

Citation for published version:

Musi Milanovi, S, Buoncristiano, M, Križan, H, Rathmes, G, Williams, J, Hyska, J, Duleva, V, Zamrazilová, H, Hejgaard, T, Jørgensen, MB, Salanave, B, Shengelia, L, Kelleher, CC, Spinelli, A, Nardone, P, Abdrakhmanova, S, Usupova, Z, Pudule, I, Petrauskiene, A, Farrugia Sant'Angelo, V, Kujundži, E, Fijakowska, A, Rito, AI, Cucu, A, Brinduse, LA, Peterkova, V, Gualtieri, A, García-Solano, M, Gutiérrez-González, E, Boymatova, K, Yardim, MS, Tanrygulyyeva, M, Melkumova, M, Weghuber, D, Nurk, E, Mäki, P, Bergh, IH, Ostojic, SM, Russell Jonsson, K, Spiroski, I, Rutter, H, Ahrens, W, Rakovac, I, Whiting, S & Breda, J 2021, 'Socioeconomic disparities in physical activity, sedentary behavior and sleep patterns among 6- to 9-year-old children from 24 countries in the WHO European region', *Obesity Reviews*, vol. 22, no. S6, e13209. <https://doi.org/10.1111/obr.13209>

DOI:

[10.1111/obr.13209](https://doi.org/10.1111/obr.13209)

Publication date:

2021

Document Version

Peer reviewed version

[Link to publication](#)

This is the peer reviewed version of the following article: Musi Milanovi, S, Buoncristiano, M, Križan, H, et al. Socioeconomic disparities in physical activity, sedentary behavior and sleep patterns among 6- to 9-year-old children from 24 countries in the WHO European region. *Obesity Reviews*. 2021;e13209., which has been published in final form at <https://doi.org/10.1111/obr.13209>. This article may be used for non-commercial purposes in accordance with Wiley Terms and Conditions for Self-Archiving.

University of Bath

Alternative formats

If you require this document in an alternative format, please contact:
openaccess@bath.ac.uk

General rights

Copyright and moral rights for the publications made accessible in the public portal are retained by the authors and/or other copyright owners and it is a condition of accessing publications that users recognise and abide by the legal requirements associated with these rights.

Take down policy

If you believe that this document breaches copyright please contact us providing details, and we will remove access to the work immediately and investigate your claim.

1 **Socioeconomic Disparities in Physical Activity, Sedentary Behaviour and Sleep Patterns**
2 **Among 6-9-Year-Old Children from 24 Countries in the WHO European Region**

3

4 Sanja Musić Milanović*^{1,2}, Marta Buoncristiano³, Helena Križan¹, Giulia Rathmes³, Julianne
5 Williams³, Jolanda Hyska⁴, Vesselka Duleva⁵, Hana Zamrazilová⁶, Tatjana Hejgaard⁷, Maja
6 Bæksgaard Jørgensen⁸, Benoit Salanave⁹, Lela Shengelia¹⁰, Cecily Kelleher¹¹, Angela Spinelli¹²,
7 Paola Nardone¹², Shynar Abdrakhmanova¹³, Zhamyila Usupova¹⁴, Iveta Pudule¹⁵, Ausra
8 Petrauskiene¹⁶, Victoria Farrugia Sant'Angelo¹⁷, Enisa Kujundzic¹⁸, Anna Fijałkowska¹⁹, Ana Rito²⁰,
9 Alexandra Cucu²¹, Lacramioara Brinduse²¹, Valentina Peterkova²², Andrea Gualtieri²³, Marta García-
10 Solano²⁴, Enrique Gutiérrez González²⁴, Khadichamo Boymatova²⁵, Mahmut S Yardim²⁶, Maya
11 Tanrygulyyeva²⁷, Marina Melkumova²⁸, Daniel Weghuber²⁹, Eha Nurk³⁰, Päivi Mäki³¹, Ingunn
12 Holden Bergh³², Sergej Ostojic³³, Kenisha Russell Jonsson³⁴, Igor Spiroski^{35,36}, Harry Rutter³⁷,
13 Wolfgang Ahrens³⁸, Ivo Rakovac³, Stephen Whiting³, Joao Breda³

14

15 ¹Croatian Institute of Public Health

16 ²University of Zagreb, School of Medicine

17 ³WHO European Office for the Prevention and Control of Noncommunicable Diseases

18 ⁴Institute of Public Health, Tirana, Albania

19 ⁵National Center of Public Health and Analyses, Sofia, Bulgaria

20 ⁶Institute of Endocrinology, Obesity Management Centre, Prague, Czech Republic

21 ⁷Danish Health Authority

22 ⁸National Institute of Public Health, University of Southern Denmark

23 ⁹French Public Health Agency

24 ¹⁰National Center for Disease Control and Public Health of Georgia

25 ¹¹College Principal, UCD College of Health and Agricultural Sciences

26 ¹²Italian National Institute of Health (Istituto Superiore di Sanità)

27 ¹³National Center of Public health, Ministry of Health of the Republic of Kazakhstan

28 ¹⁴Chief researcher in the Kyrgyz Republic

29 ¹⁵Centre for Disease Prevention and Control

30 ¹⁶Lithuanian University of Health Sciences, Faculty of Public Health

31 ¹⁷Primary Health Care Malta

32 ¹⁸ Institute of Public Health of Montenegro

33 ¹⁹ Department of Cardiology, Institute of Mother and Child, Warsaw, Poland

34 ²⁰ National Institute of Health Doutor Ricardo Jorge, IP. Lisbon – Portugal

35 ²¹University of Medicine and Pharmacy Carol Davila Bucharest

36 ²²National Research Center Of Endocrinology

37 ²³ Health Authority - San Marino

38 ²⁴Spanish Agency for Food Safety & Nutrition, Ministry Of Consumer Affairs, Spain

39 ²⁵WHO Country Office for Tajikistan

40 ²⁶Hacettepe University, Faculty of Medicine, Department of Public Health

41 ²⁷ Internal Diseases Department of the Scientific Clinical Centre of Mother and Child Health

42 ²⁸ Arabkir Medical Centre-Institute of Child and Adolescent Health

43 ²⁹ Department of Pediatrics, Paracelsus Medical University, Salzburg, Austria

44 ³⁰ Department of Nutrition Research, National Institute for Health Development, Tallinn, Estonia

45 ³¹ Finnish Institute for Health and Welfare

46 ³² Department of Health and Inequality, Division of Mental and Physical Health, Norwegian Institute
47 of Public Health

48 ³³ University of Novi Sad, Serbia

49 ³⁴ Department of Living Conditions and Lifestyle, Public Health Agency of Sweden

50 ³⁵ Institute of Public Health, Skopje, North Macedonia

51 ³⁶ Faculty of Medicine, Ss. Cyril and Methodius University – Skopje, North Macedonia

52 ³⁷ University of Bath, UK

53 ³⁸ Leibniz Institute for Prevention Research and Epidemiology, BIPS, Bremen, Germany; Faculty of
54 Mathematics and Computer Science, University of Bremen, Germany

55

56 **Key words:** social inequalities, socioeconomic status, physical activity, sedentary behaviour,
57 children, sleep hygiene, screen time

58 **Running title:** Social inequalities in Children's Movement Behaviours

59 **Acknowledgements:** We gratefully acknowledge support from Liza Villas and Gerben Rienk for
60 making the COSI project possible.

