

1 **Diurnal profiles of physical activity and postures derived from wrist-worn**  
2 **accelerometry in UK adults**

3

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Running title: **Wrist movement and postures**

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## 7 **ABSTRACT**

### 8 **Background**

9 Wrist-worn accelerometry is the commonest objective method for measuring physical activity  
10 in large-scale epidemiological studies. Research-grade devices capture raw triaxial  
11 acceleration which, in addition to quantifying movement, facilitates assessment of orientation  
12 relative to gravity. No population-based study has yet described the interrelationship and  
13 variation of these features by time and personal characteristics.

### 14 **Methods**

15 2043 UK adults (35-65years) wore an accelerometer on the non-dominant wrist and a chest-  
16 mounted combined heart-rate-and-movement sensor for 7days free-living. From raw (60Hz)  
17 wrist acceleration, we derived movement (non-gravity acceleration) and pitch and roll (arm)  
18 angles relative to gravity. We inferred physical activity energy expenditure (PAEE) from  
19 combined sensing and sedentary time from approximate horizontal arm-angle coupled with  
20 low movement.

### 21 **Results**

22 Movement differences by time-of-day and day-of-week were associated with arm-angles;  
23 more movement in downward arm-positions. Mean(SD) movement was similar between  
24 sexes ~31(42)mg, despite higher PAEE in men, 53(22) vs 48(19)J·min<sup>-1</sup>·kg<sup>-1</sup>. Women spent  
25 longer with the arm pitched >0° (53% vs 36%) and less time at <0° (37% vs 53%). Diurnal  
26 pitch was 2.5-5° above and 0-7.5° below horizontal during night and daytime, respectively;  
27 corresponding roll angles were ~0° and ~20° (thumb-up). Differences were more pronounced  
28 in younger participants. All diurnal profiles indicated later wake-times on weekends. Daytime  
29 pitch was closer to horizontal on weekdays; roll was similar. Sedentary time was higher (17  
30 vs 15hours/day) in obese vs normal-weight individuals.

### 31 **Conclusions**

32 More movement occurred in arm positions below horizontal, commensurate with activities  
33 including walking. Findings suggest time-specific population differences in behaviours by  
34 age, sex, and BMI.

### 35 **Keywords**

36 Pitch angle ▪ Roll angle ▪ Movement ▪ Signal Processing ▪ BMI ▪ PAEE ▪ Sedentary

37 Behaviour

## 38 BACKGROUND

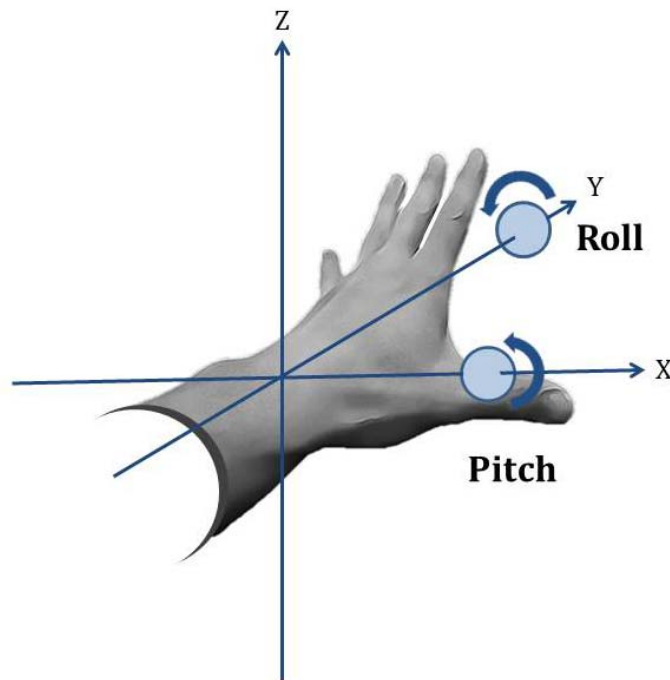
39 Wrist-worn accelerometry has become a feasible option for the objective measurement of  
40 physical activity in large-scale epidemiological studies, such as Pelotas birth cohorts, the UK  
41 Biobank and Whitehall II (1–3). Additionally, public adoption of consumer-grade wearable  
42 devices that include accelerometry has been increasing steadily in recent years (4–6), with  
43 potential utility for public health research (7).

44 Accelerometers record a continuous time-series of data and recent advances in the technology  
45 and battery life allow for ubiquitous capture of raw accelerometer signals which have the  
46 potential to provide insights to interventional and epidemiological studies. Several features  
47 can be easily extracted from the acceleration signal, including the magnitude of movement  
48 and the orientation of the accelerometer with respect to gravity.

49 Previous research using wrist accelerometry has described variation in population physical  
50 activity expressed predominantly as the activity-related acceleration magnitude. For example,  
51 da Silva et al noted age and sex differences in three Brazilian birth cohorts from Pelotas  
52 assessed at the ages 6, 18, and 30 years of age (1), and Doherty et al described the unique  
53 diurnal patterns of physical activity by age group, documenting that the lower activity levels  
54 generally observed in older adults are particularly pronounced in the later hours in the day  
55 (2). Magnitude-based measures of activity have also been related to health outcomes, such as  
56 body composition and fitness (7,8).

57 Less attention has been given to the description of orientation-related measures of human  
58 behaviour. Pitch and roll angles are examples of well-defined, biomechanically relevant and  
59 easy-to-interpret signal features that describe device orientation. In figure 1, we illustrate  
60 pitch and roll for an individual with an accelerometer placed on the left wrist, and axes  
61 aligned as shown. Body posture is by definition a description of angles of all segments of the

62 body which can in theory all be measured but in practice usually are not in studies of free-  
63 living behaviour. However, as body segments are connected, and therefore range of motion is  
64 restricted, measurements and their derivatives are highly correlated (9). This allows  
65 inferences from the measurement of one body site to be made on whole-body posture. For  
66 example, previous work has shown strong correlations between time spent sedentary inferred  
67 from wrist accelerometry (by combining information on acceleration magnitude and pitch  
68 angle) and thigh accelerometry ( $r \sim 0.93$ ) (10).



69

70 **Figure 1: Schematic of Pitch and Roll on participant with accelerometer on the left**  
71 **wrist, including axes alignment. Roll is defined by rotation around the Y axis, while**  
72 **Pitch is defined by rotation around the X axis. (Note that axis labelling depends on**  
73 **study protocol and device specifications).**

74

75 Sedentary behaviour can be defined as any waking behaviour that is characterized by an  
76 energy expenditure  $\leq 1.5$  METs while the subject is engaging in either sitting, lying or  
77 reclining postures (11). People spend the majority of their time in sedentary behaviours, and  
78 the proportion of time spent sedentary increases as people age (12). High volumes of  
79 sedentary behaviour have been associated with increased mortality and risk of developing  
80 chronic conditions (12–16). This only seems to be eliminated by very high levels of moderate  
81 intensity physical activity (60-75 min per day, i.e. equivalent to double the amount currently  
82 recommended for adults (14)). However, most of this evidence base is based on self-reported  
83 sedentary and activity estimates which come with important methodological limitations and  
84 bias (17).

