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Substituting sedentary time with physical activity domains: an isotemporal substitution analysis in Chile

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1 **Abstract**

2 *Introduction*

3 Sedentary behavior (SB), physical inactivity and obesity are main risk factors for non-
4 communicable diseases. However, it is unknown whether reallocating SB time with physical
5 activity (PA) domains related to travel, occupational and leisure activities is associated with lower
6 levels of adiposity. The aim of this study, therefore, was to examine independent associations and
7 theoretical reallocations of SB and physical activity (PA) domains with obesity indicators in a
8 nationally representative sample from Chile.

9

10 *Methods*

11 Randomly selected participants were enrolled in the 2009–2010 Chilean National Health Survey.
12 Cross-sectional self-reported SB and PA domains were collected using the Global PA
13 Questionnaire. Isotemporal substitution modeling was applied to examine the potential effects of
14 reallocating 10 min/day of SB with occupational or travel or LTPA in relation to Body Mass Index
15 (BMI) and Waist Circumference (WC).

16

17 *Results*

18 3552 participants aged between 15-65 years [mean (standard deviation); age=40.2 (14.07) years,
19 BMI=27.7 (5.38) kg/m², WC=91.2 (24.09) cm] reported an overall sitting time of 196.3 min/day
20 and spent 15.4 min/day in LTPA. LTPA was negatively associated to both BMI and WC
21 independently of SB. Substituting 10 min/day of SB with an equal amount of travel PA resulted
22 in lower BMI (B=-0.033 95% CI: -0.055; -0.011) and WC (B=-0.089 95% CI: -0.172; -0.007)
23 independent of sociodemographic variables and sleep time. Notably, the strongest association with
24 obesity indicators was observed when SB time was reallocated for LTPA (BMI B=-0.080 95% CI:
25 -0.122; -0.037 and WC: (B=-0.373 95% CI: -0.500; -0.245).

26

27 *Conclusion*

28 Replacing SB not only with LTPA but also travel PA appears to be favorably associated with lower
29 levels of obesity indicators. Walking and cycling as part of our travel PA may be a more feasible
30 way of increasing PA levels than moderate or vigorous intensities PA in the overall population, at
31 lower costs and environmentally friendly.

32 **1.1 Introduction**

33
34 Worldwide in 2016, 39% (1.9 billion) of adults were overweight and 13% (650 million) were
35 obese (World Health Organization, 2018a). Overall, Latin America and the Caribbean leads with
36 the highest prevalence within regions with 58% (360 million) of their adults living with
37 overweight and 23% (140 million) with obesity (Food and Agriculture Organization of the
38 United Nations and Pan American Health Organization, 2017). Moreover, according to the
39 Organization and Economic Co-operation and Development, Chile in 2016 had the highest rates
40 of excessive weight (74.2%) in population aged 15 and over (Organization and Economic Co-
41 operation and Development, 2018), and this burden is projected to cost on average US\$1 billion
42 per year (United Nations. Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean. World
43 Food Programme, 2017).

44 Intervention strategies preventing and treating obesity includes modification of dietary and
45 lifestyle habits such as reducing; portions, energy-dense food, and time spent watching
46 television, among others (Grundy et al., 1999). However, regular physical activity (PA) arises as
47 the cornerstone favouring energy expenditure, curving the obesity pandemic (Jakicic and Otto,
48 2005). Time-use components such as sleep, sedentary behavior (SB), light intensity physical
49 activity (LIPA) and moderate-to-vigorous PA (MVPA) distributes across a 24-hour day.

50 Although, previous studies have reported associations of these components with CVD risk
51 factors in isolation (Buman et al., 2014; Healy et al., 2008; Larsen et al., 2014; Rosique-Esteban
52 et al., 2017; Stamatakis et al., 2009; Whitaker et al., 2018; Wijndaele et al., 2010), time is
53 restricted and finite for all individuals, and participation in one activity necessary displaces in
54 some measure, one or more co-dependent activities. One of the statistical methods that enables to
55 estimate the association of substituting time spent in one activity with another, while holding

56 total time constant, is the Isotemporal Substitution Modeling (ISM) analysis (Mekary et al.,
57 2009). This ISM paradigm has recently been used by researchers exploring associations between
58 reallocating activity components and health outcomes such as, mortality, cardiometabolic
59 biomarkers, and obesity indicators, among others (Buman et al., 2014; Colley et al., 2018;
60 Fishman et al., 2016; Gupta et al., 2016; Hamer et al., 2014; Rosique-Esteban et al., 2017; Van
61 Der Berg et al., 2017; Whitaker et al., 2018). Although there is existing evidence that suggest
62 that displacing SB by MVPA is associated with lower adiposity levels, none of the previous
63 studies has investigated the potential health-related association of reallocating time in different
64 PA domains (occupational, travel and leisure-time) with overall and abdominal obesity
65 indicators. Moreover, most of these information has been derived using accelerometers (Grgic et
66 al., 2018), and, accelerometers do not allow us to estimate PA levels related to different domains
67 such as work, leisure and travel-related PA. Taken this into account, the aims of this study were
68 (i) to examine the independent association of daily activities components (SB, occupational PA,
69 travel PA and leisure-time PA [LTPA]) with overall and abdominal obesity indicators (body
70 mass index [BMI] and waist circumference [WC], respectively) and (ii) to examine how
71 reallocating time between these daily activities components is associated with these obesity
72 indicators, in the Chilean population.

