

1 Sedentary behaviours and cognitive function among community
2 dwelling adults aged 50+ years: Results from the Irish Longitudinal
3 Study of Ageing
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35 Abstract

36 **Background:** Sedentary behaviours (SB) are risk factors for poor cardiovascular health and
37 all-cause mortality. However, their role in cognitive health in older adults is unclear. A few
38 studies have examined associations between sedentary behaviours and cognition, but are
39 limited by heterogeneity and insufficient longitudinal analyses. Therefore more robust
40 studies, which would address identified limitations, are needed to accurately determine
41 associations.

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43 **Method:** This study analysed data collected from participants aged 50+ years of The Irish
44 Longitudinal Study of Ageing (TILDA). We conducted cross-sectional linear regression with
45 multivariate imputation analyses of baseline data from wave 1 (N=8163, weekday-sitting
46 time), and wave 3 (N=6400, weekday-television viewing); longitudinal analyses between
47 waves 1-3 (sitting) and waves 3-4 (television). Sedentary behaviours were analysed as both
48 categorical and continuous variables. Outcome of cross-sectional analyses was
49 standardised regression co-efficient of associations sedentary exposures and cognitive
50 function in respective waves, while for longitudinal analyses was cognitive change (verbal
51 memory, verbal fluency, and global cognition) between waves based on standardised
52 residuals.

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54 **Result:** Study found significant but mild cross-sectional associations between one-hour
55 increase in weekday-television viewing and poorer verbal memory ($b=-0.02$, CI:-0.04,-0.003,
56 $P<0.05$) and verbal fluency ($b=-0.02$, CI:-0.04,-0.002, $P<0.05$). Baseline television viewing of
57 3.5+ hours/day had mild but significant association with a decline in verbal fluency two years
58 later in participants aged 65+ years, when compared with a reference category of <1.5 hours
59 of TV viewing. ($b=-0.12$, CI: -0.23,-0.001, $P<0.05$)

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61 **Conclusion:** Our study findings indicated some association between increased levels of
62 weekday-television viewing time, independent of physical activity, and poor cognition cross-
63 sectionally and longitudinally in middle-aged and older adults. Intervention studies are
64 needed to confirm the effects of SB on cognition in older adults. Public health campaigns
65 should be targeted at displacing high levels of television viewing, in excess of 3.5hours/day
66 among older adults.

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75 Introduction

76 Participation in sedentary behaviour may pose risk to health outcomes in adults
77 including all-cause mortality, cardiovascular disease mortality, cardiovascular
78 disease incidence, cancer mortality, cancer incidence, type 2 diabetes incidence and
79 depression (Biswas & Alter, 2015; Vancampfort et al., 2020). By sedentary
80 behaviour, we refer to any waking behaviour characterised by energy expenditure of
81 ≤ 1.5 METs in reclining, lying and sitting postures (Tremblay et al., 2017). Even when
82 adults engage in physical activity, their sedentary levels could still be detrimental to
83 health. A harmonised meta-analysis of over 1 million men and women suggested
84 that high levels of sitting were associated with increased risk of death and only high
85 levels of moderate intensity physical activity (60-75 minutes/day) appeared to
86 mitigate this risk (Ekelund et al., 2016). Further, this review found that an increase in
87 mortality risk was associated with viewing television for more than 3 hours a day,
88 regardless of physical activity levels (Ekelund et al., 2016).

89 Despite accumulating evidence on the adverse health outcomes associated with
90 sedentary behaviour, to date, there are only a few studies on its association with
91 cognitive outcomes. Previous studies have indicated varying associations between
92 various sedentary behaviours and cognitive function without clear and conclusive
93 evidence on overall associations (Olanrewaju, Stockwell, Stubbs, & Smith, 2020).
94 For example, some studies indicated poorer or negative cognitive associations with
95 sedentary behaviours (Falck, Davis, & Liu-Ambrose, 2017; Garcia-Hermoso,
96 Ramirez-Velez, Celis-Morales, Olloquequi, & Izquierdo M., 2018), some found
97 associations with better cognitive outcomes (Kesse-Guyot et al., 2012; Kurita et al.,
98 2018), while others have shown no associations (Čukić et al., 2018; Maasackers et
99 al., 2019). Furthermore, there is some evidence suggesting that the association
100 between sedentary behaviour and cognitive function may depend on the type of
101 sedentary behaviour (SB). For instance, television viewing was consistently reported
102 as having poorer association with cognition in adults (Fancourt & Steptoe, 2019;
103 Hamer & Stamatakis, 2014), while activities such as reading, puzzle and computer
104 use were reported to offer positive benefits to cognition (Kurita et al., 2018).

105 The first systematic review in this field suggested there was an overall negative
106 association between sedentary behaviours and cognitive function in adults 40 years
107 and older (Falck et al., 2017). However, a recent review found lack of clarity in this
108 relationship due to the methodological heterogeneity and risk of biases presented in
109 individual studies (Olanrewaju et al., 2020). To date, studies that have evaluated this
110 area have been predominantly cross-sectional with only five longitudinal studies
111 (Olanrewaju et al., 2020). Of these studies, one primary study and the only study,
112 which measured device-measured sedentary exposure followed up a cohort of 274
113 older participants over a two-year period found higher levels (11 hours+) of
114 sedentary behaviours were associated with an increased risk of worse cognitive
115 ability (Ku, Liu, Lo, Chen, & Stubbs, 2017). However, the context of the sedentary
116 behaviours in the study was not examined and may have included behaviours (e.g.
117 reading, computer use) known to be associated with better cognitive ability (Kurita et
118 al., 2018). In addition, more than half of previous studies recently evaluated in the
119 aforementioned systematic review did not adjust for physical activity and loneliness.

120 Evidence suggested that physical activity may attenuate the association between
121 sedentary behaviour and cognition (Garcia-Hermoso et al., 2018), while loneliness
122 has been shown to be associated with cognitive decline in older people (Cacioppo &
123 Cacioppo, 2014; Zhou et al., 2019). Our study aimed to address some of these
124 issues by analysing a well-known, ongoing large cohort study (2009-present) with a
125 nationally representative sample of older adults (8000+ participants), adjusted for
126 established confounders including physical activity and loneliness, accounted for
127 missing data in regression analysis and measured SB associations with several
128 domains of cognitive outcomes.

