-1005.
48. Hung HC, Hsiao SM, Chih SY, Lin HH, Tsao JY. Effect of pelvic-floor muscle strengthening on bladder neck mobility: A clinical trial. *Physical Therapy*. 2011; 91: 1030-1038.
49. Cardoso A, Cardoso M, Madureira S, Pereira D, Sabino A, et al. Desenvolvimento, implementação e avaliação de um programa de prevenção de incontinência urinária feminina – ensaio comunitário [Development, implementation and evaluation of a female urinary incontinence prevention program - community trial]. *ESSFISIONLINE*. 2009; 5: 4-17.
50. National Collaborating Centre for Women’s and Children’s Health (UK). *Urinary Incontinence, the management of Urinary Incontinence in women*. London: RCOG Press. 2006.
51. Soares, V.C. O método pilates e os seus efeitos em termos de auto-eficácia na musculatura do pavimento pélvico em

- mulheres com incontinência urinária de esforço [The pilates method and its effects in terms of self-efficacy in the pelvic floor musculature in women with stress urinary incontinence]. Master's Dissertation (unpublished), Universidade Técnica de Lisboa, Portugal. 2010.
52. Hay-Smith EJ, Bø Berghmans LC, Hendriks HJ, de Bie RA, van Waalwijk van Doorn ES. Pelvic floor muscle training for urinary incontinence in women. *The Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews*. 2003; 1: CD001407.
 53. Fozzatti M, Palma P, Herrmann V, Dambros M. Impacto da reeducação postural global no tratamento da incontinência urinária de esforço feminina [Impact of global postural reeducation in the treatment of female stress urinary incontinence]. *Revista da Associação Médica Brasileira*. 2008; 54: 17-22.
 54. Kisner C, Colby L. Exercícios terapêuticos: Fundamentos e técnicas [Therapeutic Exercises: Fundamentals and Techniques]. Barueri: Manole. 2009.
 55. Boyle R, Hay-Smith EJ, Cody JD, Mørkved S. Pelvic floor muscle training for prevention and treatment of urinary and faecal incontinence in antenatal and postnatal women. *The Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews*. 2012; 17: CD007471.
 56. Bogner HR, Gallo JJ, Sammel MD, Ford DE, Armenian HK, et al. Urinary incontinence and psychological distress in community-dwelling older adults. *Journal of American Geriatrics Society*. 2012; 50: 489-495.
 57. Lee JJ. The impact of urinary incontinence levels on the social lives of older Chinese in Hong Kong. *Hallym International Journal of Aging*. 2005; 7: 63-80.

58. Dumoulin C, Hay-Smith EJ, Mac Habée-Séguin G. Pelvic floor muscle training versus no treatment, or inactive control treatments, for urinary incontinence in women. *The Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews*. 2014; 14: CD005654.
59. Botogoski S, Lima S, Ribeiro P, Aoki T. Os Benefícios do exercício físico para mulheres após a menopausa [The benefits of physical activity for women after menopause]. *Arquivos Médicos Hospitais da Faculdade de Ciências Médicas da Santa Casa de São Paulo*. 2009; 54: 18-23.
60. Joia L, Ruiz T, Donalisio M. Condições associadas ao grau de satisfação com a vida entre a população de idosos [Life satisfaction among elderly population in the city of Botucatu, Southern Brazil]. *Revista de Saúde Pública*. 2007; 41: 131-138.
61. Pais-Ribeiro J. Metodologia de investigação em psicologia da saúde (1ª edição) [Methodology of research in health psychology (1st edn)]. Porto: Legis Editora. 2007.