85 Consequently, objectively assessing sedentary behaviours, as well as characterizing different  
86 activities performed during daily living may be critical to inform public health  
87 recommendations. Traditionally, sedentary and active behaviours were characterized using  
88 such intensity derived measures from the accelerometer signal. Supplementary Figure 1  
89 provides a visual representation of triaxial wrist acceleration (top panel) during four common  
90 activities of lying, walking, sitting, and cycling, alongside derived pitch and roll angles  
91 (bottom panel), demonstrating clear differences between activity types. When assessing  
92 activity patterns, diurnal profiles of pitch and roll combined with movement intensity metrics  
93 may allow us to further understand how different postures relate to different activities and  
94 activity intensities.

95

96 In this study, we describe the distribution of wrist postures, acceleration, derived sedentary  
97 time and PAEE in a large cohort of UK adults (n=2043 participants). These analyses allow us  
98 to further understand the distribution of sedentary and active behaviours in the population and

99 how this distribution may differ based on time of the day, sex, age, body mass index (BMI)  
100 and some other substrata. Ultimately, the methodology developed for the work presented  
101 aims to help inform how changes in sedentary and active behaviours may impact energy  
102 expenditure.

## 103 **METHODS:**

### 104 *Study Population*

105 The Fenland Study is an ongoing prospective cohort study of 12,435 men and women aged  
106 35-65 years, designed to identify the behavioural, environmental and genetic causes of  
107 obesity and type-2 diabetes. As previously described in detail, participants attended one of  
108 three clinical research facilities in the region surrounding Cambridge, UK, and completed a  
109 series of physical assessments and questionnaires (18). Exclusion criteria for participation in  
110 the study were: clinically diagnosed diabetes mellitus, inability to walk unaided, terminal  
111 illness, clinically diagnosed psychotic disorder, pregnancy or lactation. Following the  
112 baseline clinic visit, all participants were asked to wear a combined heart rate and movement  
113 sensor (Actiheart, CamNtech, Cambridgeshire, UK) for 6 consecutive days and nights, and a  
114 subsample of 2100 participants were asked to simultaneously wear a wrist accelerometer  
115 (GeneActiv, ActivInsights, Cambridgeshire, UK) on the non-dominant wrist. This subsample  
116 constitutes the sampling frame for the current analyses. Participants were excluded from this  
117 analysis if they had insufficient individual calibration data, or had less than 72h of concurrent  
118 wear data (equivalent of 3 full days of recording). Given only very few participants were very  
119 severely underweight ( $BMI \leq 15$ ) in this subset of the Fenland study, they were also  
120 excluded, resulting in a total of 2043 subjects.

121 All participants provided written informed consent and the study was approved by the local  
122 research ethics committee (NRES Committee – East of England Cambridge Central) and

123 performed in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki.

## 124 ***Data Collection***

### 125 *Physical activity measures*

126 The combined heart rate and movement sensor attached to the participant's chest, measured  
127 heart rate and uniaxial acceleration of the trunk in 15-second intervals (19). The wrist  
128 accelerometer worn on the non-dominant wrist recorded triaxial acceleration at 60 Hertz.  
129 Participants were instructed to wear both waterproof monitors continuously for 6 full days  
130 and nights during free-living conditions, including during showering and while they were  
131 sleeping.

132 During the baseline clinic visit, participants performed a ramped treadmill test to establish  
133 their individual heart rate response to a submaximal exercise test (20). These measurements  
134 produced calibration parameters that were used in a branched equation model of PAEE (21).  
135 Heart rate data collected during free-living was pre-processed to eliminate potential noise  
136 (22), following which the branched equation model was applied to calculate instantaneous  
137 PAEE ( $\text{J}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ ). This inference has been validated against intensity from indirect  
138 calorimetry (23,24) and volume from doubly-labelled water in several populations (25),  
139 including a sample of UK men and women in whom the technique was shown to explain 41%  
140 of the variance in free-living PAEE as well as no mean bias (26).

141 The wrist accelerometer data was processed using pampro, an open-source software package  
142 (27). The triaxial acceleration was auto-calibrated to local gravitational acceleration using a  
143 method described elsewhere (28). Non-wear time was defined as time periods where the  
144 standard deviation of the acceleration in each of the three axes fell below 13mg for over an  
145 hour, inferring that the device was completely stationary (29). When a non-wear period was



146 detected, it was removed from the analyses. The magnitude of acceleration was calculated  
147 using *Vector Magnitude* (VM) (expressed in milli-g/mg) per sample:

148 
$$VM(X,Y,Z)=\sqrt{(X^2 + Y^2 + Z^2)}$$

149 VM, or Euclidean Norm, can be interpreted as the magnitude of acceleration the device was  
150 subjected to at each measurement, which includes gravitational acceleration. Any potential  
151 noise component in the high-frequency domain was filtered out by a 20 Hertz low-pass filter.  
152 To isolate the movement-related acceleration, we also applied a high-pass Butterworth filter  
153 to the VM signal at 0.2 Hertz (therefore treating gravity as a low-frequency component)  
154 naming the resulting metric Vector Magnitude High-Pass Filtered (VM HPF, expressed in  
155 mg)(7,29). VM HPF is commonly used as a proxy of acceleration resulting from human  
156 movement, has high validity (30), and was the primary description of wrist movement in the  
157 following analyses.

158 When movement-related acceleration is removed by a low-pass filter (0.2 Hertz) to each of  
159 the three axes (X, Y and Z), the residual acceleration signal can be interpreted as a  
160 measurement of the rotated gravitational field vector which can then be used to determine the  
161 accelerometer's pitch and roll orientation angles. Pitch and roll of the device were derived  
162 according to these formulae:

$$Pitch = -\tan^{-1} \frac{\left(\frac{Y}{\sqrt{X^2 + Z^2}}\right) * 180}{\pi}$$

$$Roll = -\tan^{-1} \frac{\left(\frac{X}{\sqrt{Y^2 + Z^2}}\right) * 180}{\pi}$$

163 As the monitor was mounted in such a way that the X-axis was aligned in anatomically  
164 opposite directions for left- and right-handed participants, we multiplied it by -1 for all left-

165 handed participants who wore the monitor on their right wrists to align with the anatomical  
166 coordinate system defined above (examples of untransformed data shown in supplementary  
167 figure 2). Consequently, positive pitch indicates upwards position of the arm (hand above  
168 elbow), while positive roll indicates the lateral (radial, thumb) side of the arm being higher  
169 than the medial (ulnar, pinky) side of the arm.

170 All derived signals were summarized to a common time resolution of one observation per  
171 hour. This window length was chosen since we were mostly interested in observing changes  
172 at a diurnal level, rather than variations within the hour.

173 Using the combined-sensing measurements, participants were stratified by average activity  
174 energy expenditure: lower active ( $\leq 39 \text{ J} \cdot \text{min}^{-1} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$ ), medium ( $40\text{-}56 \text{ J} \cdot \text{min}^{-1} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$ ) and  
175 upper ( $\geq 57 \text{ J} \cdot \text{min}^{-1} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$ ). These activity estimates were calculated for each participant for  
176 each day of the week and then averaged, allowing us to generate a picture of changes in  
177 behaviour over the course of the week.