129 Thus, using data from the Irish longitudinal study on ageing (TILDA), the aim of the
130 study was to explore: (a) the cross-sectional associations between reported
131 sedentary behaviours and cognitive function at baseline wave 1 (sitting time) and
132 wave 3 (television viewing time) (b) longitudinal associations between baseline
133 sedentary behaviours and cognitive changes at 4-year (waves 1-3) and 2-year
134 follow-up (waves 3-4) in community dwelling adults 50 years and older, while
135 accounting for well-established socio-economic, behavioural, and health-related
136 confounders. Studies on the potentially modifiable risk factors for cognitive decline
137 are important given the challenge presented by the rise in dementia prevalence in
138 most regions of the globe (Brayne & Miller, 2017). Further, there is growing evidence
139 that behavioural risk reduction has an important role to play in dementia prevention
140 research and public health agenda (Olanrewaju, Clare, Barnes, & Brayne, 2015)

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142 [Methods](#)

143 We analysed data of the TILDA study, which is an ongoing community-based survey
144 of older adults residing in Ireland conducted by Trinity College Dublin. Details of the
145 survey including its sampling methods are provided elsewhere (Cronin, O'Regan,
146 Finucane, Kearney, & Kenny, 2013; Whelan & Savva, 2013). Briefly, the first wave
147 (W1) or the baseline survey was conducted between October 2009 and February
148 2011, which has since been followed by three successive waves with two-year
149 intervals. Data from Wave 1 to 4 are currently publically available. We used data
150 from all waves with the exception of the second wave as data collected during the
151 second wave was limited. The target sample consisted of all individuals living in
152 private households aged 50 and over in Ireland. Clustered random sampling was
153 used to obtain nationally representative samples. The first wave excluded
154 institutionalized individuals, anyone with known dementia or anyone unable to
155 personally provide written informed consent to participate due to severe cognitive
156 impairment. Trained personnel conducted interviews with the use of Computer
157 Assisted Personal Interviewing (CAPI). For sensitive questions, participants were
158 asked to fill in a self-completion questionnaire (SCQ), which was returned after the
159 interview. The response rate of W1 was 62%, and of those who participated in W1,
160 84% returned the SCQ. Sampling weights were generated with respect to age, sex
161 and educational attainment to the Quarterly National Household Survey 2010.
162 Ethical approval for TILDA was obtained by the Faculty of Health Sciences Ethics
163 Committee of Trinity College Dublin. Written informed consent was obtained from all
164 participants.

165 Sedentary behaviours

166 Sedentary behaviours (SB) were measured differently between waves. Our choice of
167 sedentary behaviours was opportunistic and based on SB variables available in
168 TILDA data. In the first wave, participants were asked the 'sitting time' question of
169 the widely validated International Physical Activity Questionnaire (IPAQ) (Craig et al.,
170 2003): "During the last 7 days, how much time (per day) did you spend sitting on a
171 week day?". This included time spent at work, at home, while doing course work
172 during leisure time, and commuting, and could have included time spent sitting at a
173 desk, visiting friends, reading, or sitting or lying down to watch television. However in
174 the third wave, participants were asked how many hours they spent watching
175 television on a typical weekday. Sedentary behaviours were analysed as categorical:
176 Sitting (<4 hours, 4-<8 hours and \geq 8 hours); TV viewing (<1.5 hours, 1.5-<2.5 hours,
177 2.5-<3.5 hours, \geq 3.5 hours) and continuous variables (hours/ day). Reported sitting
178 time was based on widely used cut-offs in previous literature (Vancampfort et al.,
179 2020). Reported TV viewing time was split into approximate quartiles for even
180 distribution of frequency across categories (<1.5H: 22%, 1.5-<2.5H: 28%, 2.5-
181 <3.5H:22%, \geq 3.5H:28%).

182 Cognitive outcomes

183 This study used three assessed domains of cognitive functions namely: verbal
184 memory (immediate and delayed recall); global cognition; and verbal fluency. Verbal
185 memory was measured using the 10-word task list, where participants were read a
186 word list and asked to recall as many as possible, with scores from 0-10 (Dierckx et
187 al., 2011). We used the average scores of the sum of immediate and delayed recall
188 scores as verbal memory outcome. Global cognition was assessed using the Mini-
189 Mental State Examination; a 30-point questionnaire to briefly assess orientation,
190 memory, attention, language and visual-spatial skills (Folstein, Robins, & Helzer,
191 1983). Verbal fluency was assessed by asking participants to name as many animals
192 they could think of in one minute, with the scores being the acceptable number of
193 animals named(Whiteside et al., 2016).

194 Control Variables

195 The study included control variables based on past literature and parsimony
196 (Fancourt & Steptoe, 2019; Kesse-Guyot et al., 2012; Nemoto et al., 2018).
197 Sociodemographic variables included age, sex, and social class (wave 1) derived
198 from the three-class version of the United Kingdom National Statistics Socio-
199 economic Classification(NS-SEC) (Office for National Statistics, 2010) and
200 employment status (wave 3). The study used the NS-SEC to categorise participants
201 into 'higher managerial, administrative and professional', 'intermediate occupation'
202 and 'routine and manual occupation'. Those who did not fall into any of these groups
203 such as those who have never worked or long-term unemployed were classed as
204 'other'. Other control variables included social participation, physical activity,
205 smoking, loneliness, alcohol and obesity, depression, disability and chronic
206 conditions. Smoking status was categorised as 'never', 'past' or 'current' smoker in
207 wave 1 and 'Yes' or 'No' to the question on whether participants currently smoked in
208 wave 3. Alcohol was measured using the CAGE alcohol screening tool(Smart, Adlaf,
209 & Knoke, 1991).

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211 The CAGE scale has an ordinal scale with points varying from zero (negative
212 screen) to a maximum of four points, which indicate excessive drinking or
213 alcoholism. Current employment status was grouped into 'employed', 'retired' and
214 'other'. Social participation was a recode of question whether or not participants
215 engaged in any groups such as a sports or social group or club, a church connected
216 group, a self-help or charitable body or other community group or a day care centre.
217 Physical activity was measured with the International Physical Activity Questionnaire
218 (IPAQ) and participants were classified using WHO physical activity guidelines (150
219 mins/week of moderate or 75 mins/week of vigorous physical activity or 600
220 metabolic equivalents (MET) min of weekly moderate-to-vigorous physical
221 activity)(Craig et al., 2003; World Health Organization, 2010). Depression was
222 assessed using the Centre for Epidemiological Studies Depression scores (CES-
223 D)(Radloff, 1977). Obesity was determined if body mass index (BMI), based on
224 measured weight and height, exceeded 30 kg/m².