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80 **1.2 Material and Methods**

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82 *1.2.1 Study Sample*

83 This cross-sectional study included 3552 participants recruited from the Chilean National Health
84 Survey (CNHS) 2009 – 2010 (Ministerio de Salud, 2009). The CNHS cohort comprised 5412
85 participant's ≥ 15 years old, from both urban and rural areas and utilized stratified multistage
86 probability sampling (Ministerio de Salud, 2009). Furthermore, the CNHS is conducted every 6
87 years and obtains biological, lifestyle, dietary and health data (Ministerio de Salud, 2009).

88 Data was collected, in accordance with standardized protocols, by trained interviewers and
89 nurses in a two-part face-to-face interview (Ministerio de Salud, 2009). Interviews were carried
90 out in the homes of participants, with the interviewers obtaining information on participant
91 physical and mental health, household income and socio-economic status (Ministerio de Salud,
92 2009). Following on from this, the second part of the interview involved the administration of
93 CNHS validated questionnaires and collection of anthropometric measurements, such as BMI
94 and WC (Ministerio de Salud, 2009).

95 Only participants who were aged 15–65 years, with BMI and WC measurements were
96 considered for this study (n=3960). Participants were excluded if they reported >960 minutes/day
97 (16 hours/day) in SB (n=44), >960 minutes/day of either occupational PA, travel PA, LTPA
98 (n=55), and total activity time (n=125), defined as the sum of each component (SB +
99 occupational PA + travel PA + LTPA). Additionally, participants were also excluded if data for
100 the outcomes, exposure and covariates used in this study (n=184) were missing, leading to a total
101 sample of 3552 subjects.

102 The CNHS 2009-2010 was funded by the Chilean Ministry of Health and led by the Department
103 of Public Health from the Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile (PUC). The study protocol

104 was approved by the Ethics Research Committee of the faculty of medicine at the PUC and
105 carried out in accordance with The Code of Ethics of the World Medical Association
106 (Declaration of Helsinki). All participants provided written informed consent prior to
107 participation.

108

109 *1.2.2 Socio-demographic*

110 Participants were classified according to: gender; age (15–29; 30–44; 45–65 years); region of
111 residence (north: I–IV and XV, central: V–VIII and XIII, and south: IX–XII and XIV); and
112 educational level (low: <8 schooling years, intermediate: 8–12 schooling years, and high >12
113 schooling years).

114

115 *1.2.3 Physical Activity*

116 The Global Physical Activity Questionnaire (GPAQ) is a useful tool by which levels of PA and
117 SB are measured (Bull et al., 2009). It was developed by the World Health Organization, with
118 version 2 being utilized in the 2009-2010 CNHS (World Health Organization, 2009). The GPAQ
119 has been identified as a valid and reliable instrument, which has been utilized to assess other
120 population's levels of PA and SB (Bull et al., 2009).

121 Total occupational PA, travel PA and LTPA can be ascertained from the GPAQ (World Health
122 Organization, 2009). Travel PA refers to commuting between destinations by either walking or
123 cycling (non-motorized), while LTPA represents participants doing sports, fitness and
124 recreational activities. Occupational PA instead, indicates participations in household chores,
125 carrying or lifting heavy loads, harvesting food/crops, etc.... To account for the energy
126 expenditure related to different PA domains, the total amount of PA and MVPA was reported as
127 Metabolic Equivalent (METS), which is the ratio of a person's working metabolic rate relative

128 to the resting metabolic rate (1 kcal/kg/hour) (Jetté et al., 1990; World Health Organization,
129 2009). Both, leisure-time and occupational domains are considered as MVPA intensity domains
130 (>4METs), while travel PA is contemplated as a moderate intensity activity (4–8 METs) only.
131 Noteworthy, all domains emphasize in a continuous 10-minutes minimum bout of time for the
132 activity to be performed, in order to meet the current PA guidelines (World Health Organization,
133 2010). On the other hand, SB was calculated by using the following question: “How much time
134 do you usually spend sitting or reclining on a typical day?” Examples were provided, such as
135 sitting at a desk, sitting with friends, reading, watching television were valid, excepting time
136 spent sleeping.
137 Total minutes per day (min/day) were derived from SB, while MVPA and moderate min/day
138 calculated from leisure-time, occupational and travel PA domains separately, respectively.