178 Similarly, we calculated estimates of time spent in sedentary (i.e. sitting or reclining) by  
179 detecting bouts where wrist pitch (i.e. arm elevation) is  $\geq 15^\circ$  below the horizontal, while  
180 wrist acceleration is minimal ( $\text{VM HPF} \leq 47.61 \text{ mg}$ ). This is based on principles from  
181 previously developed methodology which derives sedentary time estimates from wrist  
182 accelerometry data (i.e. sedentary sphere methodology (10)), as well as estimations of  
183 physical activity energy expenditure in free-living using wrist accelerometry (7). The latter  
184 defined the acceleration threshold ( $\text{VM HPF} = 47.61 \text{ mg}$ ) equivalent to 1.5 gross METs  
185 ( $\text{PAEE} = 35.5 \text{ J} \cdot \text{min}^{-1} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$ ) as the cut-off for sedentary behaviour (7). Data in lower latitudes,  
186 that is, less than  $-15^\circ$  from the horizontal, suggest hanging of the arm, associated to standing  
187 behaviours and are hence not classified as sedentary time. Equally, if the mean levels (VM

188 HPF) over a minute fell into the light, moderate or vigorous category, they were not classified  
189 as sedentary behaviour.

190 Using the diurnal profiles derived from the cohort, we studied differences based on sex, age,  
191 activity levels, BMI and time of the day.

## 192 **Statistical analyses**

193 We computed descriptive statistics (mean, median, standard deviation, minimum, maximum  
194 and variance) for the participants in this analysis. We examined wear-time distributions using  
195 the Friedman test for time-of-day (00:00-05:59, 06:00-11:59, and so on in six-hour periods)  
196 and tested the differences in weekdays versus weekend days using Wilcoxon signed ranks.  
197 These tests were performed in men and women separately. Mean acceleration differences  
198 (VM HPF) were examined using ANOVA for time of the day and day of the week.  
199 Differences between men and women are shown by using box plots, providing information  
200 about the median, inter-quartile range, minimum and maximum. We analysed the differences  
201 between different BMI groups (underweight  $\leq 18.5 \text{ kg/m}^2$ , normal weight  $18.5\text{-}24.9 \text{ kg/m}^2$ ,  
202 overweight  $25\text{-}29.9 \text{ kg/m}^2$ , obese  $30\text{-}34.9 \text{ kg/m}^2$  and severely obese  $\geq 35 \text{ kg/m}^2$ ) in both sexes  
203 based on pitch, roll, VM HPF and PAEE. Similarly, we conducted the analysis based on age  
204 group and PAEE levels. These summary statistics were computed at an hourly level after  
205 collapsing information derived on a fifteen-second time window.

206 Furthermore, we tested for differences in time spent in sedentary time across the different  
207 BMI populations using 3-way ANOVA and adjusting for age and sex.

208 Statistical tests were performed using Python (3.6.2) and Stata (v14, StataCorp, TX, USA).

209

210 **RESULTS:**

211 Among the 2043 participants, a total of 286,020 person-hours were included in our analysis,  
212 or an average of 5.8 days per participant. As shown in Table 1, PAEE was higher in men  
213 although both groups had large standard deviations. However, wrist movement was similar  
214 between genders but mean BMI was larger in men than in women for this cohort.

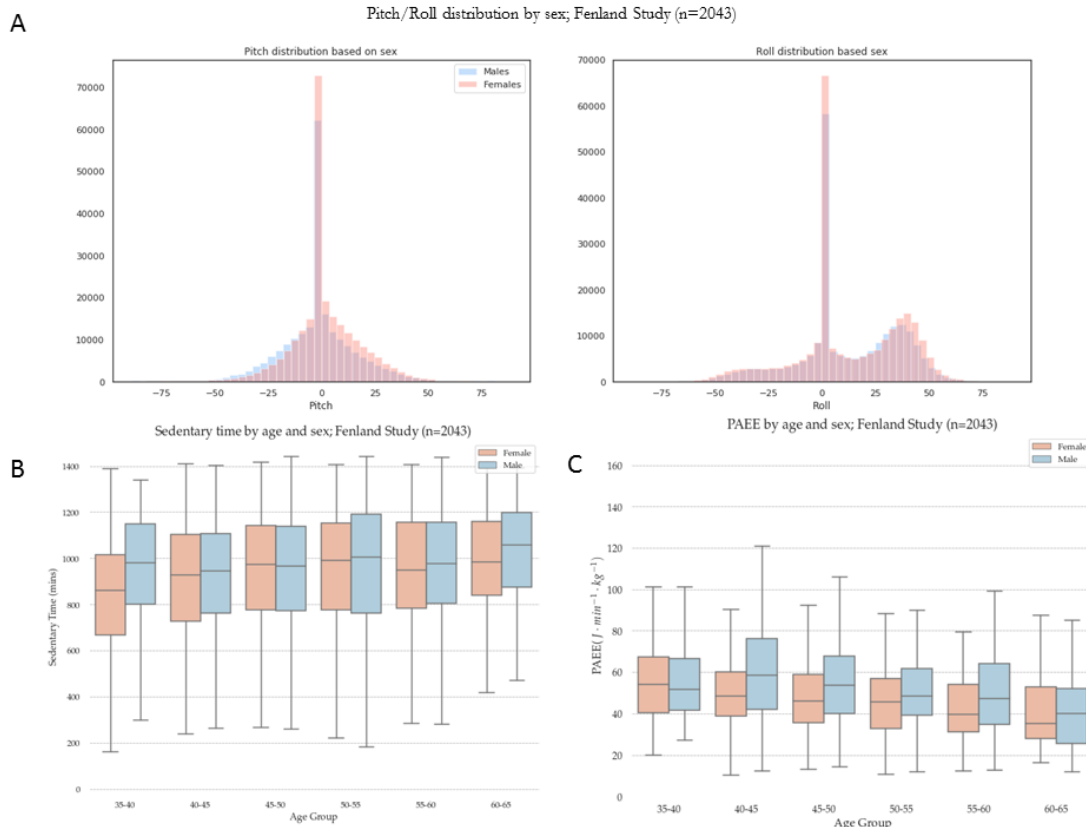
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216 **Table 1:** Characteristics of participants by sex (n=2043)

	Men	Women
N	953	1090
Age (years)	50.9 (7.3)	50.5 (7.1)
Height (m)	1.78 (0.07)	1.64 (0.06)
Weight (kg)	86.2 (14.1)	70.8 (14.3)
BMI (kg·m <sup>-2</sup> )	27.2 (4.2)	26.4 (5.3)
PAEE (J · min <sup>-1</sup> · kg <sup>-1</sup> )	53.1 (21.9)	47.7 (19.1)
Wrist movement, VM HPF (mg)	31.7 (44.9)	31.1 (40.8)