225 A total of 20 chronic conditions (hypertension, angina pectoris, heart attack, chronic
226 heart failure, diabetes, stroke, transient ischaemic attack, hypercholesteremia, heart
227 murmur, atrial arrhythmia, chronic lung disease, asthma, arthritis, osteoporosis,
228 cancer, neuropsychological problems, alcohol or substance abuse, stomach ulcer,
229 varicose ulcers and cirrhosis/serious liver damage) were assessed based on self-
230 report. A composite variable was derived by principal component analysis of these
231 20 conditions. The loneliness outcome measure used was in response to the
232 question: 'I feel lonely: Would you say this statement describes the way you felt
233 during the past week?: Rarely or none of the time (less than 1 day); Some or a little
234 of the time (1-2 days); Occasionally or a moderate amount of time (3-4 days); All of
235 the time (5-7 days). Difficulty with activities of daily living (ADL: dressing, walking,
236 bathing, eating, getting in and out of bed, toileting) and instrumental activities of daily
237 living (IADL: preparing a hot meal; doing household chores; shopping for groceries;
238 making telephone calls; taking medications; managing finances) were assessed and
239 categorised into 'not disabled', 'IADL-disability only', 'ADL disability only', and 'IADL
240 and ADL disability'.

241 [Statistical analyses](#)

242 Cross-sectional analyses were conducted using baseline data from waves 1 (sitting)
243 and 3 (television viewing) to account for the different sedentary exposures measured
244 at respective periods. Outcome of cross-sectional analyses was standardised
245 regression co-efficient of associations sedentary exposures and cognitive function in
246 respective waves. Longitudinal analyses were performed using data collected
247 between waves 1 and 3 (sitting and cognition) and waves 3 and 4 (television and
248 cognition). We calculated the degree of cognitive changes between waves 1-3 and
249 3-4 respectively through linear regression analysis using values of each test at
250 baseline waves (1 and 3) as independent variables, scores of cognitive tests at
251 follow-up waves (3 and 4) as dependent variables and using their standardized
252 residuals as measures of cognitive change (Gale et al., 2012). We restricted
253 analyses to participants, aged 50 years and older, with complete data on selected
254 outcomes, independent and covariate variables measured at baseline and follow-up.

255 Data analysed at wave 1 baseline: n=8163 and at follow up wave 3: n=5700. Data
256 analysed at baseline 3: n=6400 and at follow up wave 4: n=3750. Analysis was
257 conducted with Stata version 16.0 (Stata Corp LP, College Station, Texas). We used
258 a mix of univariate and bivariate analyses to present a summary of the
259 characteristics of participants. Statistical means and standard deviations (SD) were
260 used to describe continuous variables, while percentages described categorical
261 variables. Descriptive characteristics of independent variables were compared by
262 sitting time (<4 hours, 4-<8 hours/ day and ≥ 8 hours/ day) using Chi-square,
263 Kruskal-Wallis and Spearman rank tests.

264 Linear regression analyses were used to ascertain the strengths of cross-sectional
265 associations between sedentary behaviours and cognitive outcomes at wave
266 1(sitting) and wave 3 (television). Preliminary analyses were performed to ensure
267 that there was no violation of the assumption of normality. Normal distribution of the
268 continuous, dependent variables was explored using a combination of histograms,
269 Kernel density plots with estimation and box plots. We assessed multi-collinearity in
270 our regression models with the variance inflation factor (VIF), taking a cut-off of 2 as
271 exclusion. Similar analysis was used to test for longitudinal strength of association
272 between sedentary behaviours at baseline and cognitive changes between waves
273 (waves 1-3: sitting and waves 3-4: television).

274 We conducted complete case and multivariate imputation analyses. Multivariate
275 imputation was conducted using chained equations, creating 10 imputed datasets
276 (Lee & Carlin, 2010). We used and reported based on fully adjusted models, which
277 controlled for the following covariates: age, sex, social participation and social class /
278 employment, physical activity, obesity, smoking, loneliness and alcohol, disability,
279 depression and chronic condition. The sample weighting and clustering within
280 households were considered in our analyses in order to obtain accurate estimates
281 using the Stata 'svy' command. We conducted subpopulation regression analyses of
282 participants aged 65 years (n=2500) and older using fully adjusted models only. All
283 regression results were expressed in standardised beta-coefficient and p-values
284 <0.05 was considered to be statistically significant.

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286 Results

287 Baseline characteristics (wave 1: weekday-sitting)

288 Baseline characteristics at wave 1 are provided in Table 1. The mean (SD) age of
289 participants at wave 1 (n=8163) was 63.5 (9.2) years. Reported mean weekday-
290 sitting time/day was 295(159) minutes. Overall, 34%, 50% and 16% of participants
291 reported sitting time of <4 hours, 4-<8 hours/ day and ≥ 8 hours/ day respectively.
292 Higher levels of reported sitting showed significant but weak correlations with
293 depression ($r=0.1$, $P<0.0001$) and lower cognitive performance ($r=-0.1$, $P<0.0001$)
294 with the exception of global scores, which did not show significant correlation ($r=-$
295 0.001 , $P=0.8$). Participation in higher sitting levels more likely in older age groups
296 ($\text{Chi}^2(3)=131.9$, $P<0.01$). Higher levels of reported sitting during the weekday were
297 likely to occur in participants with higher alcohol intake, smoking, depression,
298 loneliness, not engaging in social participation, and living without disability.

299 Compared with their male counterpart, more female participants engaged in sitting
300 time of <4hours and 4-<8hours/day, while male participants were likely to engage in
301 sitting time > 8 hours/day. Participants reporting higher levels of sitting were unlikely
302 to have met recommended physical activity except in the lowest category (0-4
303 hours/day), where more participants (58.6%) reported meeting recommended levels
304 of physical activity (Table 1). Lower cognitive performances were more likely in
305 participants not engaging in social activities, not meeting physical activity
306 recommendation, in a routine and manual occupation, in older age groups (70+
307 years), with ADL and IADL disability (Table 2).