61 **Funding:** Data collection in the countries was made possible through funding from: *Croatia:* Ministry
62 of Health, Croatian Institute of Public Health and WHO Regional Office for Europe. *Albania:* World
63 Health Organization (WHO) Country Office Albania and the WHO Regional Office for Europe.
64 *Denmark:* The Danish Ministry of Health. *Italy:* Italian Ministry of Health; Italian National Institute
65 of Health (Istituto Superiore di Sanità). *Kazakhstan:* the Ministry of Health of the Republic of
66 Kazakhstan within the scientific and technical program. *Latvia:* Centre for Disease Prevention and
67 Control, Ministry of Health, Latvia. *Spain:* the Spanish Agency for Food Safety & Nutrition. *Austria:*
68 Federal Ministry of Labor, Social Affairs, Health and Consumer Protection of Austria. *Bulgaria:*
69 WHO Regional Office for Europe. *Czech Republic:* Ministry of Health of the Czech Republic, grant
70 nr. 17-31670A and MZCR—RVO EU 00023761. The authors gratefully acknowledge support from
71 a grant from the Russian Government in the context of the WHO European Office for the Prevention
72 and Control of NCDs.

73 **Disclaimer:** JB, JW, IR, and SW are staff members of WHO and MB is a WHO consultant. The
74 authors alone are responsible for the views expressed in this article and they do not necessarily
75 represent the views, decisions or policies of the institutions with which they are affiliated.

Formatted: Font: Italic

Formatted: Font: Italic

76 **Potential conflicts of interest:** The authors declare no conflict of interest. The funders played no role
77 in the design of the COSI protocol, the decision to write this paper or its content.

78 **Statement of ethics:** The COSI study follows the International Ethical Guidelines for Biomedical
79 Research Involving Human Subjects. Local ethics approval was also granted.

80 **Copyright:**

81 © World Health Organization [year]. Licensee ()

82 This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution IGO
83 License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/igo/legalcode>), which permits unrestricted use,
84 distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited. In any
85 reproduction of this article there should not be any suggestion that WHO or this article endorse any
86 specific organisation or products. The use of the WHO logo is not permitted. This notice should be
87 preserved along with the article's original URL.

88

89 **Corresponding author*

90 Sanja Musić Milanović

91 Croatian Institute of Public Health

92 Rockefellerova 7

93 10000 Zagreb

94 Croatia

95 sanja.music@hzjz.hr

96 **Conflicts of Interest:** The authors declare no conflict of interest. The funders played no role in the
97 design of the COSI protocol, the decision to write this paper or its content.

98 **Abbreviations:**

99 World Health Organization – WHO

100 socioeconomic status – SES

101 WHO European Childhood Obesity Surveillance Initiative – COSI

102 odds ratio – OR

103 95% confidence interval – 95% CI

104 gross domestic product - GDP

105 **Abstract**

106 Physical activity, sedentary behaviour and sleep ~~time~~ are important predictors of children's health
107 ~~outcomes in children~~. This paper aimed to investigate socioeconomic disparities in physical activity,
108 sedentary behaviour and sleep across the ~~World Health Organization (WHO)~~ European region. This
109 cross-sectional study used data on 124,700 children aged 6 to 9 years from 24 countries participating
110 in the ~~fourth round of data collection of the~~ WHO European Childhood Obesity Surveillance Initiative
111 ~~(COSI)~~ between 2015 and 2017. ~~Family S~~ socioeconomic status (SES) was measured through parental
112 education, parental employment status and family perceived wealth. Overall, results showed different
113 patterns in socioeconomic disparities in children's movement behaviours ~~physical activity, sedentary~~
114 ~~behaviour and sleep duration in children~~ across countries. In general, ~~children from higher~~
115 ~~socioeconomic group~~ high SES children were more likely to use motorised transportation ~~to and from~~
116 ~~school~~. Low SES c ~~Children from lower socioeconomic groups~~ were less likely to participate in sports
117 clubs ~~for at least two hours a week~~ and more likely to have more than two hours ~~/a~~ day of screen
118 time. Children with low parental education had a 2.24 [95% CI 1.94-2.58] times higher risk of
119 practising sports for less than 2 hours ~~/a~~ week. In the pooled analysis, SES wasn't ~~none of the included~~
120 ~~socioeconomic indicators were~~ significantly related to actively playing ~~for less than an hour a day~~.
121 The relationship between SES and sleep varied by the SES indicator used. ~~Higher parental education~~
122 ~~and lower perceived wealth were associated with sleeping for less than 9 hours per night, which was~~
123 ~~unexpected and ought to be further investigated~~. Importantly, r ~~results showed that there are~~
124 ~~significant socioeconomic disparities in physical activity, sedentary behaviour and sleep among~~
125 ~~school children from the WHO European region, but~~ that low SES is not always associated with a
126 higher prevalence of "less healthy" behaviours. There is a great diversity in SES patterns across
127 countries which supports the need for country specific, targeted public health interventions.

128

129 **1 Introduction**

130 The global burden of childhood obesity has drastically risen in the past four decades.¹ In 2016,
131 according to recent World Health Organization (WHO) global estimates, more than 340 million
132 children and adolescents aged 5–19 years were living with overweight or obesity.²

133 Obesity is the consequence of a complex interplay of environmental, socioeconomic and behavioural
134 factors. Obesity in childhood and later in life is one of the leading risk factors for noncommunicable
135 diseases and premature death.^{3–5} Stalling the rise in obesity is of global public health concern.⁶
136 Physical inactivity and sedentary behaviour have been identified as two independent risk factors for
137 childhood obesity.⁷ There is also increasing evidence that short sleep duration results in metabolic
138 changes that contribute to the development of obesity.⁸

139 Early school years are a time during which children have the opportunity to develop healthy habits
140 that persist through adolescence into adult life. WHO recommends that children aged 5-17 years do
141 at least an average of 60 minutes per day of moderate- to vigorous-intensity, mostly aerobic, physical
142 activity across the week and that on at least 3 days a week vigorous-intensity aerobic activities, as
143 well as those that strengthen muscle and bone, should be incorporated.⁹ It is also recommended that
144 children have no more than 2 hours a day of recreational screen time and limit sitting for extended
145 periods.^{9–11} However, according to a recent study, only 19% of children aged 11-17 years globally
146 were sufficiently physically active in 2016.¹² Temporal trend studies suggest that since 2002 young
147 people have become less physically active and more sedentary^{13–16} - total screen time for 15-year-
148 olds increased for more than two hours daily on average in many countries between 2002 and 2010.¹³
149 In order to be able to address these trends and optimise and target public health interventions, we
150 need to have a better insight on the determinants of children’s movement behaviours. Identifying
151 socioeconomic determinants of health related behaviours is especially important because these
152 findings can be used to inform equity policies that reduce health inequalities.

