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14	Running head: What about sustainable physical activity?
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25 Abstract

26 There is a global need to diminish climate gas emissions, and a simultaneous call for enhanced levels of physical activity. Increased physical activity entails reduced risk for 27 overweight and chronic diseases, as well as a potential to reduce transport's major 28 contribution to global CO2 emissions. However, increased physical activity level also implies 29 30 increased energy expenditure. Therefore, we aim to introduce the concept of sustainable physical activity, and to suggest certain physical activity habits due to their potentially 31 sustainable properties. Worldwide, a third of adults and four fifths of adolescents ought to be 32 more physically active in order to comply with current physical activity recommendations. 33 Yet, considering upcoming resource challenges, types of physical activity should be taken 34 into account. Active transportation represents carbon-friendly means of transportation as well 35 as an opportunity for enhanced physical activity. Physical activity conducted in the local 36 community is likely to favor sustainability through less use of fossil fuel, as it makes 37 transportation redundant. Moreover, going "back to basic", using less equipment and 38 appliances for everyday tasks could contribute towards energy balance through increased 39 40 physical activity, and could decrease resource use. Finally, balancing food intake and energy expenditure would require less food production with accompanying energy savings. 41 42 Keywords: Resource challenges, environmental impact, health promotion, active transportation, community-based physical activity, equipment, energy balance 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52

53 Introduction

54 At present there is a global need to reduce climate gas emissions, and at the same time there is a global call for increased physical activity. Increased physical activity level implies reduced 55 risk for overweight and chronic diseases (WHO, 2010), and a potential to reduce transport's 56 major contribution to global CO₂ emissions (Woodcock et al., 2009). However, increased 57 58 physical activity means increased energy expenditure, and most likely enhanced food consumption (Blundell et al., 2015). Although a considerable amount of research has focused 59 on sustainable diets, including aspects like local foods, few studies have focused on aspects of 60 sustainability related to physical activity. The ambitious goal of the Paris Agreement adopted 61 by 195 countries in December 2015, entailing carbon neutrality before the end of the century 62 (COP21, 2015), demands that initiatives need to be generated within all areas of society. In 63 light of the historic Paris agreement, we believe that sustainable physical activity holds a 64 potential that should be introduced and addressed. Thus, the aim of this discussion paper is to 65 introduce the concept of sustainable physical activity. 66

67 In today's society food procurement no longer depends upon energy expenditure, thus

removing the biological drive for subsistence physical activity (Peters et al., 2002). Physical

69 activity and exertion have largely been separated from daily tasks due to labor-saving devices,

70 motorized transportation, and increasingly sedentary recreational pursuits (Booth et al., 2008).

For illustration, prehistoric hunter-gatherers spent the equivalent of 19 km walking, or

approximately 24 000 steps daily (Cordain et al., 1998), while in Colorado, one of the

"eanest" states in the US, men and women have reported about 7000 and 6600 steps per day,

respectively (Wyatt et al., 2005). In Norway, recent published data show that men and women

valk about 8005 and 8307 steps per day, respectively (Helsedirektoratet, 2015). Moreover,

76 acculturation from a traditional hunting/fishing lifestyle to a largely Western way of living,

i.e. a sedentary lifestyle, has shown to occur in parallel with increased body mass index

78 (BMI), as well as decreased muscular strength and aerobic fitness (Cordain et al., 1998), and

reased rates of chronic diseases (Katzmarzyk and Mason, 2009).

80 Lifestyle behaviors strain the environment e.g. through transportation habits (de Nazelle et al.,

81 2011), production and processing of food (FAO, 2012), and our consumer society in general.

82 These pursuits are largely responsible for increased emissions of greenhouse gases. Currently,

transportation activities produce about 23 % of global climate gas discharges (de Nazelle et

al., 2011), highlighting the relevance of active transportation as a potential means to decrease

carbon footprint (Woodcock et al., 2009, Abagnale et al., 2015). Regarding foods, about 35 % 85 of man-made climate gas discharges are related to food production (Foley et al., 2011), with 86 18 % caused by livestock alone (Steinfeld et al., 2006). The situation is aggravated by the 87 fact that roughly 30 % of all foods produced are either discarded, spoiled, lost, or crops are 88 consumed by pests (Foley et al., 2011). In addition to the environmental footprint caused by 89 transportation habits and food choices, the consumer mentality in affluent societies entails 90 major energy consumption. For large parts of the population within Western countries, leisure 91 92 consumption often entails abundance of clothes and equipment, transport intensive activities, various electronic appliances for the home, and holiday journeys by air, all adding 93 significantly to the carbon emissions (Aall et al., 2011). In light of expected global population 94 95 figures, i.e. approximately nine billion people in 2050, it is calculated that food production will need to be doubled by that time (Foley et al., 2011). As a result, the term sustainable diets 96 97 have gained ground, concerning the fact that what we eat affects not only our health, but also our environment, economy and culture. The complexity of the term is captured in a recent 98 99 definition introduced by the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO):

