

## Advancing models and theories for digital behavior change interventions

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## 1 Abstract

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2 To be suitable for informing digital behavior change interventions (DBCIs), theories and models  
3 of behavior change need to capture individual variation and changes over time. The aim of this  
4 paper is to provide recommendations for development of models and theories that are informed  
5 by, and can inform, DBCIs based on discussions by international experts, including behavioral,  
6 computer, and health scientists and engineers. The proposed framework stipulates the use of a  
7 state-space representation to define when, where, for whom, and in what state for that person, an  
8 intervention will produce a targeted effect. The “state” is that of the individual based on multiple  
9 variables that define the “space” when a mechanism of action may produce the effect. A state-  
10 space representation can be used to help guide theorizing and identify cross-disciplinary  
11 methodological strategies for improving measurement, experimental design and analysis that can  
12 feasibly match the complexity of real-world behavior change via DBCIs.

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## 21 Introduction

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22 A central task in science is the development and refinement of theories. A cross-disciplinary  
23 consensus definition of theory is “... a set of concepts and/or statements which specify how  
24 phenomena relate to each other. Theory provides an organizing description of a system that  
25 accounts for what is known, and explains and predicts phenomena.”<sup>1</sup> For health behavior change,  
26 theories provide a mechanism to encapsulate previous knowledge about how variations in causal  
27 factor(s) (e.g. an intervention) produce a desired effect (e.g. behavior change). Theory is useful  
28 because it provides explanations and predictions that support the generalization of findings from  
29 past work into future areas of inquiry and/or use.<sup>2,3</sup>

30  
31 Theories of behavior change have been highly variable in the extent to which they achieve these  
32 goals.<sup>2</sup> A review of behavior change theories with strict definitions of theory and behavior  
33 identified 83 theories.<sup>4,5</sup> Of these, only three were judged to be comprehensive within their scope  
34 and there was generally poor specification, both in construct definitions and in the relationships  
35 between them. Further, most behavioral theories emphasized group-level and largely static  
36 generalization, meaning the theory supports explanations and predictions about average changes  
37 in outcomes in groups.<sup>6</sup> Theory also has the potential to generate insights for specific individuals.  
38 Ideally, a good theory will provide both group-level and individual-level generalizations.<sup>7-9</sup>

39  
40 As described elsewhere,<sup>10</sup> digital behavior change interventions (DBCIs) are interventions that  
41 employ digital technologies to encourage and support behavior change that will promote and  
42 maintain health, through primary or secondary prevention and management of health problems.  
43 Theories are key to effectively personalizing DBCIs.<sup>11</sup> DBCIs facilitate health promotion by

44 providing support in the “real-world” to change specific behaviors in specific contexts and are  
45 used by individuals.<sup>12</sup> They increasingly use information about a person to adapt provision of  
46 support to the unique and often changing needs of the individual. One class of DBCIs is the  
47 “just-in-time” adaptive intervention (JITAI).<sup>13</sup> A JITAI provides support to a person during just-  
48 in-time states when a person has the opportunity to engage in a healthy behavior (or vulnerability  
49 to a negative behavior) and is receptive to support.<sup>14</sup> JITAIs and DBCIs more generally require  
50 theories that take into account variations in individual characteristics and contexts and recognize  
51 that these variations in the individual and context will change over time.<sup>15</sup> Current behavioral  
52 theories provide only limited insights for this type of intervention<sup>11</sup> but are needed to manage the  
53 inherent complexity of real-world behavior change.

54

55 The aim of this paper is to provide recommendations for supporting the development of models  
56 and theories that are informed by, and can inform, DBCIs. The term “model” is used for a variety  
57 of purposes but in general, models are sets of concepts and/or statements that specify how  
58 constructs relate to each other to represent aspects of the world and can be precise and quantified  
59 or imprecise and qualitative.<sup>16</sup> Theories are types of models that seek to explain phenomena that  
60 often invoke unobserved constructs to achieve this.<sup>16</sup> Well-specified computational models,  
61 defined below, may be particularly useful for achieving the promise of highly personalized and  
62 precise DBCIs such as JITAIs.<sup>6</sup> However, imprecisely specified models and theories can be  
63 useful. For example, a theory that stipulates that a construct such as ‘core identity’ is an  
64 important driver of behavior can be useful in designing an intervention that seeks to change this  
65 in order, for example, to promote reduction in alcohol use. A great deal of work has already been  
66 done to advance strategies to use these more imprecise models and theories for intervention

67 development.<sup>17</sup> Thus the focus of this paper is on development of precise, quantifiable  
68 computational models as they are particularly relevant for DBCIs but also because the  
69 specifications targets of computational models can support more careful theorizing even with  
70 imprecise models and theories.