139

140 *1.2.4 Obesity Indicators*

141 Weight and height were measured in light clothing and without shoes, according to a standardized
142 method (Ministerio de Salud, 2009). Weight and height were measured to the nearest 0.1kg and
143 0.1cm, respectively. BMI was calculated as weight (kg) divided by the height in squared meters
144 (m²).

145 Waist circumference was registered with a unextendible tape to the nearest 0.1cm, and measured
146 in the mid axillary line at the midpoint between the lower margin of the last detectable rib and
147 the top of the iliac crest, after normal exhalation (Ministerio de Salud, 2009).

148

149 *1.2.5 Other Potential Confounding Variables*

150 Sleep time (min/day) was derived multiplying by 60 the following question: “*how many hours of*
151 *sleep do you usually take during weekdays?*” Also, self-reported health (poor/fair/good/very

152 good/excellent), diabetes (fasting plasma glucose ≥ 126 mg/dl or self-reported physician-
153 diagnosed) and hypertension (systolic blood pressure ≥ 140 mmHg and/or diastolic blood pressure
154 ≥ 90 mmHg, plus normotensive participants with pharmacological treatment) were registered
155 (Ministerio de Salud, 2009).

156

157 *1.2.6 Statistical Analysis*

158 All analyses were weighted for CNHS 2009 - 2010 design using the command 'svy' in STATA
159 v.13 (StataCorp LP). Continuous variables were summarized as mean and standard deviations
160 (SD), and as frequencies (percentages) for categorical variables.

161 Bivariate correlations were used to determine the relationship among PA domains and SB.

162 Three different multiple linear regression models (single activity, partitioned and isotemporal
163 substitution) were used to assess the magnitude of the associations between 10 minutes time
164 units SB, occupational PA, travel PA and LTPA, and the two obesity indicators (BMI and WC).

165 All models were first adjusted for sex, age groups, educational level and region of residence
166 (model A), then additionally controlled for sleep time (model B), and finally, adjustments for
167 diabetes, hypertension and self-reported health (model C) were also accounted. Confounders
168 were retained via backwards elimination as significantly associated with the outcomes at p-
169 values < 0.2 .

170 First, a single activity model was fitted to assess each component separately (SB, occupational,
171 travel and LTPA) with BMI and WC, without taking into account the other activity types.

172 Moreover, to precisely assess the independent effect of an activity (SB or each PA domain),
173 further adjustments for total PA (occupational PA + travel PA + LTPA) and SB were accounted,
174 respectively (model D and E).

175 Second, partition models were fitted to estimate the “unique associations” of each component
176 (SB, occupational PA, travel PA and LTPA) with BMI and WC, independent of confounders and
177 other activity types. Thus, represents the effect of adding rather than substituting and activity
178 type by entering simultaneously each component without adjusting for total activity time.

179 Third, an ISM analysis, examined the theoretical effect of replacing a preset amount of time
180 in one activity component with the same amount in another activity (e.g., reallocating 10
181 min/day of SB to 10 min/day of travel PA), while holding total activity time (SB + occupational
182 PA + travel PA + LTPA) constant. Including total activity time variable in the model permits for
183 direct associations to be made among independent variables and obesity indicators (Buman et al.,
184 2014). Thus, an ISM analysis that examines the effect of replacing SB (behavior of interest) with
185 other PA domains includes: occupational PA, travel PA, LTPA, covariates plus total activity
186 time entered simultaneously into the model. By dropping SB, the remaining coefficients
187 (occupational PA, travel PA, LTPA) represent the consequence of substituting 10 min/day of that
188 PA domain instead of SB while holding other activity types constant.

189 As all interactions (by age, sex, and region of residence) were not statistically significant, pooled
190 analysis with unstandardized regression coefficients are presented. Statistical significance level
191 was 2-sided and set at $P < .05$.

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199 1.3 Results

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201 The analysis included 3552 participants, mean age 40.2 (SD=14.07), mean BMI 27.7 (SD=5.38)
202 and mean WC 91.2 (SD=24.09). Moreover, 60.2% were women and most of the population had
203 8-12 years of education (60.6%), lived in the central region (41.5%), and reported good overall
204 health (42.9%). On average, participants spent 196.3 min/day in SB and participation in
205 occupational PA (133.3 min/day) was highest among other domains (travel PA= 48.6 min/day
206 and LTPA= 15.4 min/day). Sample characteristics are presented in Table 1.

207 Table A.1 summarizes bivariate correlations between daily minutes spent in SB and the different
208 PA domains (all $r < 0.3$).

209 The results of the single activity and partition models for BMI and WC is represented in table 2.
210 In the single models, every 10 minutes bout of SB was associated with a significant increase for
211 BMI (B =0.016; 95% CI: 0.005 ; 0.027) and WC (B=0.044; 95% CI: 0.005 ; 0.083) after
212 adjusting for sociodemographic and sleep time. Conversely, LTPA and travel PA were
213 associated with a significant decrease for same obesity indicators. Moreover, LTPA showed an
214 independent association with BMI and WC after adjusting for SB (model D).