Sustainable diets are those diets with low environmental impacts which contribute to food and
 nutrition security and to healthy life for present and future generations. Sustainable diets are
 protective and respectful of biodiversity and ecosystems, culturally acceptable, accessible,
 economically fair and affordable; nutritionally adequate, safe and healthy; while optimizing
 natural and human resources (FAO, 2012).

105 Is there such a thing as sustainable physical activity?

Implications for general health and cardiorespiratory fitness have formed the basis for World 106 107 Health Organization's physical activity guidelines (WHO, 2010). From a health perspective, frequency, intensity and duration of the activity are the most important factors, not type of 108 109 activity. Nevertheless, various types of physical activity might provide equal health benefits, but have very different environmental impact. For instance bicycling from our home instead 110 of driving to a fitness center to attend a spinning class, would favor the environment by 111 reducing vehicle-related carbon emissions. Although the link between physical activity and 112 food procurement has been diminished, our genes are mainly the same as 40000 years ago. 113 Thus humans have evolved to engage in physical activity in order to develop and function 114 optimally (Cordain et al., 1998), and to prevent non-communicable diseases (Mathers et al., 115 2009, Eaton et al., 2002). Inspired by FAO's holistic definition on sustainable diets, and the 116

close interconnection between diet and physical activity as lifestyle behaviors, we introducethe concept of sustainable physical activity defined as:

Sustainable physical activity includes those activities that are conducted with sufficient
duration, intensity and frequency for promoting health, yet without excessive expenditure of
energy for food, transportation, training facilities or equipment. Sustainable physical activities
have low environmental impact and they are culturally and economically acceptable and
accessible.

Based on this definition, we will discuss if there is such a thing as sustainable physical
activity, and suggest certain physical activity habits due to their potentially sustainable
properties.

127 Discussion

128 Active transportation

129 Trend data for high-income countries indicate that occupational (work-related) physical activity has decreased while leisure physical activity has increased in the past 20-30 years 130 (Hallal et al., 2012, Borodulin et al., 2015). Also, there are major differences in active 131 transportation habits across countries, even where geography, population density, and climate 132 are apparently similar (Hallal et al., 2012). Strong policies and effective urban designs are 133 needed in order to increase the safety, appeal and acceptability of walking and bicycling 134 through creation of environments facilitating active transportation (Woodcock et al., 2009, 135 Das and Horton, 2012). Assuming that transportation is necessary in everyday life, it is likely 136 that active transportation could represent a time-efficient and thus feasible approach for 137 increasing levels of physical activity (de Nazelle et al., 2011). Active transportation 138 incorporating both walking and bicycling has shown to associate with an overall 11 % 139 reduction in cardiovascular risk (Hamer and Chida, 2008). Accordingly, active transportation 140 has been reported to relate inversely with metabolic risk factors for cardiovascular disease, 141 142 prevalence of diabetes type 2, obesity, and cancer, and positively with physical fitness (de Nazelle et al., 2011). Moreover, prospective studies have found that using a bicycle for 143 144 transportation decreases the mortality risk by approximately one third (Andersen et al., 2000, 145 Matthews et al., 2007), and in some countries obesity rates tend to increase in tandem with a 146 decrease in active transportation (Saunders et al., 2013). Yet, the causal pathways of obesity are complex, and current literature provides little robust evidence for the effectiveness of 147 148 interventions targeting active transportation, on obesity reduction (Saunders et al., 2013). In

total, it is proposed that increased active transportation may benefit public health mainly

- through more physical activity for the commuters themselves, but also for the population in
- 151 general due to a decrease in air pollution (de Nazelle et al., 2011). Also, a lesser demand for
- and thus less production of motor vehicles, would result in decreased carbon emissions
- 153 (Berners-Lee, 2010).