217

*Values are means (standard deviations)*



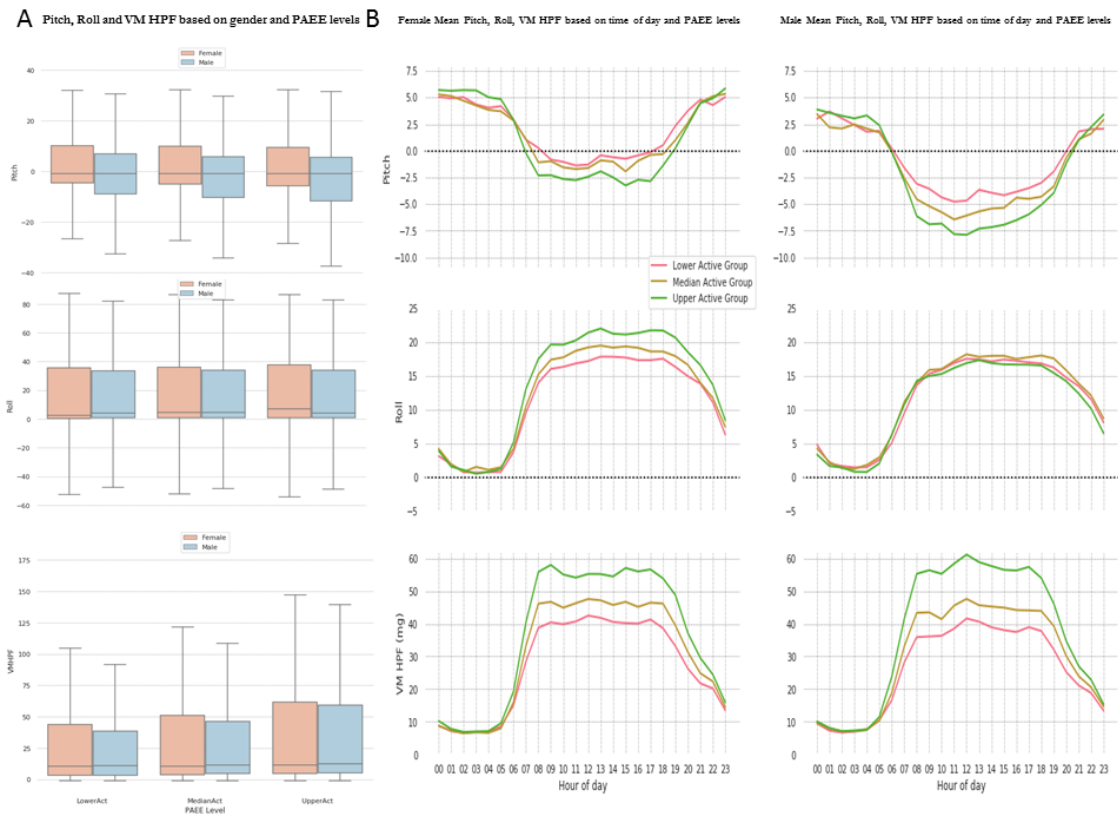
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219 **Figure 2: Pitch and roll (A) distribution among participants, and box plots for time**  
 220 **spent sedentary (B) and PAEE (C) by age group and sex (n=2043).**

221 Figure 2A shows pitch and roll distributions for men and women; a 2-dimensional plot of  
 222 pitch and roll is shown in supplementary figure 3. There is higher occurrence of pitch and roll  
 223 positions around 0° and the roll distribution is distinctly bimodal with an additional peak  
 224 around 35°. Less common are extreme anatomical wrist positions e.g., arms up in the air,  
 225 reflected by a pitch >60°, or the radial (thumb) side of the arm turned inwards and  
 226 downwards as indicated by less roll data below -45°. Figure 2B and 2C shows the differences  
 227 among different age groups for average sedentary time and PAEE respectively. PAEE  
 228 declines with age in both men and women, and there is a tendency for the wrist measure of  
 229 sedentary time to increase with age, showing a close inverse relationship between these two  
 230 measures.

231 **Relation between wrist movement and postures, and physical activity energy**  
232 **expenditure**

233 Figure 3 shows differences in wrist measures by tertile of physical activity energy  
234 expenditure; more active individuals spend more time in low-pitch (below horizontal)  
235 postures; less active participants tend to be spending more time in postures that suggest  
236 sedentary behaviours, such as sitting or reclining. Whilst roll angles differ by activity level in  
237 women, there is almost no difference between groups in men; differences in wrist movement,  
238 however, are very clear in both genders.

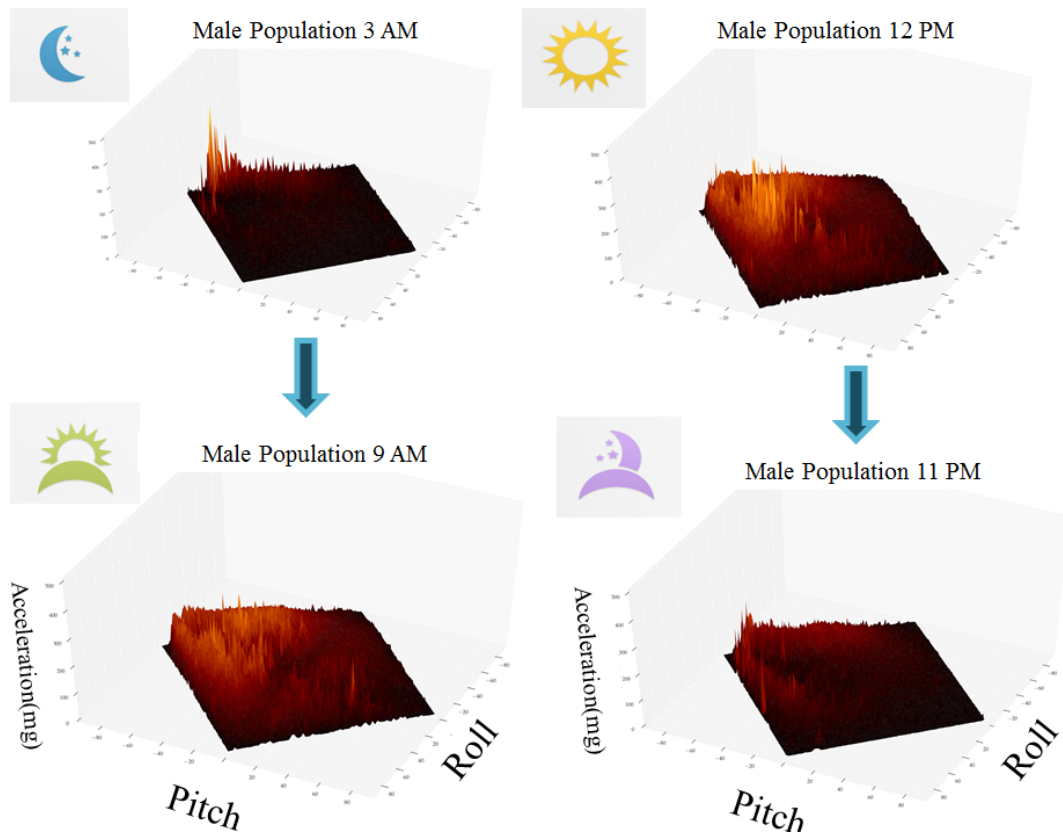


239

240 **Figure 3: Pitch (top panels), Roll (middle panels) and Vector Magnitude High-Pass**  
241 **Filtered (VM HPF) by PAEE level (lower, medium or upper) and gender (A), and**  
242 **diurnal profiles by time of day in women and men (B).**

243 Some of the most visually striking results regarding the role of posture on physical activity  
244 behaviours can be seen in the 3-dimensional time-lapse plots that appear on the online  
245 supplementary online material of this paper (see video). A schematic representation of these  
246 time-lapses is presented in figure 4 at four times of the day.