215 In the partition models, where the time in each of the activities was held constant, LTPA domain
216 remained favorably associated with BMI (B = -0.063; 95% CI: -0.104 ; -0.022) and WC (B = -
217 0.342; 95% CI: -0.469 ; -0.215). However, SB was only negatively associated with BMI (B =
218 0.016; 95% CI: 0.005 ; 0.028) after controlling for sociodemographic characteristics. Findings
219 slightly attenuated but remained significant in the fully adjusted model (model C).

220
221 The isotemporal substitution models suggest that replacing a 10-min/day bout in travel PA or
222 LTPA for 10 min/day increase in SB is significantly associated with greater BMI (Table 3),

223 while holding total time constant. Similar results were obtained when travel PA was replaced
224 with occupational PA ($B = 0.026$; 95% CI: 0.003 ; 0.048). Also, the estimates of WC increased
225 significantly when any PA domain was replaced with SB bouts (Table 4). Moreover, replacing
226 10 min/day of LTPA with 10 min/day increase in occupational PA was adversely associated with
227 WC ($B = 0.323$; 95% CI: 0.198 ; 0.448).

228 Lastly, for both isothermal substitution models, reallocating 10 min/day bout of SB,
229 occupational PA or travel PA with 10 min/day in LTPA was associated with favorable effects in
230 all obesity indicators.

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247 **1.4 Discussion**

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249 This cross-sectional study examined the associations of activity components with obesity
250 indicators in a national representative sample participating in the 2009-2010 CNHS. One of the
251 main findings in this paper is that 10 min/day spent in LTPA was independently associated with
252 lower levels of BMI and WC, however the magnitude of the association was higher for WC than
253 BMI. Whereas 10 min/day time spent in SB was independently associated with higher BMI but
254 not WC. Secondly, the Isotemporal substitution analyses revealed slightly stronger beneficial
255 effects for BMI (β -0.06, $p < 0.001$) and WC (β -0.04, $p = 0.015$), when we theoretically replaced
256 10 min/day of SB with equal amounts of LTPA. Furthermore, it was also shown that replacing
257 SB with travel PA was associated with lower levels of obesity indicators however the magnitude
258 of the effect was smaller than those observed for LTPA (BMI= β -0.05, $p = 0.003$ and WC= β -
259 0.04, $p = 0.031$).

260 The present findings seem to be consistent with other research which found that LTPA is
261 independently and favorably associated with lower obesity indicators (Du et al., 2013; Jakes et
262 al., 2003; Martínez-González et al., 1999; Stamatakis et al., 2009). In addition, a recent study
263 conducted in Spain (PREDIMED PLUS-Trial) found that adults engaging 1 hour/day in
264 moderate-to-vigorous LTPA was independently associated with 5% and 3% lower prevalence of
265 overall obesity (RR=0.95; 95% CI: 0.93 ; 0.97) and abdominal obesity (RR=0.97; 95% CI: 0.96 ;
266 0.98), respectively (Rosique-Esteban et al., 2017). However, this study conducted in Spain, had
267 older participants (65 ± 4.9 years), higher proportion of males (51.9%), higher sitting time
268 (294 ± 138 min/day) and LTPA (66.8 min/day) than our sample (Rosique-Esteban et al., 2017).

269

270 In accordance with the present results, previous studies have demonstrated that SB is
271 independently associated with BMI (Jakes et al., 2003; Su et al., 2017). Moreover, a major study
272 conducted in 15 European member states (n=15239) found that for each 1 hour/week increase in
273 time spent sitting was independently associated with higher BMI in males and females,
274 equivalent to 0.026 grams and 0.065 grams, respectively (Martínez-González et al., 1999).
275 Despite our findings, some studies have found independent associations with WC (Healy et al.,
276 2008; Whitaker et al., 2018; Wijndaele et al., 2010), while others for both obesity indicators (Du
277 et al., 2013; Stamatakis et al., 2009). These discrepancies could be attributed to the unexplained
278 mechanisms responsible for determining the location of fat distribution. In addition to this, a
279 study conducted in United States, showed no association between sitting time and intra-thoracic,
280 subcutaneous, visceral, and intermuscular fat measured by computed tomography (Larsen et al.,
281 2014). However, 1 hour/day increase of daily sitting was associated with 3.94cm² greater
282 pericardial fat (Larsen et al., 2014), highlighting its association with cardiovascular morbidity
283 and mortality (Mahabadi et al., 2008; Rosito et al., 2008).