71

72 Building on previous work,<sup>1, 5, 6, 11, 14, 15, 18-24</sup> this paper: (i) specify differences between broadly  
73 specified theories vs. highly specified computational models that may be required for developing  
74 precise DBCIs; (ii) state the case for more specific theorizing and testing on when, where, for  
75 whom, and in what state of the person a mechanism of action will produce an effect<sup>23</sup>, by  
76 proposing the concept of “multidimensional generalization space,” which specifies a set of  
77 dimensions along which contextual factors may vary to influence the size of effect of an  
78 intervention. Examples of such dimensions are aspects of target population and intervention  
79 setting. Any given context can be specified as a point in that space; and (iii) suggest cross-  
80 disciplinary methods to facilitate advancing the concept of multidimensional generalization  
81 space for DBCIs.

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### 83 [Specification requirements for theories vs. computational models](#)

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84

85 The differences between theories vs. computational models are related to the level of  
86 specification. Ideally, behavioral theories provide good specification of model structure and clear  
87 predictions about directionality and anticipated magnitudes of effects of a mechanism of action  
88 on an outcome. Model structure means clear specification of constructs and how constructs  
89 interact with one another such as main effect relationships (i.e., self-efficacy is associated with

90 behavior), moderation effects (i.e., the relationship between self-efficacy and behavior is  
91 moderated by self-regulatory skills), and mediation effects (i.e., the relationship between an  
92 intervention and behavior occurs via self-efficacy).<sup>25</sup> These model structures are often visually  
93 described via path diagrams and are analyzed by techniques such as structural equation  
94 modeling.<sup>25-27</sup> They may be tested by statistical estimation of effect sizes, which define the  
95 amount of variance statistically explained from an outcome variable by the predictor variable  
96 including specification of if there is a relationship, directionality, magnitude, and confidence in  
97 the relationship. For example, in one-meta-analysis, the mechanism of action of “teach to use  
98 prompts/cues,” which is relevant to several theories,<sup>28</sup> had an effect size estimate of  $d=.52$  for  
99 influencing physical activity.<sup>29</sup>

100

101 INSERT TABLE 1 HERE

102

103 Within computational models, model structure and predictions about directionality and  
104 anticipated magnitudes of effects must be specified and thus, computational models can be  
105 conceptually seeded with well-validated theories. Computational models, however, require  
106 greater specification of the following two issues. The first is the dynamics of a relationship. This  
107 includes: (i) the anticipated timescale of an effect (i.e., amount of time when a meaningful  
108 change in a construct occurs, such as within seconds for heart rate and across years for the built  
109 environment);<sup>6, 14</sup> (ii) response patterns (i.e., the shape of a relationship, such as linear  
110 relationships or more dynamic step response options, such as feedback loops, see examples  
111 here<sup>19</sup>), (iii) latency (i.e., the amount of time when one variable changes before observing change  
112 in the other) and (iv) decay (i.e., the amount of time it takes for an effect to dissipate, see operant

113 learning theory for examples<sup>30, 31</sup>)<sup>6</sup>. For example, social cognitive theory predicts a reciprocal  
114 relationship between self-efficacy and behavior.<sup>25</sup> As one goes up or down, the other goes up or  
115 down. Social cognitive theory does not provide clear specification on timescale (e.g., does self-  
116 efficacy change by the minute, hour, or day, etc.?) latency (e.g., does a change in self-efficacy  
117 immediately increase walking?), or decay (e.g., does the strength of the relationship between  
118 self-efficacy and walking diminish over time?) but these can be specified.<sup>25</sup> The second issue to  
119 be specified is the multidimensional generalization space, which, again, specifies dimensions  
120 along which contextual factors may vary to influence the size of effect of an intervention. Thus, a  
121 core difference is not only the specification on IF there is a relationship, but also HOW that  
122 relationship functions over time and in context.<sup>19</sup> Please see other work for careful discussion  
123 about the issues of dynamics,<sup>6, 11, 14, 19, 25</sup> as an essential element of computational models.