247

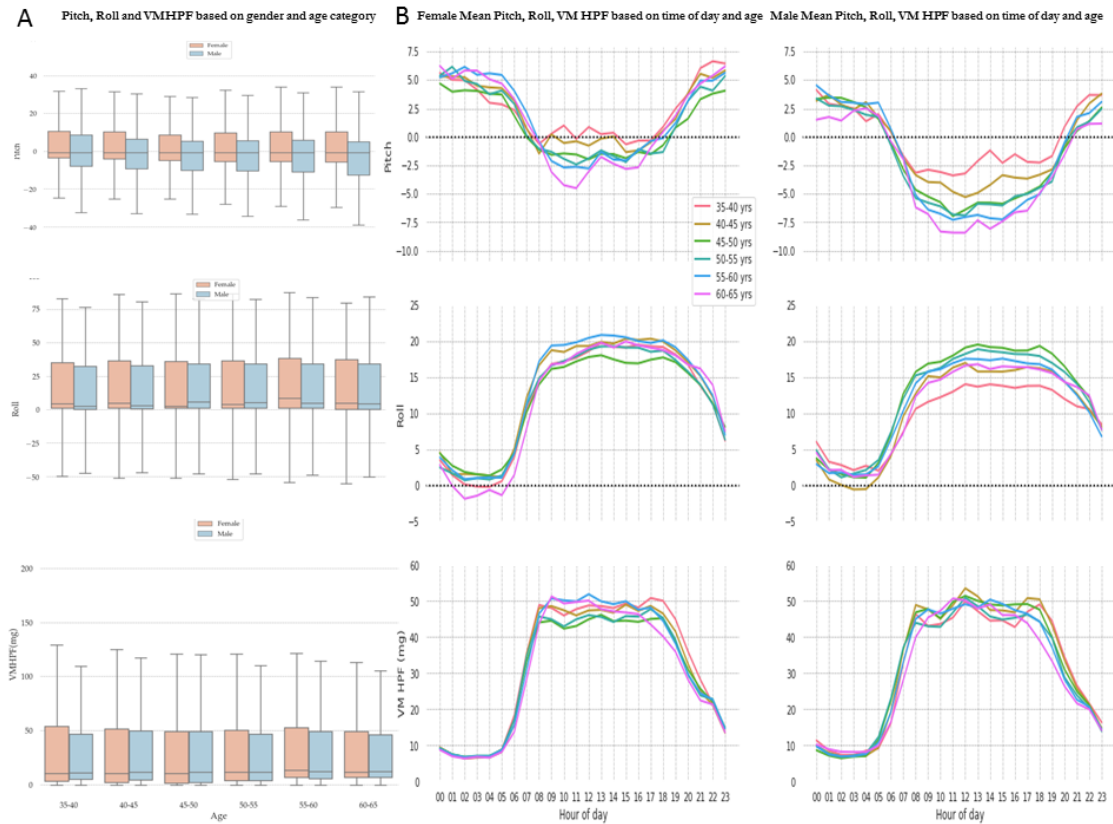


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249 **Figure 4: Schematic representation of time-lapse diurnal change in Pitch and Roll**  
250 **angular profiles and their associated acceleration signal (VM HPF, in mg). All plots**  
251 **have been normalized. (Figure derived from the male population of this analysis n=953).**  
252 **Full videos for both genders available in online supplemental material.**

253

254 **Diurnal Profile Differences by sex and age**



255

256 **Figure 5: Pitch (top panels), Roll (mid panels) and VM HPF (bottom panels) profiles by**  
 257 **time of the day and age group (from 35-40 to 60-65 years old) in women (middle**  
 258 **column) and men (right column). Left column (A) shows participant-level summary**  
 259 **data.**

260 Figure 5 shows the distribution of pitch, roll, and movement intensity across the day,  
 261 stratified by sex and age group. We observe differences between age groups within sex, but  
 262 also differences between men and women within age groups. Most differences between men  
 263 and women occur during the working hours (8 AM to 6PM) of the day, with little differences  
 264 at night although women generally keep their arms at slightly higher pitch throughout the 24  
 265 hours. Some of the biggest differences between age groups in both sexes happen during the  
 266 early hours of the morning and late hours of the evening. Arm angles differ more between

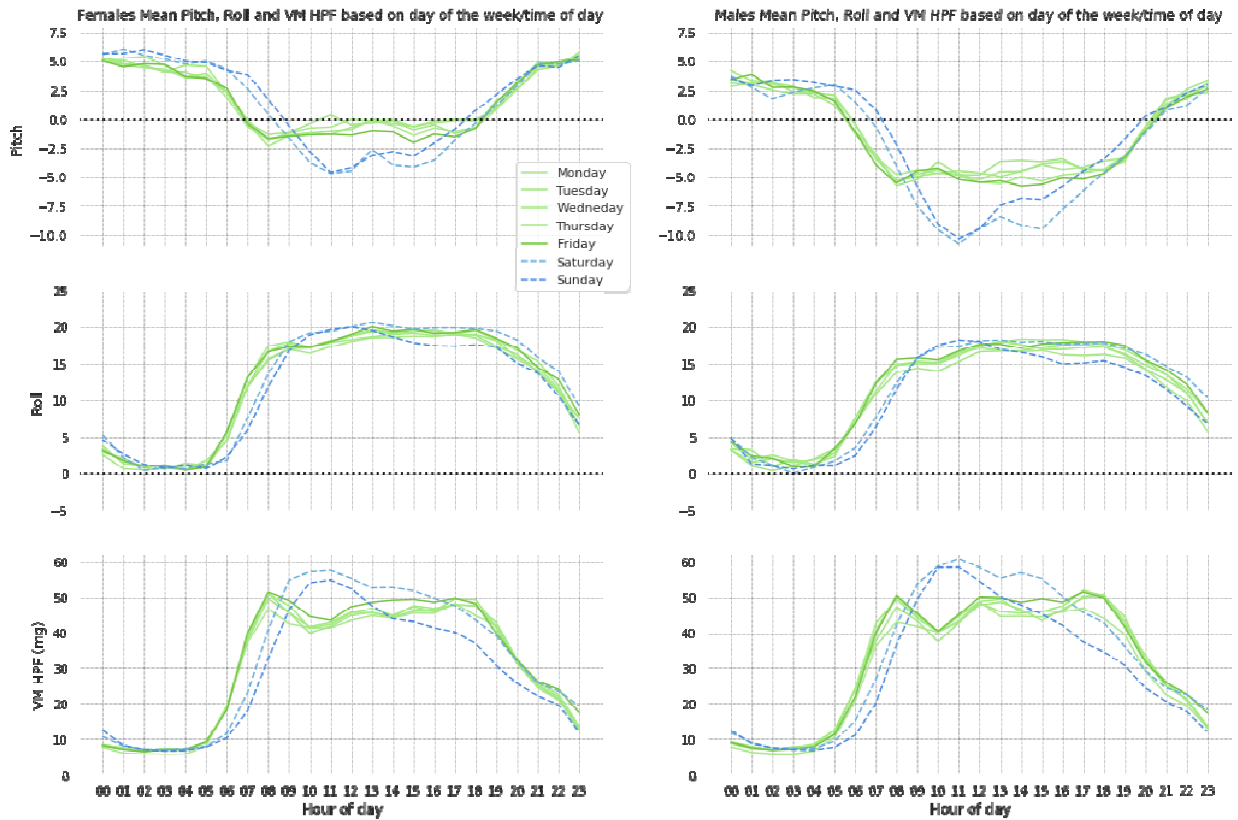


267 age groups in men (lower pitch in older during working hours), and gender differences in  
268 pitch and roll profiles are most apparent among the 35-40 age group.

269

#### 270 **Pitch and Roll Profiles Differ on Weekends versus Weekdays**

271 Figure 6 shows average pitch, roll and movement intensity across the day, separately for each  
272 day of the week, and stratified by sex. The variation between weekdays at a population level  
273 is minimal, but they differ from the diurnal profiles at the weekend and particularly among  
274 sexes. A visible shift on weekend days towards later hours of the morning suggests a “*later*  
275 *start*” to the day, and later bed times on Friday and Saturday nights. The most extreme  
276 postural contrast are seen for pitch angles in men which reach the lowest level at the weekend  
277 (around  $-10^{\circ}$ ) in parallel to highest level of movement; pitch in women is also lower in the  
278 weekend but only to the weekday level of the men (around  $-5^{\circ}$ ) but with a similar level of  
279 movement as men.