284
285 Compelling evidence from epidemiological studies suggests that reallocating time from SB to
286 MVPA has significant beneficial associations with obesity indicators (Colley et al., 2018; Dahl-
287 Petersen et al., 2017; Grgic et al., 2018; Gupta et al., 2016; Hamer et al., 2014; Mekary et al.,
288 2009). Also, a recent meta-analysis which included 10 studies using objective-assessment found
289 that replacing 30 minutes of sedentary time with MVPA was associated with reductions in BMI
290 ($\beta = -1.07$; 95% CI: -1.80 ; -0.35) and WC ($\beta = -2.95$; 95% CI: -3.88 ; -2.03) (del Pozo-Cruz et al.,
291 2018). Differences in magnitudes for BMI and WC between studies could be due to the methods
292 assessing PA; as questionnaires tend to overestimate the amount of PA needed to reduce obesity
293 indicators, and underestimated the benefits of PA. However, previous studies have not dealt with

294 theoretical substitutions among different PA domains and most of the evidence been based to
295 reallocations of SB with LTPA (Mekary et al., 2009; Rosique-Esteban et al., 2017). An example
296 of this is the cross-sectional study conducted in 5776 Spanish adults were substituting 1 hour/day
297 of LTPA for same amount of TV-viewing time, resulted in 8% (RR=0.92; 95% CI: 0.90 – 0.94)
298 and 3% (RR=0.97; 95% CI: 0.96 – 0.98) lower prevalence of overall and abdominal obesity,
299 respectively (Rosique-Esteban et al., 2017). In the present study, the results for obesity indicators
300 of replacing 10 min/day of SB with LTPA are less than the observed in Rosique-Esteban and
301 colleagues study (Rosique-Esteban et al., 2017), probably due to greater benefits in energy
302 expenditure with MVPA in older individuals with higher BMI and WC (Colley et al., 2018).
303 Moreover, another possible explanation could be that screen time has a more negative
304 association with obesity indicators than other SB such as reading, doing paperwork, car travel
305 and phone utilization (Whitaker et al., 2018).

306
307 Nonetheless, realistic reallocations of SB to LTPA might be limited, including common
308 impediments such as insufficient time, costs, lack of confidence, encouragement (Withall et al.,
309 2011). Hence, travel PA would act as a keystone in the substitution model, providing an
310 alternative opportunity to overcoming traditional barriers associated to lack of PA (Furie and
311 Desai, 2012). Moreover, this type of PA practiced at lower-intensities seems easier to
312 incorporate into a daily routine, and previous studies have shown negative associations with
313 CVD risk factors and mortality (Hamer and Chida, 2008; Saunders et al., 2013), inclusively in
314 Chilean population (Sadarangani et al., 2018).

315
316 Consistent with our results, international public health approaches such as the global action plan
317 on PA and strategies like “Move more, Sit less”, have advocated for ideal reallocation of time for

318 health, decreasing time in less active behaviors and engaging into more MVPA (Salmon, 2016;
319 World Health Organization, 2018b). Moreover, the present findings suggest that cross-sectoral
320 collaboration and integrated decision making between Health, Transport and Environment
321 should be decisive for achieving sustainable transport patterns. Promotion of safe cycling and
322 walking offers reductions in traffic congestion, noise, carbon dioxide and pollutants emissions
323 (Dombois et al., 2006). Moreover, it would increase population PA levels, energy efficiency and
324 quality of urban life (Dombois et al., 2006). However, for this to happen environmental and
325 transportation infrastructure are needed, such as green spaces, park and playgrounds, street
326 connectivity offering multi-modal transportation, pedestrians sidewalks and bicycle lanes
327 separated from traffic, etc... taking advantage from the recent road harmony modification law
328 and speed limit reduction (50 km/hour) in urban areas (de Nazelle et al., 2011; Dombois et al.,
329 2006; Telecomunicaciones, 2018).

330

331 *1.4.1 Strengths and Limitations*

332 Strengths of this study includes a large random representative sample (urban, rural and regional)
333 with low refusal rates (12%) (Ministerio de Salud, 2009). Trained nurses and standard operating
334 procedures used for anthropometric measures. However, a number of important limitations need
335 to be considered. First, the cross-sectional design of our study does not allow to assume causality
336 and reverse causality cannot be excluded. However, sensitive analysis was performed excluding
337 those who reported a history of stroke, deep vein thrombosis or myocardial infarction (n=3398)
338 and results remained significant when substituting 10 min/day of SB with travel PA and LTPA.
339 Second, despite examining a potential effect of a large set of confounders, residual confounding
340 factors remains as a possibility, such as not controlling for diet could influence obesity
341 indicators. Third, self-reported measure of PA and SB is not always reliable and can incur bias.

342 Moreover, the GPAQ instrument only include PA bouts of at least 10-minute duration, so by not
343 accounting for bouts of MVPA below 10-min our analyses could underestimating the
344 associations observed. Due to this, objective devices (accelerometers and Global Positioning
345 System) complemented with a PA diary should be used to deliver reliable information plus
346 differentiate between SB and PA types, standing and LIPA. Nevertheless, the GPAQ has shown
347 good criterion validity against 343 accelerometers in this population (Aguilar-Farías, Nicolás;
348 Leppe, 2014). Forth, our isotemporal analysis did not consider LIPA (not measured in this
349 survey) thus, it is unclear how these activities relate with obesity indicators.