124

125 Rothman<sup>23</sup> and many others before have argued for the need for specification of when, where,  
126 and for whom a mechanism of action will produce a targeted effect through moderation testing.  
127 The argument is that behavioral theories, and by extension the development of theory-driven  
128 interventions, will become more precise if attention is placed on defining when, where, and for  
129 whom an intervention will and will NOT produce an effect. This argument is extended to the  
130 realm of DBCIs, which, as discussed already, are used in the real-world context where behaviors  
131 occur. Since DBCIs are used in a real-world context, it implies the need for not only  
132 understanding when, where, and for whom an intervention will produce an effect but also a clear  
133 understanding of the state of the person, thus implying the need for a state-space representation  
134 and the concept of a multidimensional generalization space.

135 [A state-space representation for theorizing about multidimensional generalization space](#)

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136  
137 Multidimensional generalization spaces can be conceptualized using a state-space representation.  
138 Specifically, it is assumed that a participant's state can be represented in a multidimensional state  
139 space defined by variables that could feasibly impact the probability that an intervention will  
140 produce a desired effect such as self-efficacy or self-regulatory skills. The point that represents an  
141 individual's current state is moving in accordance with the state-space transitions as predicted by  
142 different mathematical models such as a dynamical model of social cognitive theory.<sup>25</sup>

143  
144 Given the instantaneous state of the individual, her response can be characterized for any given  
145 intervention as the probability of the desired behavior. For simplicity, assume all other variables  
146 are constant but one (an unrealistic assumption but useful for demonstration). Based on that  
147 variable, differing probabilities are expected of the outcome occurring for two different  
148 interventions, A and B (Figure 1).

149  
150 INSERT FIGURE 1 HERE

151  
152 Theories of behavior change are not that simple and instead are based on the premise that  
153 individual, social, and environmental characteristics will change dynamically and interact to  
154 cause behavior change. For example, a cue to action to go for a walk (e.g., a text message saying,  
155 "Want to go for a walk?") could only inspire a walk if the state-space of the person is  
156 appropriately receptive to this intervention. For example, Figure 2 is a plausible example of a  
157 multidimensional generalization space defined via three variables. The probability that a person  
158 goes for a walk increases if another person interested in walking is present (others present=yes),



159 if the person has a high overall opportunity to walk (>5 on a 0-10 scale), and if they are not  
160 stressed (e.g., <5 on a 0-10 scale).

161

162 INSERT FIGURE 2 HERE

163

164 This multidimensional generalization space is relevant for less time-intensive interventions. For  
165 example, a doctor-delivered motivational intervention to facilitate increased physical activity  
166 with a patient might only produce behavior change when the patient is sufficiently aware of the  
167 health risks of physical inactivity, is awake enough to engage in the interaction, and can fit in  
168 physical activity.

169

170 Theorizing about multidimensional generalization spaces for DBCIs are important for  
171 understanding concepts such as “teachable moments”<sup>30</sup> and “just-in-time.”<sup>14</sup> A teachable  
172 moment, defined as events or circumstances that can lead a person to positive change, is widely  
173 referred to but has received little rigorous testing.<sup>30</sup> DBCIs enable theoretical thinking and  
174 testing, for example when defining just-in-time states of opportunity and receptivity to an  
175 intervention.<sup>14</sup> A person may have the opportunity to plan exercises for the week after dinner and  
176 right after putting her children to bed and be receptive to a small notification to do this planning  
177 from her smartphone when in that particular state. It is a plausible hypothesis that DBCIs will be  
178 more potent if they can be provided during these just-in-time states. Defining the  
179 multidimensional generalization space on when a mechanism of action will produce an effect  
180 will enable more rigorous testing of the teachable moment and just-in-time concepts, which has  
181 the potential to lead to more precise and potent DBCIs.

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183 

## Methodological strategies for advancing multidimensional generalization space

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### Measurement

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185 A pre-condition of multidimensional generalization spaces for DBCIs is robust measurement  
186 strategies that can assess theoretical constructs in context, at the appropriate timescale, and with  
187 minimal burden to ensure continued data collection over time. Effective measurement of  
188 constructs is no small task but is key as it defines the level of precision that can be achieved  
189 within DBCIs. There are at least three areas that would advance measurement.