154 Close to 23 % of current global greenhouse gas emissions result from transport activities (de Nazelle et al., 2011). Predictions regarding changes in emissions due to mode shifts are 155 complex and uncertain, and there are currently few real-world examples (de Nazelle et al., 156 2011). Still, it was estimated in a transport scenario for year 2030, that a combination of 157 active transportation and lower-emission motor vehicles could reduce annual CO2 emissions 158 in London and Delhi with 38 % and 48 %, respectively, entailing major health benefits 159 (Woodcock et al., 2009). Numerous factors affect calculations of carbon footprint, not the 160 least food choices. For example, if one obtains the energy required for cycling one mile from 161 asparagus transported by aircraft from afar, the carbon emissions would be about the same as 162 if driving a mile with a large SUV (Berners-Lee, 2010). The carbon impact from driving one 163 164 mile is suggested to range from 344 g CO₂e to 2240 g CO₂e, depending on what car one drives, where, and how one drives it (Berners-Lee, 2010). Large pick-ups are estimated to 165 cause about five times the global warming costs per mile, as compared with a small hybrid 166 vehicle (Lemp and Kockelman, 2008). Nevertheless, bicycling is generally far more carbon-167 friendly than driving, independent of car type. Different energy sources would naturally entail 168 169 different energy impact, yet even if all cars were powered by electricity, it would still demand considerably more energy to move the mass of a car than the mass of a bicycle. Also, electric 170 bicycles are becoming more widely used, and emissions of regulated pollutants may be 171 significantly reduced if electric bikes gradually replace cars and mopeds (Abagnale et al., 172 2015). 173

174 Community-based physical activity

Physical activity conducted in the local community makes motorized transportation
redundant, favoring the environment through less use of fossil fuel and decreased emissions
of climate gases. Some forms of exercise, like running and walking, may be conducted
equally well from where we live, instead of driving to the gym in order to use a treadmill.
The opposite of community-based physical activity is the trend that many people travel all
over the world to be physically active, e.g. snorkeling the reefs of Belize, or skiing in the

- 181 Alps, which does clearly not represent a sustainable lifestyle. Results from a Norwegian study
- has shown that the most energy-intensive forms of leisure consumption, e.g. holiday journeys
- by air, seem to increase the most (Aall, 2011). Additionally, leisure activities in general have
- become more transport intensive, and the share of private car use for long-distance
- transportation to outdoor recreation areas has expanded (Aall et al., 2011).

186 *Children and youth*

Regarding youth leisure activities, those conducted locally and in sport clubs in the 187 neighborhood, allowing children and adolescents to walk or bike to their activities, would be 188 advantageous. This in turn highlights the importance of the building and spatial planning 189 facilitating physical activity in the local community, as a means to increase daily levels of 190 physical activity. Nevertheless, building environments providing features expected to 191 facilitate children's play and walking have shown to influence younger children's moderate-192 vigorous activity negatively, whereas small to moderate positive effects for adolescents' 193 194 activity levels were reported (McGrath et al., 2015).

195 *Adults and elderly*

Access to nature within the living environment tend to be associated with more physical 196 activity and active lifestyles, yet individual characteristics and environmental barriers are 197 likely to impact the relationship (Calogiuri and Chroni, 2014). Despite the lack of a consistent 198 pattern, some studies have reported positive associations between objectively measured 199 physical activity and access to parks (Bancroft et al., 2015). Also, living in neighborhoods 200 with higher street connectivity, land use mix and residential density, referred to as 201 neighborhood walkability, has been associated with nearly 800 more steps per day in adults, 202 203 i.e. nearly 8 % of the recommended daily amount of steps (Hajna et al., 2015). Concerning elderly, studies investigating associations between the physical environment and total physical 204 205 activity, and also specific physical activity domains, reveal inconsistent results (Van Cauwenberg et al., 2011). Although methodological limitations could distort observed 206 207 associations, the conflicting results also express the challenge and significance of creating 208 environments promoting physical activity throughout the life course.