350

351 **1.5 Conclusion**

352

353 In conclusion, this study is the first to our knowledge to examine the associations of replacing
354 time spent in SB with time spent in different PA domains and obesity indicators. Our findings
355 demonstrate that replacing SB not only with LTPA but also with travel PA was associated with
356 lower levels of BMI and WC. These findings may hold important public health relevance as
357 engaging in travel PA would be beneficial even for those less able to tolerate higher-intensity
358 activities, and at lower cost. Further work including interventional studies are needed to better
359 understand the relationship between PA domains and obesity indicators, in order to assess for
360 causal relationships and clarify possible mechanisms involved.

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368 KS and VCS did the statistical analysis; KS prepared the first draft and VCS, AV, CCM, CCM,
369 NAF, SHF, MDC, BSV and DMG re-wrote parts of the manuscript; all authors review critically
370 several drafts of the manuscript and approved the final version before submission.

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Table 1 Socio-demographic, anthropometric, clinical and physical activity characteristics of the study population, Chilean National Health Survey 2009-2010 (n=3552)

Variable		All n=3552
		Mean (SD)
Age (years)		40.2 (14.07)
Body Mass Index (kg/m ²)		27.7 (5.38)
Waist Circumference (cm)		91.2 (24.09)
Sleep (min/day)		439.7 (95.97)
Sedentary Behavior (min/day)		196.3 (158.49)
Travel Physical Activity (min/day)		48.6 (83.70)
Occupational Physical Activity (min/day)		133.3 (176.55)
Leisure Time Physical Activity (min/day)		15.4 (42.55)
		n (%)
Sex	Male	1415 (39.8)
	Female	2137 (60.2)
Region of Residence	North (I – IV and XV)	1065 (30.0)
	Central (V- VIII and XIII)	1475 (41.5)
	South (IX – XII and XIV)	1012 (28.5)
Educational Level	Low (< 8 years of education)	613 (17.3)
	Middle (8 – 12 years of education)	2154 (60.6)
	High (>12 years of education)	785 (22.1)
Self-Rated Health	Excellent	174 (4.9)
	Very Good	310 (8.7)
	Good	1523 (42.9)
	Fair	1323 (37.3)
	Poor	222 (6.2)
Diabetes ^a	No	3259 (91.7)
	Yes	293 (8.3)
Hypertension ^b	No	2785 (78.4)
	Yes	767 (21.6)

^a Diabetes: Fasting plasma glucose ≥ 126 mg/dl or self-reported physician-diagnosed

^b Hypertension: systolic blood pressure ≥ 140 mmHg and/or diastolic blood pressure ≥ 90 mmHg, plus normotensive participants with pharmacological treatment

Table 2 Associations of each 10 min/day of sedentary behavior and physical activity domains with body mass index and waist circumference, Chilean National Health Survey 2009-2010 (n=3552)

Analysis Method: Single Activity Models				
Body Mass Index (kg/m²)				
	Sedentary Behavior β (95% CI)	Occupational PA^a β (95% CI)	Travel PA^a β (95% CI)	Leisure-Time PA^a β (95% CI)
Model A	0.015 (0.004 ; 0.026)*	0.006 (-0.004 ; 0.016)	-0.023 (-0.043 ; -0.003)***	-0.069 (-0.110 ; -0.029)*
Model B	0.016 (0.005 ; 0.027)*	0.006 (-0.004 ; 0.015)	-0.023 (-0.043 ; -0.002)***	-0.069 (-0.110 ; -0.028)*
Model C	0.013 (0.002 ; 0.024)***	0.005 (-0.004 ; 0.015)	-0.015 (-0.035 ; 0.005)	-0.063 (-0.103 ; -0.024)*
Model D	-	0.009 (-0.001 ; 0.019)	-0.012 (-0.032 ; 0.008)	-0.062 (-0.102 ; -0.022)*
Model E	0.014 (0.003 ; 0.025)***	-	-	-
Waist Circumference (cm)				
	Sedentary Behavior β (95% CI)	Occupational PA^a β (95% CI)	Travel PA^a β (95% CI)	Leisure-Time PA^a β (95% CI)
Model A	0.042 (0.002 ; 0.081)***	-0.017 (-0.053 ; 0.019)	-0.108 (-0.191 ; -0.025)**	-0.362 (-0.490 ; -0.234)*
Model B	0.044 (0.005 ; 0.083)***	-0.021 (-0.058 ; 0.015)	-0.104 (-0.185 ; -0.023)**	-0.361 (-0.489 ; -0.233)*
Model C	0.047 (0.007 ; 0.087)***	-0.029 (-0.063 ; 0.006)	-0.091 (-0.170 ; -0.012)***	-0.327 (-0.453 ; -0.201)*
Model D	-	-0.020 (-0.057 ; 0.017)	-0.080 (-0.161 ; 0.001)	-0.320 (-0.444 ; -0.196)*
Model E	0.034 (-0.008 ; 0.075)	-	-	-
Analysis Method: Partition Models				
Body Mass Index (kg/m²)				
	Sedentary Behavior β (95% CI)	Occupational PA^a β (95% CI)	Travel PA^a β (95% CI)	Leisure-Time PA^a β (95% CI)
Model A	0.016 (0.005 ; 0.028)*	0.009 (-0.012 ; 0.019)	-0.017 (-0.037 ; 0.004)	-0.063 (-0.104 ; -0.022)*
Model B	0.016 (0.005 ; 0.027)*	0.009 (-0.002 ; 0.019)	-0.017 (-0.037 ; 0.004)	-0.063 (-0.104 ; -0.022)*
Model C	0.014 (0.003 ; 0.025)*	0.008 (-0.002 ; 0.018)	-0.010 (-0.030 ; 0.010)	-0.059 (-0.099 ; -0.019)*
Waist Circumference (cm)				
	Sedentary Behavior β (95% CI)	Occupational PA^a β (95% CI)	Travel PA^a β (95% CI)	Leisure-Time PA^a β (95% CI)
Model A	0.031 (-0.010 ; 0.072)	-0.018 (-0.055 ; 0.020)	-0.062 (-0.145 ; 0.020)	-0.342 (-0.469 ; -0.215)*