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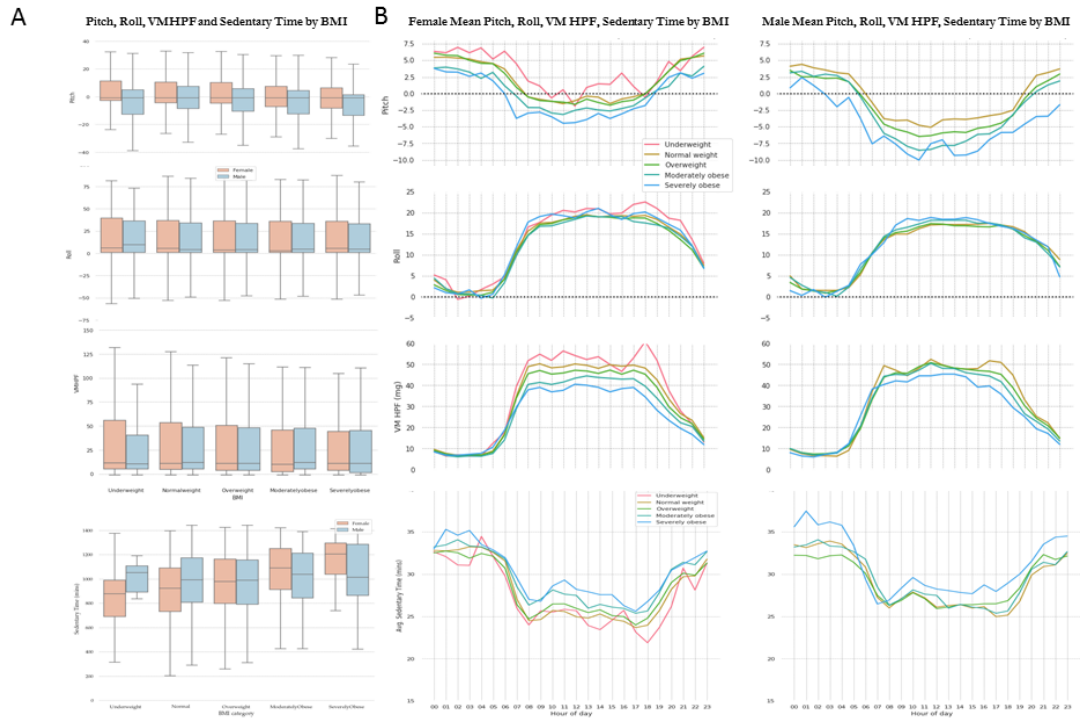
281 **Figure 6: Differences in Pitch, Roll and VM HPF based on day of the week (weekdays in**  
 282 **green, weekends in blue) and time of the day in women and men.**

283

284 **Wrist Accelerometry Profiles by Gender and BMI**

285 The differences in mean VM HPF between the different BMI groups are striking with obese  
 286 individuals moving considerably less than normal-weight but equally notable are differences  
 287 in pitch and roll profiles (Figure 7). Differences among groups were more apparent in men  
 288 than in women when considering the diurnal profile. Somewhat surprisingly, given higher  
 289 movement is generally occurring at the lower pitch angles (figure 3), overweight and obese  
 290 individuals spend more time with their arms in this space but they just do not seem to move  
 291 as much. The underweight women's pitch and roll profile are very different to that observed

292 in the severely obese men, suggesting that the higher level of mean physical activity in this  
293 group is also related to a very different set of activities. These observations are supported by  
294 stark differences on the average time spent in sedentary behaviours stratified by sex and BMI  
295 category, where non-obese participants spent considerably less time in sedentary behaviours  
296 than obese participants, particularly women. Also, the profiles observed in obese men closely  
297 resemble that observed in the oldest age group as presented in figure 5. We confirmed  
298 differences across different BMI groups for average time spent in sedentary behaviours,  
299 following adjustment for age and sex. We found that moderately obese participants spent  
300 significantly more time in sedentary behaviours than normal-weight participants ( $p < 0.001$ ),  
301 and so did severely obese ( $p < 0.001$ ) and even overweight participants ( $p < 0.001$ ). We also  
302 found a strong significant difference between overweight and moderately obese participants  
303 ( $p = 0.0001$ ); however, differences between normal-weight and underweight participants were  
304 not statistically significant ( $p = 0.57$ ).



305

306 **Figure 7: Pitch (top panels), Roll (second row panels), VM HPF (third row panels), and**  
 307 **sedentary time (bottom row panels) profiles by time of the day in women and men,**  
 308 **stratified by BMI categories (ranging from *underweight (BMI: 16-18.5)* to *severely obese***  
 309 **(*BMI $\geq$ 35*)).**

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## 316 **DISCUSSION**

317 In this paper, we have explored the physical space in which physical activity occurs and  
318 described population differences in wrist movement and posture between men and women,  
319 age groups, BMI categories, and physical activity levels in a population sample of UK adults.  
320 Although higher activity was associated with lower pitch profiles, we observed the apparent  
321 paradox that older and more obese individuals who as groups are generally less active also  
322 spend more time at these postures, indicating that these groups either perform different types  
323 of activities or perform them at slower pace.

324 Vector magnitude of movement intensity and pitch-roll angular features can all be considered  
325 direct measures of human behaviour, rather than estimates, as there is very little inference  
326 involved in deriving them; they have biomechanical meaning in their own right as also  
327 illustrated in supplementary figure 1. The estimate of sedentary time, on the other hand, is not  
328 a direct measure but an estimate resulting from an inference but we have included it here to  
329 demonstrate the utility of combining directly measured features. Including movement as well  
330 as pitch, roll (both indicating posture), and sedentary time estimates in our analysis allowed  
331 us to more comprehensively examine differences in human behaviour between time-of-day  
332 and weekdays and weekends, and illustrates the importance of taking all these features into  
333 consideration for large-population studies. Non-surprisingly, our results suggest different  
334 wake-up times between weekdays and weekends; participants seem to wake up later during  
335 the weekends than weekdays. This information is of interest particularly given recent  
336 research suggesting that sleep irregularity may be a risk factor for cardio-metabolic disease  
337 (31). The large differences in movement and postural measures between weekdays and  
338 weekends suggest differences in the type of activities that participants partake in between  
339 weekdays and weekends. These differences are particularly striking when comparing women

340 and men. We found that women spend more time with their wrist elevated above horizontal  
341 than men do (53% of their time vs. 36% for men). Similarly, the pitch and roll profiles  
342 coincide with increases in movement around noon of the weekend days, pointing towards a  
343 behavioural pattern that could be suggestive of “weekend warrior” lifestyle, where  
344 participants tend to do most of their physical activity during the weekend. Further inspection  
345 of the data through visualization techniques (figure 4 and associated video files) suggests that  
346 the activities participants engaged in strongly depended on time-of-day; it is apparent that the  
347 relative occupation of different physical spaces and the relationship between postures and  
348 movement changes drastically depending on the time of the day, indicative of engagement in  
349 different activity types.