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Table 1: Baseline characteristics of people aged ≥ 50 years from the Irish Longitudinal of Ageing and their associations with weekday-sitting time (wave 1, n=8163)

Characteristics	Category	Overall	Sitting time/day			Associations (P<0.01)
			<4H/day	4-<8H/day	≥ 8 H/day	
Age (years)	50-59	40.5	47.5	35.3	42.0	**Chi2(3)=131.9, P<0.01
	60-69	30.7	32.6	31.8	23.6	
	70-79	20.0	15.1	23.2	19.9	
	>80	8.8	4.8	9.7	14.6	
Sex	Female	52.1	55.6	51.2	47.3	** Chi2(1)=22.7, P<0.0001
	Male	47.9	44.4	48.8	52.7	
Alcohol (CAGE)	0	78.1	81.5	77.2	73.6	**Chi2(4)=28.5, P<0.001
	1	10.0	8.8	10.5	10.9	
	2	7.0	5.7	7.3	8.8	
	3	3.7	3.3	3.7	4.7	
	4	1.2	0.8	1.3	2.0	
Smoker	Never	43.3	46.7	42.8	38.1	**Chi2(2)=21.3, P<0.001
	Past	38.1	36.1	38.8	40.0	
	Current	18.6	17.1	18.5	22.0	
Social Class	Routine and Manual occupations	34.5	36.9	33.2	33.6	**Chi(3)=40.9, P<0.001
	Intermediate Occupations	12.4	11.1	12.2	15.8	
	Managerial, Technical and Professional	18.9	16.7	19.4	22.0	
	Other	34.2	35.3	35.2	28.6	
Employment	Employed	35.7	41.9	30.0	40.1	**Chi2(2)=42.5, p<0.001
	Retired	35.1	28.6	39.2	36.0	
	Other	29.2	29.6	30.9	23.3	
Recommended Physical activity	No	54.3	41.4	56.7	73.6	** Chi2(1)=329.1 P<0.00001
	Yes	45.7	58.6	43.3	26.4	
Depression ^a	Mean (SD)	5.87(7.2)	5.1(6.6)	6.0(7.1)	7.3(8.5)	#rho=0.1, p<0.0001
Loneliness ^b	Rarely	80.4	83.2	80.0	76.5	**Chi2(3)=30.4, P<0.001
	Some	12.1	11.3	12.4	13.0	
	Moderate	5.2	4.1	5.7	6.0	
	All of time	2.3	1.5	2.2	4.6	
Social participation	No	54.1	52.2	53.7	59.4	*Chi2(1)=16.0, P<0.01
	Yes	45.9	47.8	46.3	40.6	
Chronic condition ^c	Mean(SD)	347.2	303.9(320.6)	363.7(341.8)	385.6(344.9)	#rho=0.1, P=0.08
Disability	Not disabled	87.0	92.2	87.3	75.0	*Chi2(3)=179.1, P<0.001
	IADL	4.0	2.4	4.0	6.7	
	ADL	4.9	3.6	5.3	6.6	
	IADL & ADL	4.1	1.8	3.4	11.7	
Verbal memory scores	Mean(SD)	14.9(4.4)	15.3(4.3)	14.8(4.4)	14.6(4.7)	#rho=-0.1 P<0.0001
Verbal Fluency	Mean(SD)	19.9(6.9)	20.3(6.8)	19.8(6.9)	19.2(7.3)	#rho=-0.1 P<0.0001
Global scores (MMSE)	Mean(SD)	28.1(2.2)	28.3(1.9)	28.1(2.3)	28.0(2.6)	#rho=-0.001 P=0.88

Data are in percentages unless stated otherwise.

Characteristics	Category	Cognition			Difference in means test* (P<0.01)*
		Verbal Memory	Verbal Fluency	Global scores	
Age (years)	50-59	16.6(3.7)	21.7(7.1)	28.7(1.7)	F(3)=475.6 P<0.0001 (VM) F(3)=214.6 P<0.0001 (VF) F(3)=234.4 P<0.0001 (MMSE)
	60-69	15.2(4.2)	20.1(6.8)	28.3(1.9)	
	70-79	13.0(4.3)	17.9(6.2)	27.5(2.5)	
	>80	10.6(3.6)	15.4(5.4)	25.6(3.2)	
Sex	Male	14.7(4.1)	20.4(6.7)	28.1(2.1)	F(1)=93.4 P<0.0001 (VM) F(1)=12.9, P<0.001 (VF) F(1)= 8.3, P<0.01 (MMSE)
	Female	15.2(4.6)	19.4(7.1)	28.2(2.4)	
Recommended Physical activity	No	14.5(4.5)	18.9(6.7)	27.9(2.4)	F(1)=102.2, P<0.0001 (VM) F(1)= 168.8, P<0.0001 (VF) F(1)=79.9, P<0.0001 (MMSE)
	Yes	15.6(4.2)	21.0(7.1)	28.4(2.0)	
Smoker	Never	15.1(4.5)	19.9(7.1)	28.2(2.3)	F(2)=7.4, P<0.001 (VM) F(2)=9.9, P<0.001 (VF) F(2)=16.9, P<0.0001 (MMSE)
	Past	14.9 (4.3)	20.2(7.0)	28.2(2.1)	
	Current	14.7 (4.2)	19.3(6.7)	27.8(2.4)	
Social participation	No	14.4(4.3)	18.9 (6.5)	27.8 (2.5)	F(1)=119.6, P<0.0001 (VM) F(1)=194.5, P<0.0001 (VF) F(1)=107.9, P<0.0001 (MMSE)
	Yes	15.5 (4.4)	20.9 (7.3)	28.4 (1.9)	
Social class	Routine and Manual Occupation	13.6 (4.1)	18.8 (6.2)	27.5 (2.4)	F(3)=195.2, P<0.0001 (VM) F(3)=118.4, P<0.0001 (VF) F(3)=133.8, P<0.0001 (MMSE)
	Intermediate Occupation	16.3 (4.3)	20.9 (7.0)	28.8 (1.5)	
	Managerial, Technical and Professional	16.7 (4.6)	22.4 (8.1)	28.9 (1.7)	
	Other	14.4 (4.1)	18.9 (6.6)	27.8 (2.3)	
Loneliness	Rarely	15.2(4.4)	20.3(7.0)	28.3(2.1)	F(3)=25.8, P<0.0001 (VM) F(3)=29.5, P<0.0001 (VF) F(3)=24.5, P<0.0001 (MMSE)
	Some	14.3(4.2)	18.6(6.9)	27.6(2.6)	
	Moderate	14.3(4.4)	18.6(6.4)	27.9(2.4)	
	All of time	12.7(4.3)	16.6(6.2)	27.1(2.9)	
Disability	Not disabled	15.3(4.2)	20.3(6.9)	28.3(2.0)	F(3)=103.6, P<0.0001 (VM) F(3)=74.9, P<0.0001 (VF) F(3)=107.1, P<0.0001 (MMSE)
	IADL	12.4(4.2)	15.9(5.9)	26.9(2.8)	
	ADL	13.8(4.2)	19.1(6.9)	27.6(2.7)	
	IADL & ADL	11.4(4.5)	15.7(5.9)	25.7(3.4)	

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(SD) standard deviation, (IADL) Instruments of Activities of Daily living, (ADL) Activities of Daily living,

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*Kruskal Wallis test, ** Chi-square test , # Spearman's correlation test.