Model B	0.033 (-0.008 ; 0.074)	-0.021 (-0.060 ; 0.017)	-0.057 (-0.137 ; 0.024)	-0.344 (-0.471 ; -0.218)*
Model C	0.034 (-0.007 ; 0.076)	-0.027 (-0.064 ; 0.009)	-0.047 (-0.125 ; 0.032)	-0.315 (-0.438 ; -0.191)*

Data presented as unstandardized regression coefficients (β)

^a PA: Physical Activity

Model A: Adjusted for age, sex, educational level (low, middle, high) and region of residence (north, center, south)

Model B: Adjusted for age, sex, educational level (low, middle, high), region of residence (north, center, south) and sleep time.

Model C: Adjusted for age, sex, educational level (low, middle, high), region of residence (north, center, south), sleep time, self-reported health, diabetes and hypertension.

Model D: Adjusted for age, sex, educational level (low, middle, high), region of residence (north, center, south), sleep time, self-reported health, diabetes, hypertension and Sedentary Behavior.

Model E: Adjusted for age, sex, educational level (low, middle, high), region of residence (north, center, south), sleep time, self-reported health, diabetes, hypertension and Total Physical Activity (Occupational, Travel and Leisure-Time).

Boldface indicates statistical significance: * $p < 0.001$ ** $p < 0.01$ *** $p < 0.05$

Table 3 Isotemporal substitution models examining the relation between 10 min/day changes in time spent in sedentary behavior, occupation, travel and leisure-time physical activity and body mass index, Chilean National Health Survey 2009-2010 (n=3552).

<u>Analysis Method</u>	Sedentary Behavior β (95% CI)	Occupational PA^a β (95% CI)	Travel PA^a β (95% CI)	Leisure-Time PA^a β (95% CI)
Isotemporal				
Substitution of Activity to Replace Sedentary Behaviour	Dropped			
Model A		-0.007 (-0.021 ; 0.006)	-0.033 (-0.055 ; -0.011)**	-0.080 (-0.122 ; -0.037)*
Model B		-0.008 (-0.021 ; 0.006)	-0.033 (-0.055 ; -0.011)**	-0.080 (-0.122 ; -0.037)*
Model C		-0.006 (-0.019 ; 0.007)	-0.024 (-0.045 ; -0.002)***	-0.073 (-0.114 ; -0.032)*
Substitution of Activity to Replace Occupational PA ^a	Dropped			
Model A		0.007 (-0.006 ; 0.021)	-0.026 (-0.048 ; -0.003)***	-0.072 (-0.114 ; -0.031)*
Model B		0.008 (-0.006 ; 0.021)	-0.025 (-0.048 ; -0.003)***	-0.072 (-0.113 ; -0.030)*
Model C		0.006 (-0.007 ; 0.019)	-0.018 (-0.040 ; 0.005)	-0.067 (-0.107 ; -0.026)*
Substitution of Activity to Replace Travel PA ^a	Dropped			
Model A		0.033 (0.011 ; 0.055)**	0.026 (0.003 ; 0.048)***	-0.046 (-0.093 ; 0.000)
Model B		0.033 (0.011 ; 0.055)**	0.025 (0.003 ; 0.048)***	-0.047 (-0.094 ; 0.000)
Model C		0.024 (0.002 ; 0.045)***	0.018 (-0.005 ; 0.040)	-0.049 (-0.095 ; -0.003)***
Substitution of Activity to Replace Leisure-Time PA ^a	Dropped			
Model A		0.080 (0.037 ; 0.122)*	0.072 (0.031 ; 0.114)*	0.046 (-0.000 ; 0.093)
Model B		0.080 (0.037 ; 0.122)*	0.072 (0.030 ; 0.113)*	0.047 (-0.001 ; 0.094)
Model C		0.073 (0.032 ; 0.114)*	0.067 (0.026 ; 0.107)*	0.049 (0.003 ; 0.095)***