153 With regard to socioeconomic status (SES) and physical activity, heterogeneous results have been
154 found thus far.¹⁷⁻¹⁹ Data from the Health Behaviour in School-aged Children 2017/2018 study showed
155 that physical activity participation is lower among adolescents from less affluent families.²⁰ While a
156 systematic review suggested that adolescents with higher SES had higher levels of physical activity,
157 it was also reported that 42% of the studies showed an inverse or no association.²¹ Possible reasons
158 for these observed inconsistencies were (a) the heterogeneity in the indicators of SES, (b) the mostly
159 self-reported subjective measurement of physical activity and (c) inconsistent criteria of measurement
160 (frequency vs duration) and varying domains of physical activity.²²

161 Similar to physical activity, research on SES and sedentary behaviour, and more specifically
162 sedentary screen time, i.e. time spent passively watching screen-based entertainment, has suggested
163 that lower SES is associated with spending more time watching television.^{23,24} Several more recent
164 studies which included other sedentary activities (such as reading, playing computer games, using
165 social media) also showed that lower SES was associated with increased time watching television,
166 but not with an increase in sedentary activities overall.²⁵⁻²⁸ Furthermore, the relationship between
167 SES and sedentary behaviour patterns may not be consistent across countries.²⁵

168 Studies suggest that short sleep duration may also be associated with SES, with some indications that
169 children from low socioeconomic backgrounds may be at higher risk for sleep deficiencies.²⁹⁻³¹

170 The research on SES and physical activity, sedentary behaviour and sleep duration is complicated
171 further by the multifaceted nature and lack of a standardised definition and metric for SES, with a
172 number of different indicators in use. This fact, coupled with the difficulty of accurately assessing
173 physical activity and sedentary behaviour in a standardized way, has led to diversity in methods and
174 hindered the reproducibility of results.³² The most commonly used indicators of SES have been
175 education, income and occupation.^{33,34} Overall, parental education seems to be the strongest predictor
176 of physical activity in children^{33,35}, but it is also known that participation in different types of physical
177 activity varies according to family income.³⁶ Parental employment has been independently associated

178 with children's physical activity and sedentary behaviour as well.^{37,38} Composite affluence or
179 deprivation indices are also commonly used as measures of SES in health research but their use is
180 complicated in cross-country studies because of big variations in what constitutes SES in different
181 countries.

182 Our aim was to investigate the socioeconomic disparities — measured as differences in indicators of
183 parental education, perceived wealth and employment status — in physical activity, sedentary
184 behaviour and sleep duration among children aged 6 to 9 years in 24 countries from the WHO
185 European Region.

186 **2 Methods**

187 In 2015-2017 the fourth round of data collection for the WHO European Childhood Obesity
188 Surveillance Initiative (COSI) took place in 36 countries of the WHO European region.^{39,40} Data
189 were collected following a common protocol.⁴¹ The COSI study follows the International Ethical
190 Guidelines for Biomedical Research Involving Human Subjects⁴² and protocols for all national
191 studies included in this paper were approved by local ethical committees, with the exception of Spain,
192 where no local ethical committee was asked for approval since it is not mandatory.

193 Besides measuring children's bodyweight and height, COSI gathered information on indicators
194 regarding children's movement behaviours (physical activity, screen time, sleep duration), parental
195 socioeconomic characteristics and comorbid conditions associated with obesity. These data were
196 collected in 24 out of the 36 countries participating in the fourth round of COSI using a common form
197 which was filled in by children's parents or caregivers.⁴³ Only the countries that had information on
198 children's physical activity, sedentary behaviour, sleep and SES, were included in this analysis:
199 Albania, Bulgaria, Croatia, Czechia, Denmark, France, Georgia, Ireland, Italy, Kazakhstan,
200 Kyrgyzstan, Lithuania, Latvia, Malta, Montenegro, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Russian Federation
201 (only Moscow), San Marino, Spain, Tajikistan, Turkey and Turkmenistan.

202 A nationally representative sample of children was drawn in almost all of the above-mentioned
203 countries, with exceptions in Malta and San Marino, where all classes of third graders in the country
204 were included in the study, and in the Russian Federation where data collection was carried out only
205 in Moscow. More information on study and sampling design are provided elsewhere.^{39,44,45}

206 The inclusion criteria for this paper were: i) children aged 6 to 9 years; ii) children with available
207 information on at least one of the variables about physical activity, screen time and sleep pattern; iv)
208 children with available information on at least one of the variables used to measure family SES.

209 Parents were asked to report on their child's physical activity patterns, sedentary behaviour and sleep.
210 Among these, this paper focused on the following behaviours: transportation to and from school, time
211 spent practising sports, time spent actively/vigorously playing, time spent watching TV or using
212 electronic devices, and hours of sleep per night. The questions and answer options used to gather
213 information on physical activity patterns, sedentary behaviour and sleep are described in Table 1 The
214 answer options were categorized into "healthy" and "less healthy" behaviours in order to enable the
215 comparisons between different socioeconomic population groups. The "less healthy" behaviours
216 included: taking a motorised vehicle to and from school, participating in a sports or dancing club less
217 than two hours per week, playing actively or vigorously for less than one hour a day, watching TV or
218 using electronic devices for two hours a day or more, and sleeping fewer than nine hours a day. The
219 justification for the chosen cut-offs is described elsewhere.⁴⁶

220 *[Insert Table 1 here]*

221 The family SES was measured considering the following three separate categorical variables: parental
222 education, family perceived wealth, and parental employment status. The three SES indicators were
223 analysed separately, and not as a composite measure of SES.

224 Firstly, parental education was defined in two stages. For the purpose of this study, we created binary
225 categories to describe parents' formal educational attainment. Parents who reported their educational

226 attainment as “primary school or less”, “secondary or high school”, and “vocational school”, were
227 described as having “lower education”. Parents who reported their educational attainment as
228 “undergraduate or bachelor degree” and “master degree or higher” were described as having “higher
229 education”. Then, to describe parental education from the child’s perspective, we created three
230 categories: 1) Low parental education (both parents with lower education); 2) Medium parental
231 education (one parent with lower education, one parent with higher education); 3) High parental
232 education (both parents with higher education).