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(a) Depression was measured using the Centre for Epidemiological Studies Depression scores (CES-D)

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(b) Loneliness was measured using the University of California, Los Angeles(UCLA) Loneliness scale. Scores range from 3-9

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(c) Composite score of 20 chronic conditions

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Table 2: Mean cognitive function scores stratified by baseline characteristics of participants age 50+ in TILDA

342 Data are in mean (Standard deviation)
343 (IADL) Instruments of Activities of Daily living, (ADL) Activities of Daily living, (VF) (Verbal Fluency, (VM) Verbal Memory, (MMSE) Mini Mental State Scores
344 Verbal memory was measured using total scores from immediate and delayed recall from 10-word task list
345 Verbal Fluency was measured using animal naming task
346 Global cognitive scores were measured using Mini-mental State Examinations
347 aResults from one-way ANOVA test for difference in means of cognitive functions by participants' characteristic.
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351 [Television viewing \(Wave 3\)](#)

352 The mean (SD) age of participants at wave 3 (n=6400) was 66.4(8.9) years (Table
353 S4). Overall, reported mean weekday-television viewing time / day was 168 (101)
354 minutes. 22%, 28%, 22% and 28% of participants reported television viewing time of
355 <1.5H hours, 1.5-<2.5 hours/ day, 2.5-<3.5 hours/day and ≥ 3.5 hours/ day
356 respectively. Higher levels of television viewing were associated with smoking, been
357 retired, depression, loneliness, chronic conditions and IADL+ADL-disability. A higher
358 proportion of participants aged 60-69 years viewed TV across all time categories
359 compared with their younger and older counterpart.

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361 [Cross-sectional and longitudinal associations \(waves 1-3: sitting\)](#)

362 Fully adjusted regression models did not reveal any significant cross-sectional
363 association between reported sitting time and cognitive function. For example,
364 analyses showed statistically insignificant associations between one-hour increase in
365 reported sitting and cognition (verbal memory: $b=0.01$, CI: -0.004,0.02, $P=0.30$;
366 verbal fluency: $b=0.003$, CI:-0.01, 0.01, $P=0.55$; global scores: $b=0.01$, CI:-0.01,0.02,
367 $P=0.39$). Similarly, we did not find any association between hourly increase in
368 baseline reported sitting time and cognitive changes between wave 1 and wave 3
369 (verbal memory: $b=-0.001$, CI: -0.02,0.01, $P=0.80$; verbal fluency: $b=0.004$, CI:-0.01,
370 0.02, $P=0.56$; global scores: $b=-0.01$, CI:-0.03,0.004, $P=0.14$) (Tables 3-5).

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372 [Cross-sectional and longitudinal associations \(waves 3-4: Television viewing\)](#)

373 Fully adjusted and multiple imputation regression models found significant cross-
374 sectional associations between television and poorer verbal memory ($b=-0.02$, CI: -
375 0.04, -0.003, $P<0.05$) and poorer verbal fluency ($b=-0.02$, CI:-0.04,-0.002, $P<0.05$)
376 with one hour increase in TV viewing per day. Sub-population analysis in 65+ years
377 found significant association between television viewing of 3.5+ hours/day and
378 decline in verbal fluency two years later when compared with a reference category of
379 <1.5 hours of TV viewing ($b=-0.12$, CI: -0.23,-0.001, $P<0.05$ (SI.2)).

Table 3: Cross-sectional and longitudinal associations between sedentary behaviours (reported television viewing and sitting time: hours/day) and verbal memory estimated by multivariate imputation regression in people aged 50+ from TILDA

SB behaviour		Cross-sectional analysis	Longitudinal analysis (2 years follow-up)
Sitting^a	Ref (<4h/day)	n=6236	n=5946
	4-<8 h/ day	0.04 (-0.01,0.10)	-0.07 (-0.14, 0.01)
	≥8 h/day	0.02 (-0.05,0.11)	0.01 (-0.10, 0.11)
Sitting^{ac}	Hours /day	0.01 (-0.004, 0.02)	-0.001(-0.02, 0.01)
TV viewing^b	Ref(<1.5h/day)	n=6395	n=5655
	1.5-<2.5 h/day	0.05 (-0.02, 0.13)	0.01 (-0.09, 0.1)
	2.5-<3.5 h/day	0.03 (-0.06, 0.12)	0.001 (-0.10, 0.11)
	≥3.5h/day	-0.04 (-0.12, 0.04)	-0.03 (-0.14, 0.07)
TV viewing^{bc}	Hours /day	-0.02 (-0.04, -0.003)*	-0.001 (-0.02, 0.02)

Abbreviation: Sedentary behaviours (SB); hours (h); Television (TV)

Regression estimate is standardised beta co-efficient (confidence interval)

Fully adjusted multivariate imputation analysis using chained equations adjusted for age, sex, social class (wave 1), employment (wave 3), social participation, physical activity, obesity, smoking, loneliness, disability, depression, chronic conditions.

^a Estimates are based on data from wave 1(cross-sectional) and waves 1 and 3 (longitudinal).

^b Estimates are based on data from wave 3(cross-sectional) and waves 3 and 4 (longitudinal).

^{ac} Sedentary behaviour (reported sitting) is measured as continuous variable and regression co-efficient refers to association of increasing hours of sitting per day with cognitive function

^{bc} Sedentary behaviour (reported TV viewing) is measured as continuous variable and regression co-efficient refers to association of increasing hours of TV per day with cognitive function

* p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001

Table 4: Cross-sectional and longitudinal associations between sedentary behaviours (reported television viewing and sitting time: categorical) and verbal fluency estimated by multivariate imputation regression in people aged 50+ from TILDA

SB behaviour		Cross-sectional analysis	Longitudinal analysis (2 years follow-up)
Sitting^a	Ref (<4h/day)	n=6236	n=5946
	4-<8 h/ day	0.04 (-0.01, 0.10)	0.05 (-0.02, 0.12)
	≥8 h/day	0.03 (-0.06, 0.11)	0.03 (-0.07, 0.13)
Sitting^{ac}	Hours /day	0.003 (-0.01, 0.01)	0.004 (-0.01, 0.02)
TV viewing^b	Ref(<1.5h/day)	n=6395	n=5655
	1.5-<2.5 h/day	0.05 (-0.04, 0.13)	-0.05 (-0.14, 0.05)
	2.5-<3.5 h/day	0.01 (-0.08, 0.09)	-0.08 (-0.17, 0.02)
	≥3.5h/day	-0.03 (-0.11, 0.06)	-0.05 (-0.14, 0.05)
TV viewing^{bc}	Hours /day	-0.02 (-0.04, -0.002)*	-0.01 (-0.03, 0.01)

Abbreviation: Sedentary behaviours (SB); hours (h); Television (TV)

Regression estimate is standardised beta co-efficient (confidence interval)

Fully adjusted multivariate imputation analysis using chained equations adjusted for age, sex, social class (wave 1), employment (wave 3), social participation, physical activity, obesity, smoking, loneliness, disability, depression, chronic conditions.