350

351 We observed differences between men and women across most other substrata for both  
352 movement (vector magnitude) and posture (pitch and roll) measures, suggesting that men  
353 spent more time in postures that may be suggestive of sedentary behaviour than their female  
354 counterparts (sitting down, lying down). The inferred time estimate for sedentary behaviours  
355 (from vector magnitude and pitch), largely based on the methodology previously described  
356 by Rowlands et al (10), indicated that this was by far the most dominant behaviour across the  
357 whole population (~17 hours/day). However, younger individuals tended to spend less time  
358 than their older counterparts in these sedentary behaviours (suggesting more active lifestyles),  
359 and even starker differences were observed between different BMI groups; individuals with  
360 higher BMI spent the most time in sedentary behaviours, and we statistically confirmed that  
361 this was independent of age and sex.

362 Movement and PAEE were both lower in the older age groups, a similar result to that  
363 observed in other population studies (2,32,33). We observed that older participants (60-65

364 age group) spend a large proportion of their time in postures that are similar to those with  
365 high BMIs, particularly in men. What was slightly paradoxical was that older and obese  
366 individuals spend more time at pitch angles generally associated with higher activity, ie with  
367 the arm below horizontal. As both movement and pitch are direct measurements of what the  
368 arm is physically doing, these results indicate true differences in activities, either as type or  
369 intensity or both. Using the sedentary time estimation methodology, it was suggested that  
370 older and heavier individuals spent more time in sedentary behaviours. Future inference work  
371 on raw non-dominant wrist acceleration signals may further elucidate other differences, for  
372 example in the specific type of activity performed, including the separation of awake  
373 sedentary behaviour and sleep.

374 Strengths of our study includes its standardised placement and 24-hour wear protocol which  
375 ensured greater certainty in the orientation of the accelerometer on each participant; that said,  
376 it is possible that some participants may have removed and replaced their device during the  
377 monitoring period. Still our results may provide guidance on probable axis orientation to  
378 other studies such as UK Biobank which do not have strict device orientation protocols.  
379 Another strength was that both wrist acceleration and PAEE was assessed simultaneously,  
380 thus providing more accurate stratification by PAEE levels; however a limitation of our work  
381 is that we only measured physical activity during one week of monitoring, and this may not  
382 be representative of habitual behaviour in this population. Another potential limitation is the  
383 separation between static and dynamic wrist acceleration; as has been previously addressed,  
384 the high- and low-pass filter parameters does not perfectly discriminate between static and  
385 dynamic and a small proportion of real movement will be missed during rapid rotations (34).  
386 Nonetheless, this is likely to only bias the movement differences we observe towards the null,  
387 since younger and slimmer individuals are more able to produce more rapid movements, and  
388 it will likely not impact much on the postural measures, as the gravitational acceleration

389 component is several orders of magnitude larger than residual movement in the low-pass  
390 filtered signal, thus still returning a valid estimate of the relative distribution of gravity in the  
391 three axes.

## 392 **Conclusions**

393 In conclusion, we found that direct measures of accelerometry-derived arm angles provide  
394 biomechanically meaningful information alongside the more well-established movement  
395 intensity metrics such as vector magnitude to better characterize objectively measured  
396 physical activity in free-living conditions. Movement is more likely to occur at arm angles  
397 below horizontal but despite older and heavier individuals moving less, these individuals still  
398 spend more time at lower arm angles, suggesting population differences in style of movement  
399 which may be important for other health outcomes.

400

## 401 **List of Abbreviations**

402 PAEE: Physical Activity Energy Expenditure, VM: Vector Magnitude, VM HPF: Vector  
403 Magnitude High-Passed Filtered, BMI: Body Mass Index, MET: Metabolic Equivalent Task

404

## 405 **DECLARATIONS**

### 406 **Ethics approval and consent to participate**

407 Ethics approval for the study was obtained from Cambridge University Human Biology  
408 Research Ethics Committee (Ref: HBREC/2015.16) with the ethical standards for human  
409 experimentation established by the Declaration of Helsinki. All participants provided written  
410 informed consent.



411 **Consent for publication**

412 Not applicable

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425 **Competing interests**

426 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

427 **Availability of data and materials**

428 The data analysed during the current study are not publicly available because we have not  
429 obtained consent for public data sharing from the study participants; however data can be  
430 made available for analysis upon reasonable request to the corresponding author.

431 **Author's contributions**

432 IPP processed objective data, created the models, wrote the Python code, designed the  
433 analysis and wrote the manuscript. TW assisted on the analysis pipeline and provided  
434 technical advice on the design of the analysis and manuscript. KWe prepared data for use in  
435 this analysis. KWi provided advice on sedentary behaviours. NW and SB designed the study  
436 and obtained funding. SB assisted with the writing of the manuscript and provided technical  
437 advice on the analysis. All authors edited and approved the final version of the manuscript.