190

191 First, individuals that use digital technologies such as smartphones, computers, websites, and  
192 social media have a wide range of data gathered about them (e.g., all interactions a person has  
193 via email). These data or “digital traces” are aggregated, connected, and organized and can be  
194 used for a variety of purposes such as highly targeted recommendations<sup>31</sup> (e.g., if you like this  
195 movie than you will like this one), or inferring psychological characteristics, such as  
196 personality.<sup>32, 33</sup> If individuals gain access to their own digital traces, these data could be used to  
197 infer multidimensional generalization spaces.<sup>34</sup> The use of digital traces can best be supported  
198 through strategies from computer science broadly labeled “machine learning.”<sup>35</sup> The field of  
199 pervasive/ubiquitous computing, which studies the incorporation of computing capacity into  
200 everyday objects, provides insights from the “noise” of a digital trace, for example identifying  
201 meaningful patterns of breathing rates of individuals by translating small variations in the radio  
202 frequency signals sent and received from a WiFi hotspot (originally thought of as noise).<sup>36</sup>

203

204 Second, there are important opportunities for developing ecologically valid sensors<sup>37, 38</sup> such as  
205 “wearables,” which include fitness and stress tracking devices sensing and inferring target  
206 behaviors in context.<sup>37</sup> These wearable technologies can enable increased measurement of real-  
207 world activities occurring in context, such as physical activity.

208

209 For constructs that cannot be measured directly (e.g., cognitions, perceptions), user-friendly  
210 strategies for measuring them in context are needed, with good progress being made in devising  
211 more advanced ecological momentary assessment (EMA) techniques.<sup>39</sup> For example, researchers  
212 are using “context-sensitive” EMA that utilizes sensors to infer the moments when it would be  
213 appropriate to ask for more detailed questions.<sup>18, 40</sup> This type of work represents a logical path  
214 forward for EMA. These latent constructs are important to measure. For example,  
215 multidimensional generalization spaces should likely include the expected value of that action,  
216 which for an individual would include both the likelihood of the intended effect and the value (both  
217 cost and benefit) of the outcome.

218

219 As these measurement targets increasingly advance, they enable increased precision in the  
220 development of DBCIs that can be delivered efficiently when needed. Measurement alone  
221 cannot achieve this: advanced research methods and analytic strategies are also required.

222

## 223 [Experimental Designs & Analytic Strategies](#)

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224

225 Strategies inspired by both engineering and computer science can provide a logical empirical  
226 foundation for defining multidimensional generalization spaces for DBCIs. In engineering,

227 methods from system identification<sup>41</sup> present approaches to experimental design in behavioral  
228 intervention settings that are particularly useful for accomplishing the modeling of individual  
229 behavior and, by extension, can be supportive of multidimensional generalization spaces.

230 System identification is an analytical technique that specifies the dynamic relationships between  
231 manipulated inputs (i.e., intervention components like goal-setting), disturbance variables (i.e.,  
232 time-varying covariates that influence the outcome such as weather), endogenous state variables  
233 and outputs (i.e., behavioral outcomes such as steps) within a single-case, time-series context.

234 The most common identification techniques apply strategies that build on the logic of regression  
235 in that they find solutions by minimizing squared errors. Methods from system identification are  
236 used extensively in practical engineering settings as a means for obtaining dynamical models that  
237 can be used in optimization strategies, such as model predictive control, to develop frameworks  
238 that support dynamic decision making, such as selection of a particular intervention option for a  
239 particular just-in-time state.<sup>42, 43</sup> Comprehensive system identification methodologies provide  
240 guidance regarding experimental design, model structure selection, parameter estimation for  
241 defining the dynamics, and validation of these idiographic models (e.g., a system identification  
242 experiment for physical activity<sup>44, 45</sup>). This type of system identification experiment provides  
243 great opportunities for the empirical study of multidimensional generalization spaces.