^a Estimates are based on data from wave 1(cross-sectional) and waves 1 and 3 (longitudinal).

^b Estimates are based on data from wave 3(cross-sectional) and waves 3 and 4 (longitudinal).

^{ac} Sedentary behaviour (reported sitting) is measured as continuous variable and regression co-efficient refers to association of increasing hours of sitting per day with cognitive function

^{bc} Sedentary behaviour (reported TV viewing) is measured as continuous variable and regression co-efficient refers to association of increasing hours of TV per day with cognitive function

* p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001

Table 5: Cross-sectional and longitudinal associations between sedentary behaviours (reported television viewing and sitting time: categorical) and global cognition estimated by multivariate imputation regression in people aged 50+ from TILDA

SB behaviour		Cross-sectional analysis	Longitudinal analysis (2 years follow-up)
Sitting^a	Ref (<4h/day)	n=6236	n=5946
	4-<8 h/ day	0.01 (-0.05, 0.08)	-0.01 (-0.09, 0.07)
	≥8 h/day	0.04 (-0.05, 0.13)	-0.09 (-0.23, 0.04)
Sitting^{ac}	Hours /day	0.01 (-0.01, 0.02)	-0.01 (-0.03, 0.004)
TV viewing^b	Ref(<1.5h/day)	n=6395	n=5655
	1.5-<2.5 h/day	0.07 (-0.01, 0.16)	0.03 (-0.07, 0.13)
	2.5-<3.5 h/day	0.04 (-0.05, 0.12)	-0.04 (-0.15, 0.07)
	≥3.5h/day	-0.01(-0.11, 0.10)	-0.02 (-0.14, 0.10)
TV viewing^{bc}	Hours /day	-0.01 (-0.04, 0.01)	-0.01 (-0.04, 0.02)

Abbreviation: Sedentary behaviours (SB); hours (h); Television (TV)

Regression estimate is standardised beta co-efficient (confidence interval)

Fully adjusted multivariate imputation analysis using chained equations adjusted for age, sex, social class (wave 1), employment (wave 3), social participation, physical activity, obesity, smoking, loneliness, disability, depression, chronic conditions.

^a Estimates are based on data from wave 1(cross-sectional) and waves 1 and 3 (longitudinal).

^b Estimates are based on data from wave 3(cross-sectional) and waves 3 and 4 (longitudinal).

^{ac} Sedentary behaviour (reported sitting) is measured as continuous variable and regression co-efficient refers to association of increasing hours of sitting per day with cognitive function

^{bc} Sedentary behaviour (reported TV viewing) is measured as continuous variable and regression co-efficient refers to association of increasing hours of TV per day with cognitive function

* p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001

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387 Discussion

388 This study demonstrated that hourly increase in weekday-television viewing in
389 community dwelling adults 50+ years has cross-sectional associations with poorer
390 verbal memory and fluency. Further, analysis of the 65+ subpopulation showed that
391 higher baseline television viewing for 3.5+ hours /day was associated with decline in
392 verbal fluency two years later. These findings are in line with previous studies (Da
393 Ronch et al., 2015; Fancourt & Steptoe, 2019; Hamer & Stamatakis, 2014; Nemoto
394 et al., 2018) which consistently demonstrated negative associations between
395 television viewing and cognition in middle and older aged adults. Similar to our
396 findings, Fancourt and colleagues (Fancourt & Steptoe, 2019) showed longitudinal
397 associations and dose response relationship between television viewing for more
398 than 3.5 hours and semantic fluency in adults aged 50+ years. Including our
399 research, only three studies, to date, (Fancourt & Steptoe, 2019; Hamer &
400 Stamatakis, 2014) have explored longitudinal associations between television
401 viewing and cognition in older adults. Possible mechanisms include low brain wave
402 activity(Weinstein et al., 1980), associations between high multi-media tasking and
403 reduced working memory (Uncapher, K. Thieu, & Wagner, 2016), stress created
404 through alert-passive interaction (Lupien & Lepage, 2001), and displacement of other
405 cognitively beneficial activities (Fancourt & Steptoe, 2018). However, television

406 viewing is a complex behaviour and the mode of watching has vastly moved on from
407 traditional viewing to other equipment such as smart mobile phones, tablets and
408 computers. Also television viewing may confer other positive effects such as
409 education and learning, escapism and (Henning & Vorderer, 2001) perceived
410 relaxation (Csikszentmihalyi & Kubey, 1981).

411 Our study did not find any associations between reported weekday-sitting and
412 cognition. The lack of significant relationship could have been due to the complex
413 nature and subjectivity of self-reported sitting. Sitting could occur under different
414 contexts thereby leading to varying associations with cognition. For example
415 cognitive activities in sitting, such as reading, puzzles, computer use have been
416 reported to show positive relationships with cognition (Da Ronch et al., 2015; Kesse-
417 Guyot et al., 2012; Kurita et al., 2018), while television viewing or total time spent in
418 sitting were reported to have negative correlation (Çukić et al., 2018; Fancourt &
419 Steptoe, 2019). In addition, participation in physical activity has been shown to have
420 attenuating effect on associations between sitting and poorer cognition, resulting in
421 significant associations only in higher levels of reported sitting (4+
422 hours/day) (Garcia-Hermoso et al., 2018).