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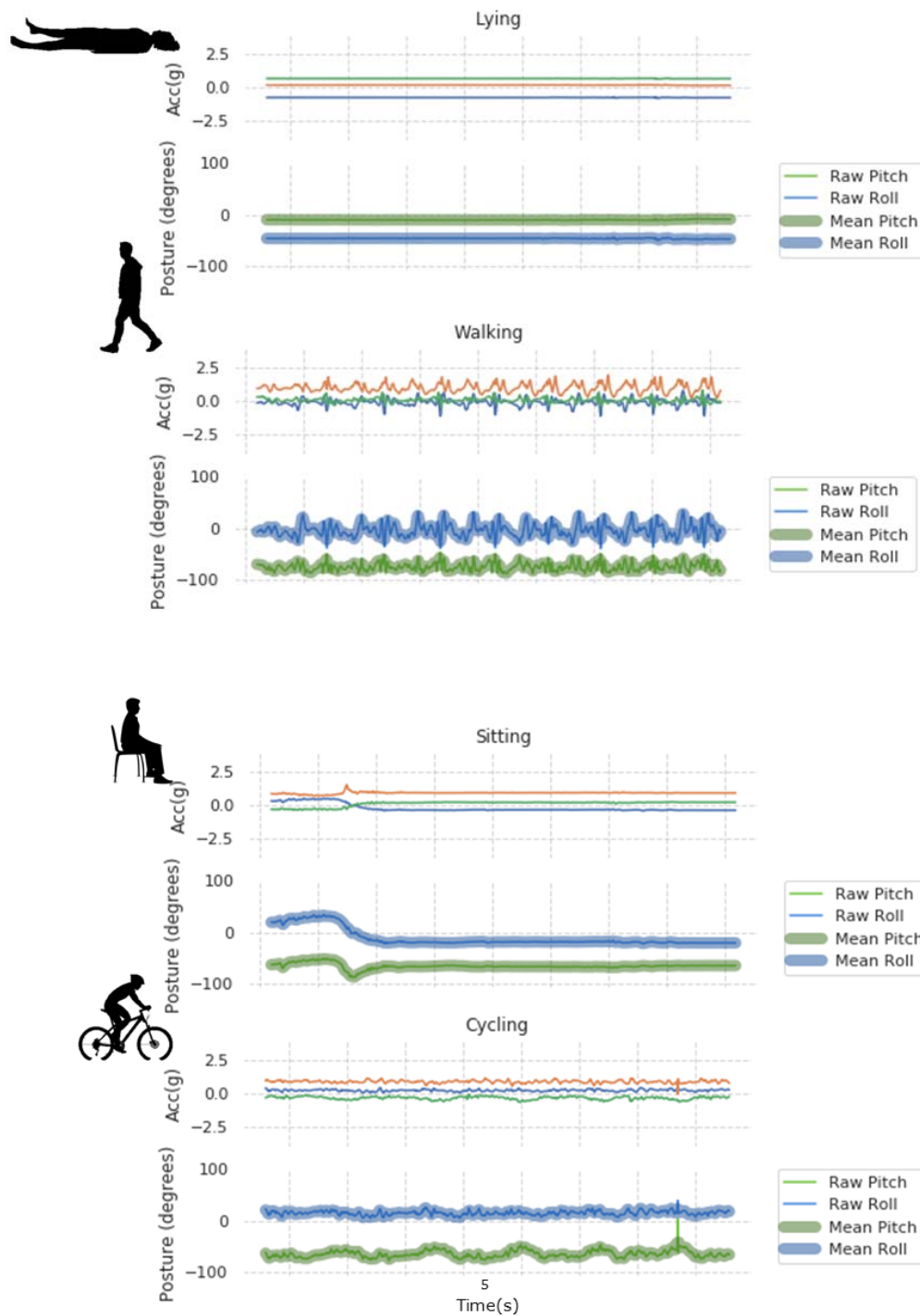
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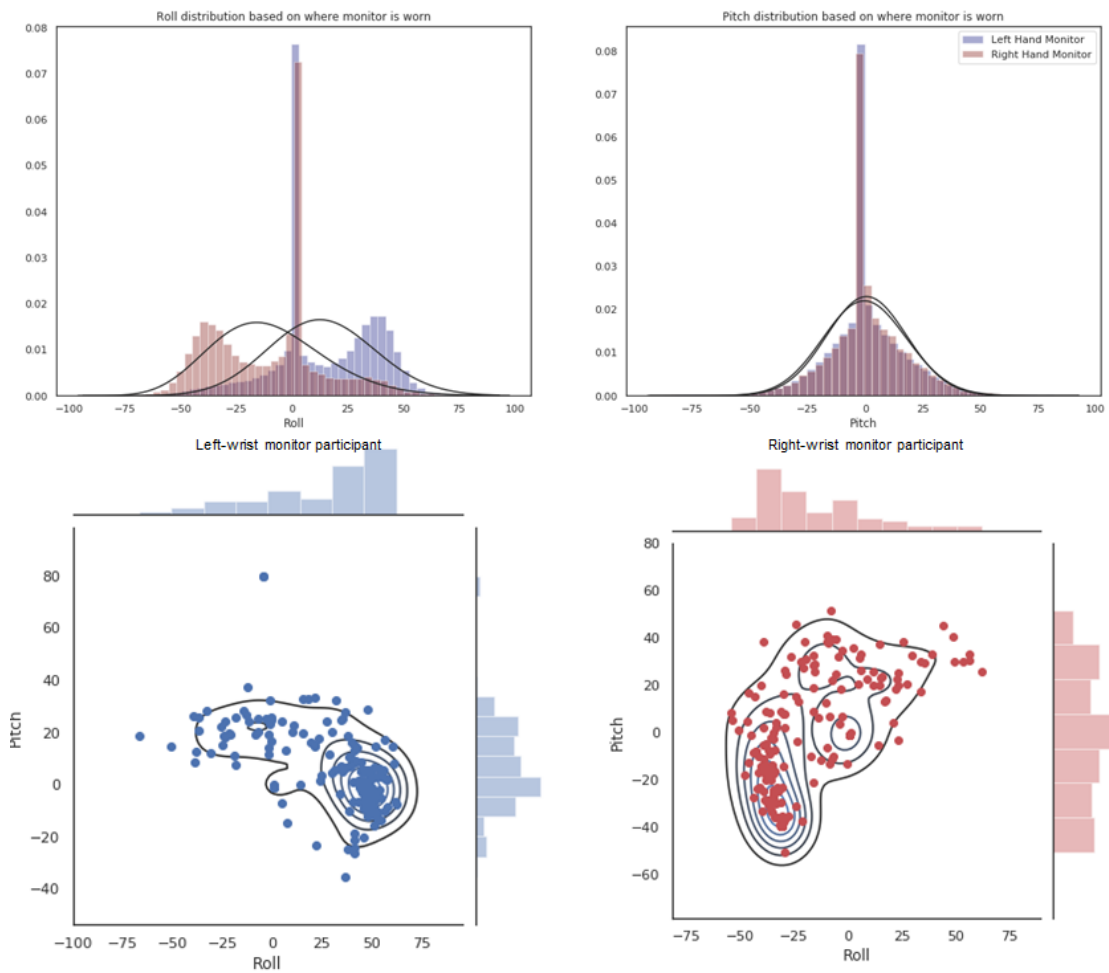
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595 **Supplementary Figure 1: Raw triaxial wrist Acceleration, Pitch and Roll Profiles for**

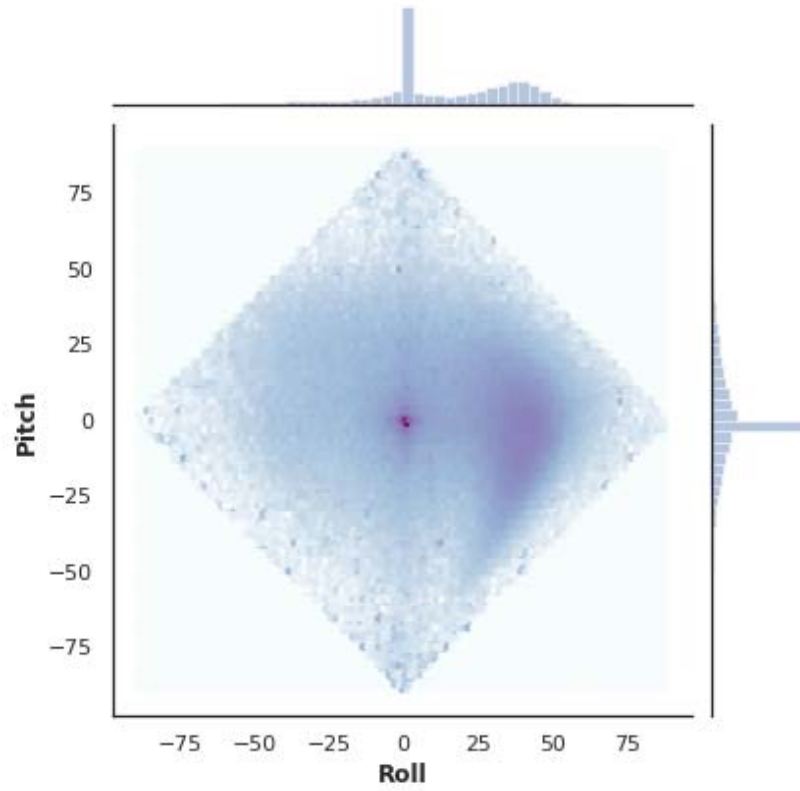
596 **typical daily activities. From top to bottom: lying, walking, sitting and cycling.**

597



598

599 **Supplementary Figure 2: Untransformed Pitch and Roll distributions, stratified by left**  
600 **versus right-hand accelerometer wear (top panel). The two plots underneath show**  
601 **examples of pitch-roll distributions from participants wearing the accelerometer on**  
602 **their left (in blue) and right (in red) hand, respectively.**



603

604 **Supplementary Figure 3: Two-dimensional distribution plot of Pitch and roll. Darker**  
605 **colours indicate higher occurrence of wrist positions**

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