244

245 Inspired by computer science, experimental design and analytic approaches have been developed  
246 for a “micro-randomization” trial, which is also a useful experimental design for the study of  
247 multidimensional generalization spaces.<sup>20</sup> The micro-randomization trial is a sequential factorial  
248 design that randomizes delivery/no delivery of an intervention at “decision points” when it is

249 plausible that the intervention would be valuable.<sup>20</sup> For example, every morning could be  
250 randomly assigned to delivering an intervention to help a person plan for that day. This approach  
251 supports empirically examining “time-varying moderation,” which examines how factors that  
252 vary over time like context or stress, can moderate the efficacy of an intervention. This can  
253 answer questions like: “was the intervention only efficacious when a person was not stressed and  
254 at home?”. This approach, which melds insights from computer science and statistics, provides  
255 appropriate data for examining multidimensional generalization spaces via time-varying  
256 moderation.<sup>14</sup>

257

## 258 [Future work](#)

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259 There are four important opportunities for moving forward as a field. First, there should be  
260 increased movement towards theories and models that are as precise, quantitative and testable as  
261 possible for describing the complexity of behavior change. Incremental advances towards  
262 precision can occur via specifying model structures, defining directionality and magnitude of  
263 relationships, dynamics, and multidimensional generalization spaces.

264

265 Second, the inherent complexity of behavior change implies that no one research group is likely  
266 to, alone, fully understand or model a phenomenon, particularly the multidimensional  
267 generalization spaces of an intervention, as this requires considerable resources. This points to  
268 the desirability of, and need for, collaborative research consortia. It also points to the need for  
269 the development of ontologies for understanding behavior as they provide a coherent structure  
270 for organizing and sharing insights across disparate research efforts. In brief, an ontology, as

271 defined by the informatics tradition, is a highly structured description of terms/constructs and  
272 their inter-relationships.<sup>46</sup> A key focus of ontological work is to facilitate careful selection and  
273 definition of terms, such as behavior change techniques<sup>47</sup> and mechanisms of action, and the  
274 proposed relationships between them. This type of work is essential to ensure scientists are  
275 studying the same concepts and thus will be critical for the study of multidimensional  
276 generalization spaces, as they will enable separate research efforts to be combined into more  
277 robust theories and computational models.

278

279 Third is the importance of thinking of theories and computational models in integrated rather  
280 than siloed fashion, leading to collaboratively developed and evaluated theoretically-based  
281 intervention modules.<sup>15</sup> The study of human behavior involves careful understanding of under  
282 what conditions a mechanism of action will produce an effect. Behavioral theories are often  
283 treated as if they were generally true rather than specified well-enough to define when they  
284 would and would not be useful for understanding a target phenomenon.<sup>23</sup> It is essential for  
285 advancing behavioral science not only to focus on building computational models but also on the  
286 development of these models and behavioral theories more generally in a collective mindset  
287 where each group of scientists are clearly specifying when a theory/model will and will not be  
288 useful. Theorizing about multidimensional generalization spaces is a logical target for supporting  
289 advancement in this area.

290

291 Fourth, far greater work is required in the development of models that take into account  
292 changes over time that occur at an N=1 or idiographic level.<sup>8,9</sup> As discussed elsewhere,<sup>9</sup>  
293 statistical analyses conducted within behavioral science tend to focus on an aggregation of data

294 across individuals. For example, mixed model analyses<sup>48</sup> parse variance to different “levels”  
295 such as distinguishing between-person and within-person variance explained for a target  
296 outcome. Between-person involves those factors that vary across individuals that are predictive  
297 of the outcome, such as differences in age, gender, or personality. Within-person factors (which  
298 is a misnomer) focuses on how variations in predictor variables (e.g., daily variations in self-  
299 efficacy) on average across individuals, are related to daily variations in an outcome measure of  
300 interest (e.g., daily variations in walking).<sup>49</sup> In mixed model analyses, variations in factors that  
301 are specific to each individual (i.e.,  $N=1$ ) are incorporated into the error terms and not the focus  
302 of modeling.<sup>48</sup> The focus of idiographic modeling, such as system identification,<sup>50</sup> attempts to  
303 generate highly specified models that describe how factors relate to one another for a specific  
304 individual. Put differently, variations that are currently in the error term in mixed model analyses  
305 are the core focus of idiographic modeling. This level of analysis is an essential target as it is at  
306 this level that personalized predictions and decisions for a specific individual will occur.  
307 Idiographic models are particularly well suited for temporally dense time series data, which are  
308 increasingly available with DBCIs.<sup>22, 27</sup> Based on this, more careful modeling of  $N=1$   
309 understanding of behavior<sup>8, 9</sup> is warranted and system identification is one logical approach.