209 Equipment

Various equipment and labor saving devices have gradually replaced manual work, both in
private homes and at workplaces. Less effort, and to a certain degree less time, is spent to

accomplish everyday tasks, and physical disabilities caused by continuous heavy labor have 212 been reduced (Hallal et al., 2012). Yet, there is a price to pay for this drive for productivity 213 and convenience in the shape of a more sedentary lifestyle, and thus enhanced prevalence of 214 non-communicable diseases (Lee et al., 2012). Furthermore, the proliferation of electronics 215 and various household devices in the average home has caused a rapid increment in electricity 216 expenditure, especially in OECD countries (Cabeza et al., 2014). In non-OECD countries 217 218 experiencing income growth, procurement of household appliances is expected to cause 219 significant carbon footprints due to the carbon intensive electricity production in several of these countries (Cabeza et al., 2014). In addition to the direct emissions related to the use of 220 household equipment, the indirect emissions are remarkable, i.e. energy required for 221 222 production, distribution and disposal of goods (Kok et al., 2006). Clearly it would not be realistic or desirable to expect people to refrain from basic appliances like washing machines 223 224 and refrigerators which represent an improved standard of living from which we have benefitted for decades. Instead we could question our need for devices and gadgets invented 225 226 mainly for convenience. Although less use of equipment and a higher degree of manual labor might result in a more time consuming lifestyle, it would entail both decreased carbon 227 228 emissions and increased physical activity, and may therefore be worth considering. For 229 example, shoveling snow by hand is estimated to require twice as much energy as riding a snow blower (Ainsworth et al., 2000). Moreover, a recent pilot study assessing the physical 230 activity level during bread baking showed that on average the ten participants obtained 16.2 231 minutes of moderate physical activity, out of in total 28 minutes (Karlsen, 2015). This 232 elucidates the potential to meet the minimum level of physical activity required for health 233 through everyday activities, which in turn could save time otherwise needed for engaging in 234 additional physical activity. Also, facilities like sports halls, indoor ice rinks, ski lifts etc., 235 236 entail increased emissions through energy demands for construction and operation. Activities requiring less equipment and amenities would be more carbon friendly (Schmidt, 2006) and 237 thus preferable. Artificial needs constructed by the market forces and personal attitudes may 238 239 also play a part, as the amount of equipment considered necessary for conducting sports is probably highly relative. Nevertheless, in Norway, and likely in other rich Western countries 240 as well, a strong materialization of leisure activities has taken place, entailing increased 241 demand for specialized equipment and clothing (Aall et al., 2011). 242

243 Energy expenditure

An individual's basal metabolic rate, i.e. the threshold for maintaining bodily functions, 244 generally accounts for 60-70 % of total energy expenditure with variation by age, body mass, 245 height and sex, and represents the fundamental basis for estimating energy requirements in 246 humans (Shetty, 2005). Total energy expenditure is often calculated as multiples of basal 247 metabolic rate, commonly referred to as the PAL index (Shetty, 2005). A PAL of 1.4 indicates 248 a sedentary lifestyle, while the recommended PAL of 1.75 requires an occupation involving 249 250 regular physical activity, or conducting regular exercise (Saris et al., 2003). From an 251 evolutionary perspective the latter energy expenditure is still limited, as it has been calculated 252 that the total energy expenditure of a typical current Westerner is about 65 % of that of Paleolithic Stone Agers (Cordain et al., 1998). 253

254 *Physical activity recommendations*

The many health benefits from physical activity are well documented (WHO, 2010), and 255 adults are recommended to do at least 150 minutes of moderate-intensity aerobic physical 256 257 activity, or at least 75 minutes of vigorous-intensity aerobic physical activity, or a combination of these, every week. Also, muscle-strengthening activities involving major 258 259 muscle groups should be conducted on two or more days a week (WHO, 2010, Helsedirektoratet, 2014), and sedentary time should be reduced (Helsedirektoratet, 2014). For 260 261 further health promotion and maintenance of a healthy body composition, weekly amount of physical activity is suggested to be doubled (WHO, 2010, Helsedirektoratet, 2014). Despite 262 263 methodological limitations and challenges regarding physical activity monitoring, there are substantial disparities in physical activity levels across regions and populations where 264 surveillance has been conducted. Worldwide, one third of adults and four-fifths of adolescents 265 do not reach physical activity guidelines (Hallal et al., 2012) something which is further 266 267 estimated to cause 6-10 % of the major non-communicable diseases of coronary heart disease, type II diabetes, breast- and colon cancer, and 9 % of premature deaths (Lee et al., 2012). 268 Concerning daily energy expenditures for physical activity, calculations have suggested that 269 modern sedentary adults reach about 38 % of that of a typical hunter-gatherer (Cordain et al., 270 1998). In order to approximate these differences, about one additional hour of aerobic 271 physical activity daily would be required (Saris et al., 2003). 272