423 The strengths of this study include the use of data from TILDA, which has a sample
424 of over 8000 participants followed up since 2010. There are insufficient studies that
425 have explored longitudinal associations in this topic and more are needed to
426 establish dose-response and causal associations. Therefore this study evaluated
427 both cross-sectional and longitudinal associations between sedentary behaviour and
428 cognition. We adjusted for 30 potential confounders and in particular, physical
429 activity levels recommended by the World Health Organisation (WHO). A recent
430 systematic review suggested that half of prior studies in this area did not adjust for
431 physical activity in their regression analyses. A recent systematic review highlighted
432 risk of biases in available studies such as confounding and missing data. In addition
433 to commonly adjusted socio-demographic, behavioural and health co-variables, this
434 study adjusted for loneliness and physical activity. Up until present time, analyses
435 have controlled for physical activity in 50% of studies and loneliness in < 10% of
436 studies. In addition, this study conducted multivariate imputation models to account
437 for missing data and reduce risk of bias. Our study conducted subpopulation
438 analyses for older adults aged 65 years and older.

439 The findings of this study are not without limitations. First, there may be some
440 attrition bias due to loss of participation between waves analysed. Complete data on
441 3026 and 2664 participants were lost to follow-up between waves 1-3 and 3-4
442 respectively. Secondly, information on the trajectories of cognitive function in TILDA
443 participants during their lifespan was not available, hence the cognitive changes
444 between waves may not only suggest a possible decline in cognition but could also
445 reflect their peak cognitive capacity. Thirdly, while sufficient attempt was made to
446 control for possible confounding variables, there is still some risk of residual and
447 unmeasured confounding in our regression analyses. Fourth, findings are restricted
448 to reported sedentary behaviour during weekdays only. Fifth, there is evidence in
449 literature that performance in cognitive function tests are sensitive to language skills
450 and background. There is a possibility that a small proportion (7%) of TILDA

451 participants who required assistance with cognitive tests may have had English
452 language difficulty and therefore contributed to poor performance in these
453 tests (Carstairs, Myors, Shores, & Fogarty, 2006). Finally, both sedentary behaviour
454 exposures were self-reported and subject to recall bias. A review of prevalence of
455 sedentary behaviour in older people indicated an underestimation of self-reported
456 sedentary time compared with when measured with accelerometers (Harvey, 2013).
457 Objective and device-measured sedentary behaviour capable of accurately capturing
458 sedentary behaviour should be considered in future studies. Further, our exposure
459 variables measured gross sedentary time without information on the context of
460 behavioural participation. Previous research suggested that mentally active-
461 sedentary behaviours (computer, reading, puzzles) were associated with better
462 mental and cognitive health outcomes when compared with passive-sedentary
463 behaviours (TV viewing), which were associated with poorer mental and cognitive
464 health outcomes (Hallgren et al., 2018; Kurita et al., 2018). Therefore, future studies
465 with reported self-reported sedentary behaviour exposures should consider
466 classifying variables using the aforementioned categories.

467

468 Conclusion

469 Findings of this study indicated that increase in levels of weekday-television viewing
470 time have cross-sectional and longitudinal associations with cognition in middle-aged
471 and older adults. However, television viewing is a complex behaviour, and health
472 implication surrounding various contexts and modes of viewing will need to be
473 explored in future studies. Intervention studies are needed to confirm the effect of
474 sedentary behaviour on cognitive function in older adults. Public health education
475 and campaign should target television viewing in excess of 3.5 hours/per day in older
476 adults, with the objective of displacing with health promoting cognitive activities.

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Table S1: Cross-sectional and longitudinal associations between sedentary behaviours (reported television viewing and sitting time) and verbal memory estimated by multivariate imputation regression in TILDA (Subpopulation 65+ years)

SB behaviour		Cross-sectional analysis	Longitudinal analysis (2 years follow-up)
Sitting ^a	Ref(<4h/day)	n=2772	n=2382
	4-<8 h/ day	-0.009 (-0.1, 0.08)	-0.05 (-0.15, 0.05)
	≥8 h/day	-0.08 (-0.2, 0.06)	0.0006 (-0.15, 0.16)
Sitting ^{ac}	Hours/ day	-0.01 (-.02, 0.01)	-0.01 (-0.03, 0.01)
TV viewing ^b	Ref(<1.5h/day)	n=2563	n=2538
	1.5-<2.5 h/day	0.06 (-0.05, 0.18)	-0.03 (-0.16, 0.10)
	2.5-<3.5 h/day	0.06 (-0.07, 0.19)	0.01 (-0.14, 0.10)
	≥3.5 h/day	0.003 (-0.12, 0.12)	0.02 (-0.11, 0.15)
TV viewing ^{bc}	Hours / day	-0.01 (-0.04, 0.01)	0.01 (-0.01, 0.04)

Abbreviation: Sedentary behaviours (SB); hours (h); Television (TV)

Regression estimate is standardised beta co-efficient (confidence interval)

Fully adjusted multivariate imputation analysis using chained equations adjusted for age, sex, social class (wave 1), employment (wave 3), social participation, physical activity, obesity, smoking, loneliness, disability, depression, chronic conditions.

^a Estimates are based on data from wave 1 (cross-sectional) and waves 1 and 3 (longitudinal).

^b Estimates are based on data from wave 3 (cross-sectional) and waves 3 and 4 (longitudinal).

^{ac} Sedentary behaviour (reported sitting) is measured as continuous variable and regression co-efficient refers to association of increasing hours of sitting per day with cognitive function

^{bc} Sedentary behaviour (reported TV viewing) is measured as continuous variable and regression co-efficient refers to association of increasing hours of TV per day with cognitive function

* p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001

Table S2: Cross-sectional and longitudinal associations between sedentary behaviours (reported television viewing and sitting time) and verbal fluency estimated by multivariate imputation regression in TILDA (Subpopulation 65+)

SB behaviour		Cross-sectional analysis	Longitudinal analysis, n= (2 years follow-up)
Sitting ^a	Ref(<4h/day)	n=2772	n=2382
	4-<8 h/ day	0.03 (-0.05, 0.11)	0.06 (-0.03, 0.15)
	≥8 h/day	-0.08 (-0.21, 0.03)	0.11 (-0.01, 0.24)
Sitting ^a	Hours /day	-0.01 (-0.02, 0.01)	0.01 (-0.002, 0.03)
TV viewing ^b	Ref(<1.5h/day)	n= 2563	n=2538
	1.5-<2.5 h/ day	0.08 (-0.03, 0.19)	-0.10 (-0.21, 0.02)
	2.5-<3.5 h/day	0.06 (-0.05, 0.17)	-0.11 (-0.23, 0.003)
	≥3.5 h/day	0.01 (-0.08, 0.11)	-0.12 (-0.23, -0.001)*
TV viewing ^b	Hours /day	-0.01 (-0.03, 0.01)	-0.02 (-0.04, 0.002)

Abbreviation: Sedentary behaviours (SB); hours (h); Television (TV)

Regression estimate is standardised beta co-efficient (confidence interval)

Fully adjusted multivariate imputation analysis using chained equations adjusted for age, sex, social class (wave 1), employment (wave 3), social participation, physical activity, obesity, smoking, loneliness, disability, depression, chronic conditions.