310

## 311 Conclusions and Next Steps

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312

313 DBCIs require theories and models of behavior change that capture and take into account  
314 individual variation and changes over time. There is a need for clear specification of facets of  
315 theories and models including model structure, directionality and magnitudes of effects,

316 dynamics, and the multidimensional generalization space when a mechanism of action of a DBCI  
317 will produce a desired effect. Based on this work, there are three next steps. First, increased  
318 theorizing about dynamics and multidimensional generalization spaces is warranted to inform  
319 theories and models about behavior change and intervention effects. While computational  
320 models can be useful for specifying this theorizing into quantifiable and falsifiable predictions,  
321 more general theorizing would be a valuable first step. Second, the concept of multidimensional  
322 generalization spaces is limited by the quality of measures of important constructs in context.  
323 Therefore, transdisciplinary research is needed to advance the understanding and measurement of  
324 these dynamic concepts and highlight particular opportunities in the realm of digital traces,  
325 wearable technologies, and EMA. Third, increased exploration and use of research methods and  
326 analytic techniques that can support more detailed study of both the dynamic relationships  
327 between constructs and the study of multidimensional generalization spaces is warranted. Uptake  
328 of these methods, such as system identification or the use of micro-randomized trials, requires  
329 careful theorizing and thus can be supported via computational models. That said, progress can  
330 be made on the use of these methods even without fully specified computational models.<sup>14</sup>  
331 These three steps can feasible help to realize the vision of the DBCIs for improving public health  
332 and preventative care that is delineated in a sister piece in this special issue.<sup>21</sup>

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351

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Table 1. Theories vs. computational models

	<b>Theory</b>	<b>Computational Models</b>
<b>Facets Specified</b>	Model structure	Model structure
	Predicted directionality & magnitude of effects	Predicted directionality & magnitude of effects
		Dynamics
		Multidimensional generalization space
<b>Advantages</b>	Provides a conceptual framework to organize research efforts	Provides a mechanism to falsify complex predictions related to dynamics and multidimensional generalization spaces
		Enables the use of simulation to further study behavioral phenomena