233

234 Secondly, family perceived wealth describes how easily the family met the end of a typical month
235 with its own earnings. This was defined using three categories: 1) Low family perceived wealth (those
236 who had trouble meeting the end of the month with their own earnings); 2) Medium family perceived
237 wealth (those who met the end of the month with their own earnings without serious problems); 3)
238 High family perceived wealth (those who easily met the end of the month with their own earnings).

239 The first of these categories, “low family perceived wealth”, was created by combining the following
240 two answer options from the family form: ‘We have trouble meeting the end of the month with our
241 earnings’ and ‘We barely meet the end of the month with our earnings’. The variables are described
242 in more detail elsewhere.⁴⁷

243

244 Finally, parental employment was defined in two stages. Parents were classified as “employed”,
245 “unemployed” or “inactive” based on the following answer options from the optional family record
246 form: “employed” comprises the answers “government employed”, “non-government employed”,
247 and “self-employed”; “unemployed” is indicated by the answer “unemployed- able to work”; and
248 “inactive” comprises the answers “unemployed- unable to work”, “student”, “homemaker” and
249 “retired”. Thus, from the child’s perspective we defined parental employment status according to two

250 categories: 1) Low parental employment (one or more parent(s) unemployed or inactive); 2) High
251 parental employment (both parents employed).

252

253 The COSI family form asked about the education and employment of the responding caregiver and
254 his/her partner/spouse, so the information about parents' education and employment was generally
255 available only when the form was filled in by the mother or the father. In Bulgaria, Czechia, Italy,
256 Malta, San Marino, Spain and Turkey, however, the education and employment specifically of the
257 parents was gathered, regardless of which caregiver filled in the form. It should be noted that the
258 categories for parental education and employment status tend to presume a traditional two-parent
259 family structure which does not reflect the reality for all children. The family status was not gathered
260 in the fourth round of COSI so it was not possible to identify children living in a single-parent family
261 and include them in the analysis.

262 2.1 Data analysis

263 For each "less healthy" behaviour listed above, we calculated country-specific and pooled prevalence
264 values, both considering all children together and stratified by each of the SES variables. We tested
265 for differences between SES in the distribution of the responses using the Rao-Scott χ^2 test, a design-
266 adjusted version of the Pearson's χ^2 test.

267 Country-specific multivariate multilevel logistic regression models were estimated for each
268 behaviour separately.

269 All models included the following covariates: family's SES variables, child's sex, age and BMI
270 category according to WHO growth references (normal weight, overweight (including obesity) and
271 obesity), degree of urbanization in the child's residence or school and the region/administrative
272 division of the residence place. The adjusted Odds Ratios (ORs) and relative 95% confidence intervals
273 (95% CIs) for parental education (reference category: both parents with high level), parental

274 employment status (reference category: both parents employed or self-employed) and family
275 perceived wealth (reference category: families that easily met the end of the month with their own
276 earnings) were estimated. In some countries one or two SES variables were not included in the
277 analysis, as the data were not collected (see Table 2). The same regression analysis was carried out
278 using pooled data from all countries. In this case, the model included country where children had
279 been surveyed as a covariate. All regression models included random effects for primary schools
280 attended by children – except for Czechia, where paediatrician clinics were used instead of schools.

281 Sampling weights to adjust for the sampling design, oversampling and nonresponse (at the level of
282 the child form) were estimated and applied for all countries that applied a sampling approach in the
283 fourth round.⁴⁵ In the pooled analyses a population size adjusting factor was applied to the post-
284 stratification weights. The adjusting factor was calculated based on the number of children belonging
285 to the targeted age group according to Eurostat figures or national official statistics for 2016. All
286 analyses took account of the cluster sample design. A p-value of 0.05 was used to define statistical
287 significance. All statistical analyses were performed in the statistical software package Stata version
288 15.1.

289 Only survey sites with complete information on family's SES variables were included in pooled
290 analyses – i.e. all countries except France, Ireland, Italy, Malta, Russian Federation (Moscow), San
291 Marino and Turkmenistan. Due to the heterogeneity in the number and type of age groups targeted
292 by each country, the pooled analysis included only one target age group per country, namely 7 year
293 olds, in order to balance the contribution of each country to the pooled estimates and to limit as much
294 as possible the differences in children's age. If 7-year-olds were not targeted in a country, the nearest
295 targeted age group was chosen.

296 The results are presented in the tables by grouping included countries into six macro-regions
297 according to the United Nations "Standard Country or Area Codes for Statistical Use": Northern
298 Europe (Denmark, Ireland, Lithuania and Latvia); Western Europe (France); Eastern Europe

299 (Bulgaria, Czechia, Poland, Romania and Moscow); Southern Europe (Albania, Croatia, Italy, Malta,
300 Montenegro, Portugal, San Marino and Spain); Central Asia (Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan and
301 Turkmenistan) and Western Asia (Georgia and Turkey).⁴⁸

302 **3 Results**

303 In total, 124,700 children from 24 countries in the WHO European Region fourth round of COSI
304 were included in the study (Supplementary Table 2). The final number of children included in the
305 analyses varied among countries — from below 500 in San Marino to over 40,000 in Italy. Most
306 countries had a slightly higher proportion of boys (51.4%) than girls (Table 2). With regard to SES,
307 more than half of the children (54.9%) came from families with low parental education. However,
308 73.7% of children came from families with high or medium perceived wealth, and more than half of
309 the children (53.3%), had high parental employment status. These figures varied highly between
310 countries, with countries from Northern and Western Europe showing lower proportions of children
311 with low parental education. Large differences were also determined in the prevalence of investigated
312 “less healthy” behaviours in specific countries, and are described in detail in a recent paper by
313 Whiting et al⁴⁴.

314 *[Insert Table 2 here]*

315 **3.1 Prevalence of “less healthy” behaviours by SES**

316 Analysis of the pooled data shows that travelling to and from school by motorised vehicle was most
317 common among children from families with high parental education, (45.6%) high parental
318 employment (43.8%), and/or high family perceived wealth (41.3%) (Figure 1). A reverse
319 socioeconomic gradient emerged in relation to practising sports, with children from less affluent
320 families being less engaged in these activities. On average, 70.9% of children from families with low
321 parental education spent less than 2 hours/week on sports compared to 38.2% of children with high
322 parental education. The same gradient was recorded for parental employment and family perceived

323 wealth. The proportion of children playing actively for less than 1 hour/day, however, did not vary
324 significantly among families with different SES. Excessive screen time was more common among
325 children from families with lower SES, with higher proportions of children watching or using
326 electronic devices for at least 2 hours/day among families with low perceived wealth (38.4%) and
327 low parental education (37.5%). Low sleep duration did not show any specific socioeconomic
328 gradient, as differences among different socioeconomic groups were limited and without a clear
329 direction (Figure 1).