Data presented as unstandardized regression coefficients (β)

^a PA: Physical Activity

Model A: Adjusted for age, sex, educational level (low, middle, high) and region of residence (north, center, south)

Model B: Adjusted for age, sex, educational level (low, middle, high), region of residence (north, center, south) and sleep time.

Model C: Adjusted for age, sex, educational level (low, middle, high), region of residence (north, center, south), sleep time, self-reported health, diabetes and hypertension.

Boldface indicates statistical significance: * $p < 0.001$ ** $p < 0.01$ *** $p < 0.05$

Table 4 Isotemporal substitution models examining the relation between 10 min/day changes in time spent in sedentary behavior, occupation, travel and leisure-time physical activity and waist circumference, Chilean National Health Survey 2009-2010 (n=3552).

Analysis Method	Sedentary Behavior β (95% CI)	Occupational PA^a β (95% CI)	Travel PA^a β (95% CI)	Leisure-Time PA^a β (95% CI)
Isotemporal				
Substitution of Activity to Replace Sedentary Behaviour	Dropped			
Model A		-0.048 (-0.094 ; -0.003)***	-0.093 (-0.177 ; -0.010)***	-0.373 (-0.500 ; -0.245)*
Model B		-0.054 (-0.100 ; -0.008)***	-0.089 (-0.172 ; -0.007)***	-0.377 (-0.505 ; -0.249)*
Model C		-0.062 (-0.107 ; -0.016)**	-0.081 (-0.161 ; -0.001)***	-0.349 (-0.476 ; -0.222)*
Substitution of Activity to Replace Occupational PA ^a		Dropped		
Model A	0.048 (0.003 ; 0.094)***		-0.045 (-0.136 ; 0.047)	-0.324 (-0.449 ; -0.200)*
Model B	0.054 (0.008 ; 0.100)***		-0.035 (-0.125 ; 0.054)	-0.323 (-0.448 ; -0.198)*
Model C	0.062 (0.016 ; 0.107)**		-0.019 (-0.106 ; 0.067)	-0.288 (-0.411 ; -0.164)*
Substitution of Activity to Replace Travel PA ^a			Dropped	
Model A	0.093 (0.010 ; 0.176)***	0.045 (-0.047 ; 0.136)		-0.280 (-0.434 ; -0.125)*
Model B	0.089 (0.007 ; 0.172)***	0.035 (-0.054 ; 0.125)		-0.288 (-0.442 ; -0.134)*
Model C	0.081 (0.001 ; 0.161)***	0.019 (-0.067 ; 0.106)		-0.268 (-0.419 ; -0.117)*
Substitution of Activity to Replace Leisure-Time PA ^a				Dropped
Model A	0.373 (0.245 ; 0.500)*	0.324 (0.200 ; 0.449)*	0.280 (0.125 ; 0.434)*	
Model B	0.377 (0.249 ; 0.505)*	0.323 (0.198 ; 0.448)*	0.288 (0.134 ; 0.442)*	
Model C	0.349 (0.222 ; 0.476)*	0.288 (0.164 ; 0.411)	0.268 (0.117 ; 0.419)*	

Data presented as unstandardized regression coefficients (β)

^a PA: Physical Activity

Model A: Adjusted for age, sex, educational level (low, middle, high) and region of residence (north, center, south)

Model B: Adjusted for age, sex, educational level (low, middle, high), region of residence (north, center, south) and sleep time.

Model C: Adjusted for age, sex, educational level (low, middle, high), region of residence (north, center, south), sleep time, self-reported health, diabetes and hypertension.

Boldface indicates statistical significance: *p<0.001 **p<0.01 ***p<0.05

Appendix Table 1

Pearson correlations coefficients between daily activities components, Chilean National Health Survey 2009-2010 (n=3552).

	Sedentary Behavior	Travel PA ^a	Occupational PA ^a	Leisure-Time PA ^a
Sedentary Behaviour	1.0			
Travel PA ^a	-0.141*	1.0		
Occupational PA ^a	-0.245*	0.131*	1.0	
Leisure-Time PA ^a	0.046**	0.124*	-0.007	1.0

^a PA: Physical Activity

Boldface indicates statistical significance: *p<0.001 **p<0.01