Figure 1. One variable visualization of a multidimensional generalization space

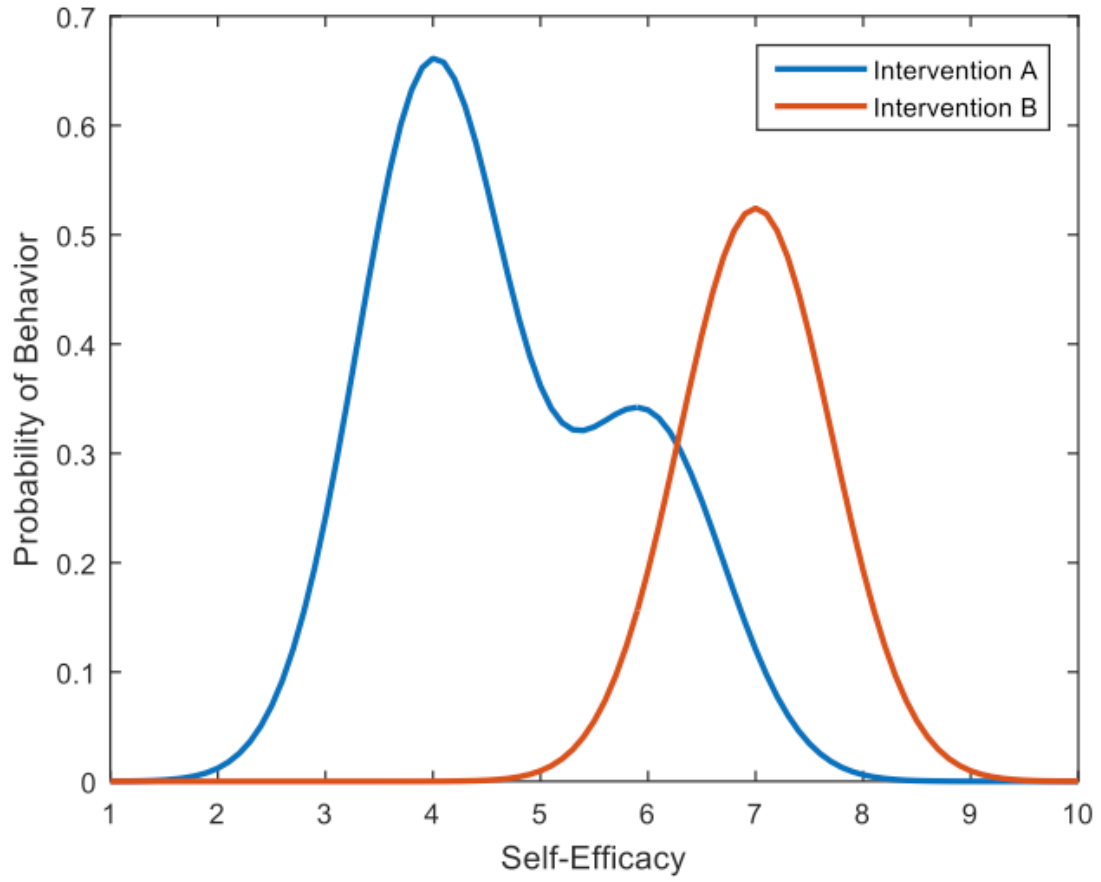
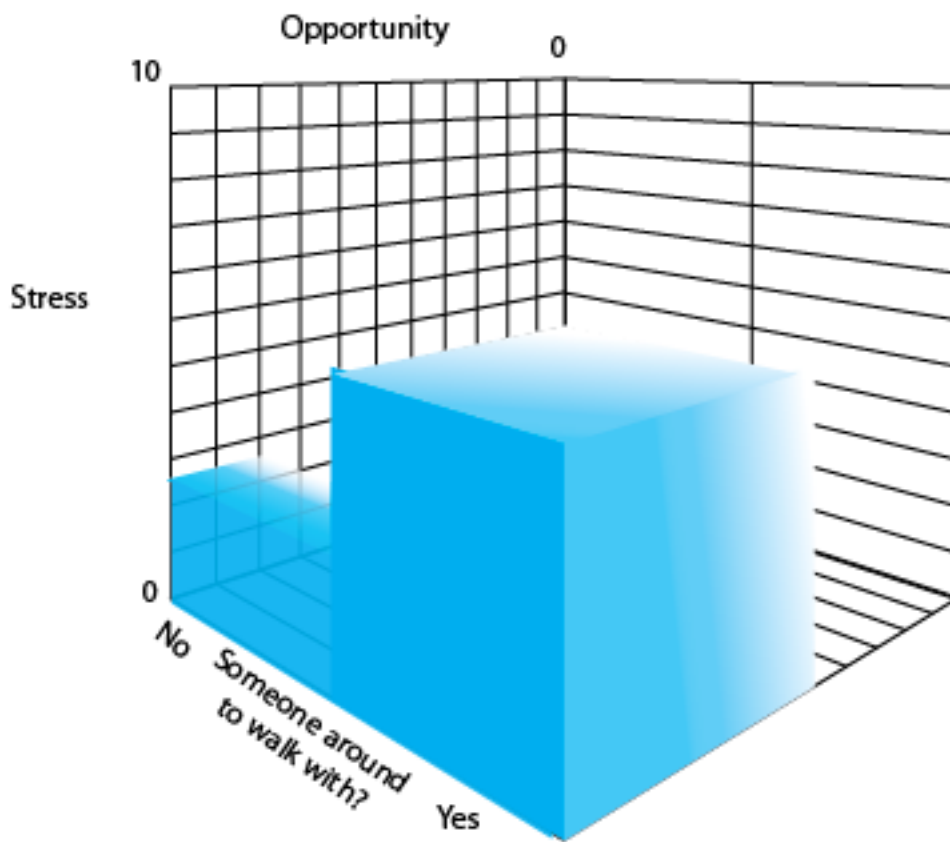




Figure 2. Three-variable visualization of a multidimensional generalization space.



Note the darker the shade, the increased likelihood that an intervention will produce the desired effect.

Figure 3. Take home messages.

- Increased theorizing about dynamics and multidimensional generalization spaces is needed to support development and refinement of digital behavior change interventions.
- This theorizing can be supported via:
  - increased use of computational models as a complement to more general theory development and refinement;
  - a transdisciplinary research agenda to improve measurement of dynamics and multidimensional generalization spaces;
  - increased use of research methods and analytic techniques that enable testing of dynamics and multidimensional generalization spaces.
- This could support more open scientific processes for collective theory development and refinement for digital health behavior change interventions.