330 Country-specific levels of behaviours by SES are given in Supplementary Tables 2, 3, and 4 and show
331 wide variations between countries.

332 *[Insert Figure 1 here]*

333 **3.2 Odds Ratio of having “less healthy” behaviours related to SES**

334 Overall, the pooled estimates found that children of families with lower socio-economic status were
335 less likely to travel to school via motorized vehicle (Figure 2a). Travelling to school via motorized
336 vehicle was less likely among children with low parental education (OR 0.78 [95% CI 0.67-0.90]),
337 low family perceived wealth (OR 0.68 [95% CI 0.60-0.77]), and low parental employment (OR 0.67
338 [95% CI 0.59-0.77]). Similar patterns, for at least one of the SES variables, emerged in all countries
339 – although with different strength – except in Denmark and Russian Federation. In countries in
340 Northern Europe and Central Asia, parental employment status was not related to using motorised
341 transportation to school.

342 *[Insert Figure 2 here]*

343 Overall, no SES variable was associated with playing actively or vigorously for less than one hour a
344 day (Figure 2b). However, the pooled estimates concealed different patterns in countries, especially
345 with regards to parental education. Among most of the Northern, Eastern, and Southern European

346 countries, children with low parental education played actively/vigorously for longer. Meanwhile, the
347 opposite situation emerged among the Central Asian countries.

348 Among the three indicators of physical activity, low engagement in practising sports showed the
349 strongest association with family SES. In fact, lower SES was associated with higher odds of
350 practising sports for less than 2 hours a week in the overall pooled estimates and in almost all
351 countries; and parental education showed a stronger association than the other two SES variables
352 (Figure 2c). On average, children with medium parental education and those with low parental
353 education were, respectively, 1.30 [95% CI; 1.12-1.51] and 2.24 [95% CI 1.94-2.58] times more
354 likely to practise sports for less than 2 hours a week than children with high parental education, i.e.
355 every lower level of parental education brings a significantly higher risk for being less engaged in
356 sports (Figure 2c and Supplementary Table 5). Furthermore, children with low parental education
357 (compared to high parental education) had a higher chance of low participation in sports in almost
358 every country. Odds ratios varied between 1.63 [95% CI 1.18-2.25] in Czechia to 3.98 [95% CI 3.17-
359 4.98] in Portugal, with the only exception being Denmark where the OR was lower than 1 (although
360 this was not statistically significant). Similar patterns were recorded for low family perceived wealth
361 (in comparison to high) and low parental employment (compared to high). In Central Asia no relation
362 between family perceived wealth and practising sports for less than 2 hours a week was detected.

363 Lower parental education and lower perceived wealth were associated with increased screen time in
364 pooled analyses (Figure 3). Children with low parental education were 1.33 [95% CI; 1.18-1.51] times
365 more likely to spend at least 2 hours a day watching TV or using electronic devices than children with
366 high parental education. This association was found in most Northern, Western, Eastern and Southern
367 European countries, although the opposite was observed in Malta, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan and
368 Tajikistan. In pooled analyses, low family perceived wealth was associated with an increased risk for
369 excessive screen time of 1.27 [95% CI 1.14-1.42]. Most of the European countries showed a similar

370 pattern while there were no associations for countries in Central Asia. There were no clear patterns
371 for parental employment status and screen time.

372 *[Insert Figure 3 here]*

373 The relationship between SES and sleep varied by the SES indicator used. The pooled analyses
374 showed that low family perceived wealth was associated with increased risk of shorter sleep time
375 (less than 9 hours per night); whereas low parental education was associated with a decreased risk
376 (Figure 4). In almost all countries, children with low family perceived wealth were more likely to
377 sleep less than 9 hours/night, the pooled value for the OR being equal to 1.54 [95% CI 1.27-1.87].
378 Children with low parental education had lower odds of shorter sleep time compared to those with
379 high parental education – pooled OR equal to 0.72 [95% CI; 0.59-0.87]. This pattern emerged in most
380 of the countries but not in Italy, Malta and Spain where the association was the opposite. Finally,
381 parental employment was not associated with sleep time: pooled OR 0.91 [95% CI 0.74-1.11], except
382 in Northern European countries, Lithuania and Latvia, where children with low parental employment
383 had significantly lower odds of shorter sleep time than children with high parental employment. In
384 Tajikistan, low parental employment was associated with a higher risk for shorter sleep time.

385 *[Insert Figure 4 here]*

386 **4 Discussion**

387 In this study we analysed highly standardized data pertaining to socioeconomic disparities in physical
388 activity, sedentary behaviour and sleep patterns of 134,874 children aged 6 to 9 years from 24
389 countries in the WHO European Region.

390 Overall results showed heterogeneity in direction of associations across SES and with different SES
391 indicators across countries and macro regions.

392 Active transportation such as walking or cycling to and from school, when it is safe to do so, presents
393 a good opportunity to achieve daily recommended levels of physical activity, by integrating it into

394 daily life without additional costs.⁴⁹ Our results showed that transportation to and from school using
395 motorised vehicles was more prevalent among children from families with a higher socioeconomic
396 background. These findings are in line with previous research showing that active transport to and
397 from school is related to lower SES.⁵⁰⁻⁵³ Possible reasons are that lower-income households are less
398 likely to have access to private vehicles because of associated costs⁵¹ and parents with lower SES
399 have less time to drive a child to and from school.⁵¹ Interestingly, in line with other Scandinavian
400 studies, in Denmark active transportation was not related to parental SES.⁵⁴ This is likely due to a
401 focus on safe and convenient cycling infrastructure in urban planning policy; in particular having safe
402 walking and cycling lanes close to schools, as well as resulting cultural norms around cycling. No
403 data were available on school proximity or traffic density, which could confound these findings.⁵⁵ Air
404 pollution is also a possible factor of parental concern when choosing school transport modes, even
405 though research has shown that health benefits of active transport outweigh the negative impact of
406 air pollution.^{56,57} These results point out the need for targeted interventions where active
407 transportation to and from school would be promoted as a healthy choice universally, so that all
408 parents may choose it willingly and not just out of necessity. This is especially important now in the
409 time of the COVID-19 pandemic when many cities introduced more cycling and walking lanes due
410 to air pollution and its role in COVID-19 spread and lethality.⁵⁸