^a Estimates are based on data from wave 1 (cross-sectional) and waves 1 and 3 (longitudinal).

^b Estimates are based on data from wave 3 (cross-sectional) and waves 3 and 4 (longitudinal).

^{ac} Sedentary behaviour (reported sitting) is measured as continuous variable and regression co-efficient refers to association of increasing hours of sitting per day with cognitive function

^{bc} Sedentary behaviour (reported TV viewing) is measured as continuous variable and regression co-efficient refers to association of increasing hours of TV per day with cognitive function

* p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001

Table S3: Cross-sectional and longitudinal associations between sedentary behaviours (reported television viewing and sitting time) and global cognition estimated by multivariate imputation regression in TILDA (Subpopulation 65+)

SB behaviour		Cross-sectional analysis	Longitudinal analysis, n= (2 years follow-up)
Sitting ^a	Ref(<4h/day)	n=2772	n=2382
	4-<8 h/ day	-0.03(-0.14, 0.07)	-0.04 (-0.16, 0.08)
	≥8 h/day	0.005(-0.16, 0.17)	0.004 (-0.16, 0.17)
Sitting ^a	Hours/ day	0.01 (-0.01, 0.03)	-0.004 (-0.03, 0.02)
TV viewing ^b	Ref(<1.5 h/day)	n=2563	n=2538
	1.5-<2.5 h/ day	0.12 (-0.03, 0.28)	-0.01 (-0.16, 0.13)
	2.5-<3.5 h/day	0.11 (-0.05, 0.26)	-0.03 (-0.17, 0.12)
	≥3.5 h /day	0.04 (-0.12, 0.21)	-0.02 (-0.17, 0.12)
TV viewing ^b	Hours /day	-0.001 (-0.03, 0.03)	-0.01 (-0.04, 0.02)

Abbreviation: Sedentary behaviours (SB); hours (h); Television (TV)

Regression estimate is standardised beta co-efficient (confidence interval)

Fully adjusted multivariate imputation analysis using chained equations adjusted for age, sex, social class (wave 1), employment (wave 3), social participation, physical activity, obesity, smoking, loneliness, disability, depression, chronic conditions.

^a Estimates are based on data from wave 1(cross-sectional) and waves 1 and 3 (longitudinal).

^b Estimates are based on data from wave 3(cross-sectional) and waves 3 and 4 (longitudinal).

^{ac} Sedentary behaviour (reported sitting) is measured as continuous variable and regression co-efficient refers to association of increasing hours of sitting per day with cognitive function

^{bc} Sedentary behaviour (reported TV viewing) is measured as continuous variable and regression co-efficient refers to association of increasing hours of TV per day with cognitive function

* p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001

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Table S4: Associations between TV viewing and participants characteristics (Wave 3, n=6400)

Characteristics	Category	Overall	TV time/day				Associations (P<0.01)
			<1.5H/day	1.5- <2.5H/day	2.5- <3.5H/day	>=3.5H/day	
Age (years)	50-59	25.2	34.4	29.5	22.0	18.2	**Chi2(3)= 177.6, P<0.0001
	60-69	38.5	36.0	39.0	41.4	37.6	
	70-79	21.8	16.2	20.1	23.0	25.7	
	>80	14.6	13.4	11.4	13.6	18.5	
Sex	Female	51.6	52.4	49.0	53.1	52.1	**Chi2(1)=6.5, P=0.24
	Male	48.4	47.6	51.0	46.9	47.9	
Alcohol (CAGE)	0	76.3	77.7	76.9	74.9	76.0	**Chi2(4)=29.2, P=0.10
	1	11.9	11.7	12.0	12.5	11.4	
	2	7.4	7.3	8.2	7.8	6.4	
	3	3.6	2.4	2.5	4.0	5.0	
	4	0.8	0.9	0.4	0.8	1.2	
Smoker	No	86.6	88.1	89.5	86.0	83.6	**Chi2(1)=-30.0, P<0.01
	Yes	13.4	11.9	10.5	14.0	16.4	
Employment	Employed	30.2	44.1	40.0	27.4	15.6	**Chi2(2)=408.1, P<0.001
	Retired	48.0	38.9	42.1	50.5	56.8	
	Other	21.8	17.0	17.9	22.1	27.6	
Recommended Physical activity	No	44.2	41.3	42.6	44.2	49.1	**Chi2(2)=11.1, P=0.08
	Yes	55.8	58.7	57.4	55.8	50.9	
Depression	Mean (SD)	5.1(9.4)	4.8 (9.0)	4.8 (8.9)	5.2 (9.6)	5.5 (9.8)	#Rho=0.1, P<0.0001
Loneliness	Rarely	79.5	85.9	80.9	80.4	79.5	*Chi2(3)=60.3, P<0.001
	Some	12.3	9.4	11.1	12.6	12.3	
	Moderate	6.1	4.1	7.0	5.4	6.1	
	All of time	2.0	0.6	1.0	1.6	2.1	
Social participation	No	52.0	45.1	47.8	52.9	59.1	**Chi2(1)=78.5, P<0.0001
	Yes	48.0	54.9	52.2	47.1	40.9	
Disability	Not disabled	90.5	90.8	93.6	92.2	86.4	*Chi2(3)=33.7, P<0.001
	IADL	3.8	3.7	2.9	2.8	5.4	
	ADL	2.3	2.2	1.5	2.4	3.0	
	IADL &ADL	3.4	3.3	2.0	2.6	5.2	
Chronic condition	Mean(SD)	5(9.3)	4.8(9.0)	4.8(8.8)	5.2(9.6)	5.5(9.8)	#Rho=0.001, P<0.01

Data are in percentages unless stated otherwise.

(SD) standard deviation, (IADL) Instruments of Activities of Daily living, (ADL) Activities of Daily living,

*Kruskal Wallis test, ** Chi-square test, # Spearman's correlation test.

(a) Depression was measured using the Centre for Epidemiological Studies Depression scores (CES-D)

(b) Loneliness was measured using the University of California, Los Angeles(UCLA) Loneliness scale. Scores range from 3-9

(c) Composite score of 20 chronic conditions

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