273 Energy balance

If physical activity increases to recommended levels for the population as a whole, it will alsoincrease total energy expenditure. Despite variability in biological responsiveness between

individuals, long-term increased energy expenditure is related to increased basal hunger 276 (Blundell et al., 2015). Consequently, overall energy intake is likely to increase (Blundell et 277 al., 2015), probably entailing the need for enhanced food production. Therefore, it is 278 reasonable to believe that with increased PA levels, as recommended, more food is needed. 279 Diet and food production represents a major issue regarding global sustainability (FAO, 280 2012), however, different foods and different food production methods have greatly different 281 282 impact. For illustration, greenhouse gas emissions per gram of protein for ruminant meat are 283 about 250 times those of legumes (Tilman and Clark, 2014). Simultaneously, rising incomes and urbanization drives a dietary transition entailing, among others, increased meat 284 consumption (Tilman and Clark, 2014). Worldwide dietary energy supply for the years 2014-285 286 2016 is calculated to be 12 146 kJ per person per day, which should be sufficient for meeting energy requirements for the current world population (FAO, 2013). Still, approximately a 287 billion people live in chronic hunger (FAO, 2012), while about 1.9 billion adults are 288 overweight or obese (WHO, 2011). This clearly expresses the pivotal role of food, yet a 289 290 comprehensive discussion regarding food issues is beyond the scope of this paper.

291 Still, overconsumption of energy resulting in accumulation of fat tissue and weight gain may be considered indirect food waste, and the current obesity epidemic illustrates global 292 imbalance in energy distribution. In 2010 high BMI (>25 kg/m²) represented the sixth leading 293 risk for deaths worldwide, and overweight and obesity were estimated to cause 3.4 million 294 deaths and 3.8 % of disability-adjusted life-years (Lim et al., 2013). Between 1980 and 2013 295 the prevalence of overweight and obesity combined increased by 27.5 % for adults and 47.1 296 % for children, yet since 2006 weight gain seem to have attenuated in developed countries 297 (Ng et al., 2014). Obesity is clearly not sustainable, yet to decrease food intake in order to 298 feed more people and prevent excessive weight gain, is not a simple task. The mismatch 299 300 between biological predispositions and current food environment (Cordain et al., 1998) is illustrated by the fact that no country has achieved a significant decrease in obesity rates 301 during the last 33 years (Ng et al., 2014). More specific, Lobstein calculated that an 8 % 302 reduction of current food purchase patterns in the UK would be required over a period of at 303 least 3 years, in order to reduce population BMI to 1980 levels (Lobstein, 2011). In order to 304 achieve and maintain energy balance, the overall rate of energy movement, referred to as 305 energy flux, has been emphasized by some researchers (Hand and Blair, 2014, Blair et al., 306 2015). It is proposed that a high energy flux, meaning high levels of both energy intake and 307 308 expenditure, is likely to reflect the optimal strategy for maintaining a healthy weight, as well

- 309 as improving metabolic parameters (Hand and Blair, 2014). However, weighting up both
- resource demands, food production, and human biology, it could be assumed that a level of
- 311 physical activity meeting the minimum requirements for health would be the most sustainable
- one, yet may not optimal from an evolutionary point of view (Cordain et al., 1998).

313 **Perspective**

Globally, a third of adults and four-fifths of adolescents ought to be more physically active in 314 order to promote health and prevent major non-communicable diseases. Nevertheless, in light 315 of upcoming resource challenges and the fact that various types of physical activity could 316 provide equal health benefits yet different environmental impacts, types of physical activity 317 should be taken into account. Therefore, in order to bridge the topical issues of sustainability 318 and physical activity, which is previously undone, the aim of the present paper was to 319 introduce the concept sustainable physical activity, and suggest certain physical activity habits 320 321 due to their potentially sustainable properties:

- Active transportation represents a carbon-friendly mean of transportation, as well as
 an opportunity for enhanced physical activity levels.
- Physical activity conducted in the local community is likely to favor sustainability
 from a broad perspective.
- Going "back to basic" using less equipment and appliances for everyday tasks could
 contribute towards energy balance through increased physical activity, and could also
 decrease resource use.
- Balancing food intake and energy expenditure would require less food production with
 accompanying energy savings.
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