411 Active play is an activity that is natural to children and is a means through which children learn,
412 develop emotionally, acquire motor and problem solving skills, form social relationships and adopt
413 habits.⁵⁹ According to the WHO Global Action Plan on Physical Activity 2018-2030, energetic active
414 play should be encouraged within education, health, and child-care sectors due to its positive effects
415 on growth and development.^{49,60} In this study, we found that family perceived wealth and parental
416 employment were not significantly related to active play for less than 1 hour a day. In regards to
417 parental education, there was a great diversity at the country level. In most of the European countries
418 in the study children of parents with lower education are at lower risk of playing for less than 1

419 hour/day, while in Central Asian countries it is the other way around. Previous studies on the
420 association of SES with children's active play are scarce and conflicting.⁶¹⁻⁶³ Our findings confirm
421 that the association between SES and active play is seemingly very context specific and that it should
422 be investigated on a more local level. Since neighbourhood characteristics are also correlated with
423 active play, promotion of active play by creation of activity-friendly neighbourhoods with formal and
424 informal play areas and high traffic safety is important.⁶²

425 The last "less healthy" physical activity behaviour we investigated, practising sports for less than 2
426 hours per week, was more prevalent among children from families with lower SES and especially
427 common in children from families with economic difficulties. The finding that children from families
428 with lower SES had lower participation rates in organized sports aligns with previously published
429 research from individual European countries, the European region and other countries around the
430 world.^{53,64-66} In Central Asian countries family perceived wealth was not related to practising sports
431 for less than 2 hours a week. All Central Asian countries included in our study, i.e. Kazakhstan,
432 Kyrgyzstan, Turkmenistan and Tajikistan, show a high overall prevalence of this "less healthy"
433 behaviour in children and over half of children from these countries practice sports less than 2 hours
434 per week regardless of SES. The observed higher prevalence of participation in sports in Western and
435 Northern Europe may be due to cultural norms regarding sports clubs, available infrastructure or
436 funding to support participation.

437 Furthermore, we found that lower parental education level was associated with a significantly higher
438 risk of children practicing sports for less than 2 hours a week; more so than the other two SES
439 indicators (parental employment status and family perceived wealth). Compared to children with high
440 parental education, the likelihood of lower participation in sports was increased by 30% among
441 children with medium parental education, and more than doubled among children with low parental
442 education. These findings are in line with the results from a German study, which found that parental
443 education was more strongly associated with children's physical activity than were employment and

444 income.⁶⁷ Similarly, previous studies suggest that the children of parents with higher levels of
445 education tend to participate more regularly in organized sport activities.⁶⁵ In general, families from
446 different socioeconomic backgrounds support their children in different ways.⁶⁸ Families with higher
447 SES usually have more financial resources to support their child's extracurricular activities, and may
448 have been taught more about the importance of regular physical activity for children's health.
449 Therefore, high SES parents are more likely to encourage their children to actively engage in sport
450 clubs.^{69,70} Children of parents with lower SES may not be able to access as many extracurricular
451 activities due to financial barriers, and therefore are more likely to choose other available solutions
452 for physical activity, such as free school sports and playing sports informally in public spaces such
453 as parks.⁷¹

454 Low parental education and low family perceived wealth were found to be risk factors for watching
455 TV or using electronic devices for at least 2 hours a day; except in Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan
456 and Turkmenistan. Similar results were found by a study from Ireland, in which children who attended
457 schools in communities at risk of disadvantage and social exclusion spent more time watching
458 television in comparison to children who attended other schools.⁵³ Even though this study used a
459 subjective perception of family wealth, its results are consistent with studies that used material
460 household characteristics as metrics of family affluence.⁷² Other studies also confirm the relationship
461 between sedentary behaviour and lower SES, mostly using parental education as a metric,^{73,74} and
462 hypothesize that TV watching may be an affordable means of entertainment for families with limited
463 time and financial resources.⁷⁴ Parental employment was not related to children's TV watching or
464 electronic device using time, which suggests that increased screen time may be more influenced by a
465 lack of funds/affordable entertainment options than a lack of time. It must be noted that this study
466 only used screen time as an indicator of sedentary behaviour and recent research showed that screen
467 time may not be associated with total sedentary time in children.⁷⁵

468 Another factor that contributes to a healthy active lifestyle throughout the life course is sleep. We
469 observed that the majority of children from the sample slept for 9 hours per night or longer, as
470 recommended.^{11,76} The prevalence of children who slept under 9 hours per night was highest among
471 children from families with low perceived wealth. Two SES indicators, parental education and family
472 perceived wealth, were associated with insufficient sleep in different directions: higher parental
473 education and lower perceived wealth were risk factors for shorter sleep time among children. So far,
474 researchers have discovered significant differences in children's sleeping patterns in groups with
475 different SES. The relationship between lower SES and sleep disorders, later bed times, shorter sleep
476 periods and the lack of bedtime routine^{77,78} has been explained by an interaction between
477 environmental, biomedical and psychosocial factors.⁷⁹ In terms of home environments, insufficient
478 sleep in children may be explained by a lack of spatial resources, inadequate heating and poor air
479 conditions.⁷⁹ An association between screen media use and delayed bedtime and/or decreased total
480 sleep time has also been observed.⁸⁰ In the biomedical realm, chronic diseases such as asthma,
481 overweight and obesity, and others have been associated with sleep disturbances and are more
482 prevalent in children with lower SES.⁸¹ Lastly, in the psychosocial domain, research has found that
483 lower income families tend to have more inconsistent daily routines, more family stressors and less
484 parental monitoring,⁸² all of which may influence sleeping habits in children. Our finding, that higher
485 parental education was associated with sleeping less than 9 hours per night, has to our knowledge not
486 been described in the literature and merits further investigation in future research.

487 **4.1 Strengths and limitations**

488 The major strength of this study is its large population, comprising nationally representative samples
489 from almost every country that participated. Furthermore, the standardized method of data collection
490 and processing allowed inter-country comparisons, as well as enhanced the generalizability of our
491 results.

492 There are, however, some limitations. Firstly, the presented data were self-reported. In order to obtain
493 more reliable information, physical activity, sedentary behaviours and sleeping patterns would need
494 to be measured objectively. Secondly, we only looked at family level indicators of SES but it is very
495 likely that community level SES is independently associated to investigated behaviours as well – high
496 SES neighbourhoods offer more opportunities for active transportation, outdoor play and recreational
497 sports. Thirdly, as some regions were more represented than the others, we need to be cautious when
498 interpreting regional differences. Fourthly, differences in sample sizes within countries, even though
499 they are nationally representative, may have impacted cross country comparisons. There were also
500 varying response rates for the relevant questionnaire (the “family form”) including the SES measures,
501 and we do not know if the variation across SES measures in different countries and regions is
502 representative of the distribution in the overall population. We did not have information available on
503 the SES of all children with family form filled in. The information on a child’s family structure was
504 not available, and therefore we were able to classify the parental education and employment status
505 only when this information was available for both parents. We included for this analysis only children
506 who had one mother and one father as primary caregivers; the exclusion of families with a different
507 structure (or single parent families) may have resulted in selection bias and limited our capacity to
508 accurately examine associations between SES and health behaviours. It is possible that vulnerable
509 families were less likely to participate in this study, and that this lower level of representation may
510 have caused us to underestimate the level of inequalities. Finally, due to the use of cross-sectional
511 data it is not possible to make any causal inferences about the obtained results.

512 **5 Conclusion**

513 In conclusion, our study provides a snapshot of current physical activity, sedentary behaviour and
514 sleep patterns among children from different SES backgrounds in the WHO European region. The
515 results show that there are significant socioeconomic disparities in physical activity, sedentary
516 behaviour and sleep, but different “less healthy” behaviours exhibit different SES patterns and vary

517 across countries. The results of this study also disprove the common notion that low SES is always
518 associated with a higher prevalence of “less healthy” behaviours. As can be seen from the country
519 level results of this study, there is much that high SES groups can learn and model from the low SES
520 groups in specific countries. This finding should be used for empowering low SES families through
521 public health efforts.

522 In general, children from families with low SES had the highest odds for low engagement in sport
523 activities (less than two hours per week) and for more screen time than recommended (more than two
524 hours per day). In contrast, children from high SES families were shown to have a higher risk of not
525 using active transportation to and from school. Higher parental education also seemed to pose a risk
526 for sleeping less than 9 hours per night which was surprising and ought to be further investigated.
527 Since previous research shows that both the behaviours examined in this study and SES are related
528 to childhood obesity, a wider analysis that observed the association between SES and physical activity
529 and eating-related behaviours in different weight status groups would be of great interest. Considering
530 that the studied behaviours are also interrelated, future research should also look at patterns and
531 clustering in child movement behaviours and how they are associated to SES.

532 Both this study and the one on socio-economic differences in eating habits published in this
533 supplement⁸³ show that SES is associated with the prevalence of “less healthy” behaviours in varying
534 patterns across countries, which is why it is necessary to develop and implement public health
535 interventions to promote child health and prevent obesity using different strategies for different SES
536 groups and depending on the country context. In order to continuously develop and re-evaluate such
537 targeted interventions, it is crucial to continue nationally-comparable surveillance of children’s and
538 family’s activity behaviours and SES. COSI is highly relevant for this purpose; using a standardized
539 methodology and direct measurements by trained staff to regularly provide relevant information on
540 children’s bodyweight status. It also collects school and parent reported information on lifestyle and
541 environments, all of which facilitates comparison at the level of the WHO European region. This vital

542 evidence can support public health professionals, policy makers and other important stakeholders to
543 invest in healthy active children today, and thus promote healthy active adults in the future.

Table 1 - Questions and their predefined answer options as included in the COSI family record form to collect data on children's physical activity, sedentary behaviour and SES and categorization of the answer options for the paper's analyses.

Family record form items – children's physical activity, screen time and sleep duration	Answer options	'Less healthy' behaviour
Physical activity		
'How does your child usually get to and from school?'	'Walking or cycling'; 'Motorised vehicles'; 'Combination of walking and cycling and motorised vehicles'	'Motorised vehicles'
'Is your child a member of one or more sports clubs or dancing courses (e.g. football, running, hockey, swimming, tennis, basketball, gymnastics, ballet, fitness, ballroom dancing, etc.)?'	'Yes'; 'No'	<2 hours/week='None'; '1 hour a week';
'Over a typical or usual week (including weekends), on how many hours does your child spend on sports and physical activities with these sport clubs or dancing courses?'	'None'; '1 hour a week'; '2 hours a week'; '3 hours a week'; '4 hours a week'; '5 hours a week'; '6 hours a week'; '7 hours a week'; '8 hours a week'; '9 hours a week'; '10 hours a week'; '11 hours a week'	
'In his/her free time, about how many hours per day is your child usually playing actively/vigorously (e.g. running, jumping outside or moving fitness games inside)? Please tick one box for weekdays and one box for weekend'	'Never'; 'less than 1 hour per day'; 'about 1 hour per day'; 'about 2 hours per day'; 'about 3 or more hours per day'	<1 h/d ^b ,
'Outside school lessons, how much time does your child usually spend watching TV or using electronic devices such as computer, tablet, smartphone or other device (not including moving or fitness games), either at home or outside home (e.g. cafes, game centres, etc.)?' Please tick one box for weekdays and one box for weekend'	Number of hours per day	≥2 h/d ^c
'At what time does your child usually go to bed on school days?' 'At what time does your child usually wake up on school days?'	__ hours/ __ minutes	<9 h/d

^a Data were not collected or different wording was used or they were not included due to high level of missing data.

^b Numerical values are assigned to the items 'playing actively/vigorously on a weekday' and 'playing actively/vigorously on a weekend day' enabling the conversion of this item to a numerical scale ('never'=0; 'less than 1 hour per day' =0.5; 'about 1 hour per day' =1; 'about 2 hours per day'=2; 'about 3 or more hours per day' =3). Usual play time per day is calculated weighing weekday (5/7) and weekend hours (2/7) accordingly.

^c Number of hours per day is calculated weighing weekday (5/7) and weekend hours (2/7) accordingly.

Table 2 – Children's sex and age, parental education and employment status and family perceived wealth (i.e. how the family met the end of the month with earnings at its disposal) by country and overall *. COSI/WHO Europe round 4 (2015-17)

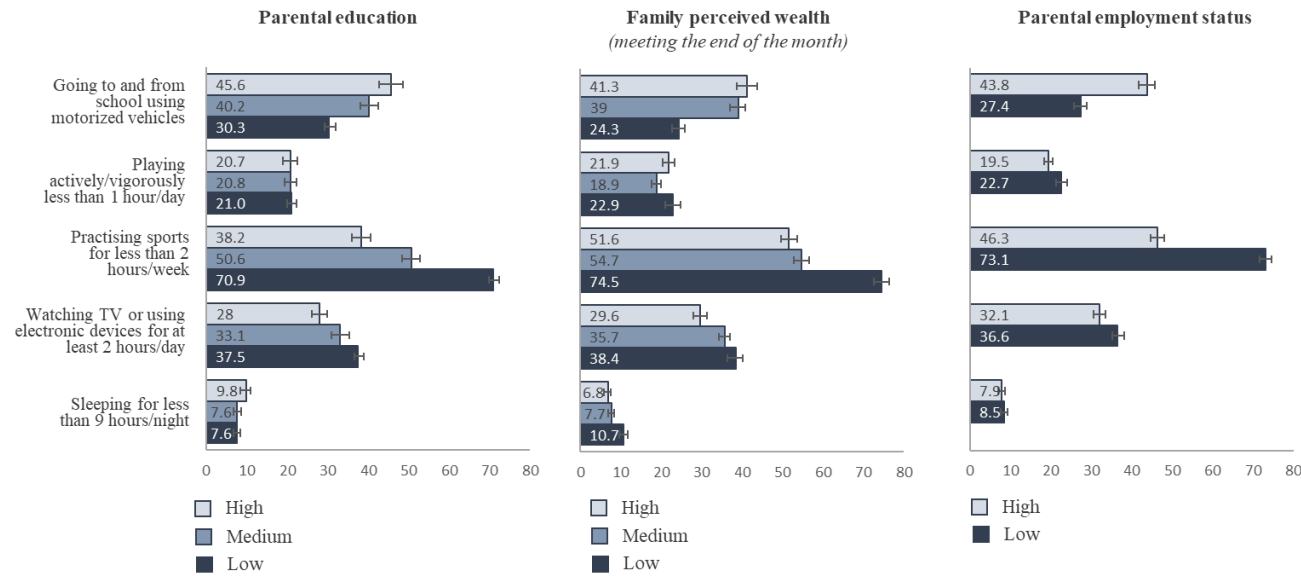
	Child's characteristics		Parental education (%)			Family perceived wealth (%)			Parental employment status (%)	
	Boys, %	Age in years, median (Q1-Q3)	High	Medium	Low	High	Medium	Low	High	Low
Northern Europe										
DEN	52.2	7.2 (0.3)	34.5	31.6	33.9	57.5	35.6	6.9	84.7	15.3
IRE	52.1	7.1 (0.4)	43.3	28.3	28.5	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	64.1	35.9
LTU	50.8	7.8 (0.3)	33.9	29.9	36.2	34.5	46.7	18.8	77.7	22.3
LVA	48.3	8.3 (1.0)	35.8	31.7	32.5	20.6	60.6	18.8	77.6	22.4
Eastern Europe										
BUL	51.5	7.6 (0.2)	22.3	21.0	56.7	17.2	52.3	30.6	70.3	29.7
CZH	51.1	7.0 (0.2)	14.5	21.2	64.3	36.4	51.1	12.5	75.6	24.4
POL	49.8	8.4 (0.2)	40.4	26.4	33.2	26.1	60.3	13.6	74.4	25.6
ROM	49.3	8.5 (0.6)	26.7	14.4	58.9	30.4	45.9	23.7	62.8	37.3
RUS	49.8	7.4 (0.4)	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	49.2	40.9	9.9	n.a.	n.a.
Western Europe										
FRA	49.5	8.1 (0.7)	47.0	29.7	23.2	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	73.1	26.9
Southern Europe										
ALB	52.7	8.5 (0.7)	19.5	11.0	69.5	42.2	29.2	28.7	57.1	42.9
CRO	51.3	8.5 (0.3)	17.1	22.4	60.5	29.3	50.5	20.2	71.6	28.5
ITA	51.6	8.8 (0.3)	12.0	18.3	69.8	10.0	41.0	49.0	n.a.	n.a.
MAT	50.2	7.8 (0.3)	18.7	22.6	58.7	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	62.9	37.1
MNE	52.9	7.4 (0.6)	15.0	22.1	62.9	25.8	48.1	26.1	57.9	42.1
POR	50.8	7.5 (0.6)	14.6	19.7	65.8	26.1	44.2	29.8	73.5	26.5
SMR	45.3	8.8 (0.3)	13.2	25.3	61.6	12.5	52.7	34.9	n.a.	n.a.
SPA	50.8	8.0 (1.1)	27.7	27.9	44.5	45.7	37.8	16.5	58.5	41.5
Central Asia										
KAZ	50.5	9.0 (0.5)	28.1	25.0	47.0	36.8	30.2	33.1	54.3	45.8
KGZ	50.7	7.9 (0.7)	19.4	20.0	60.6	35.3	20.4	44.2	32.6	67.4
TJK	51.8	7.4 (0.3)	5.5	21.3	73.2	32.4	22.4	45.2	25.5	74.5
TKM	50.1	7.7 (0.3)	3.7	12.9	83.4	60.3	32.3	7.4	n.a.	n.a.
Western Asia										
GEO	51.0	7.6 (0.4)	26.1	15.2	58.7	36.5	38.2	25.3	59.5	40.5
TUR	51.0	7.5 (0.4)	10.0	12.6	77.4	25.4	33.2	41.4	15.5	84.6
Pooled estimates	51.4	7.9 (0.7)	23.5	21.6	54.9	33.9	39.8	26.3	53.3	46.7

Figures refer to primary school children from: Albania (ALB); Bulgaria (BUL); Croatia (CRO); Czechia (CZH); Denmark (DEN); France (FRA); Georgia (GEO); Ireland (IRE); Italy (ITA); Kazakhstan (KAZ); Kyrgyzstan (KGZ); Lithuania (LTU); Latvia (LVA); Malta (MAT); Montenegro

(MNE); Poland (POL); Portugal (POR); Romania (ROM); Russia – only Moscow city (RUS); San Marino (SMR); Spain (SPA); Tajikistan (TJK); Turkmenistan (TKM) and Turkey (TUR). Q1, first quartile; Q3, third quartile. Abbreviations: n.a. – not available.

* Information on parental education was not available for Moscow. Data on family perceived wealth were not collected in France, Ireland and Malta; while those on parental employment status were not gathered in Italy, Moscow, San Marino and Turkmenistan. Pooled estimates were calculated including the following age groups/countries: i) 7-year-olds from Bulgaria, Czechia, Denmark, Georgia, Kyrgyzstan, Lithuania, Latvia, Montenegro, Portugal, Spain, Tajikistan and Turkey; ii) 8-year-olds from Albania, Croatia, Poland and Romania; iii) 9-year-olds from Kazakhstan.

Figure 1 - Pooled prevalence (%) of children’s “less healthy” behaviours related to physical activity, screen time and sleep pattern by socioeconomic characteristics *. COSI round 4 (2015-2017)



* Pooled estimates were calculated including the following age groups/countries: i) 7-year-olds from Bulgaria, Czechia, Denmark, Georgia, Kyrgyzstan, Lithuania, Latvia, Montenegro, Portugal, Spain, Tajikistan and Turkey; ii) 8-year-olds from Albania, Croatia, Poland and Romania; iii) 9-year-olds from Kazakhstan.

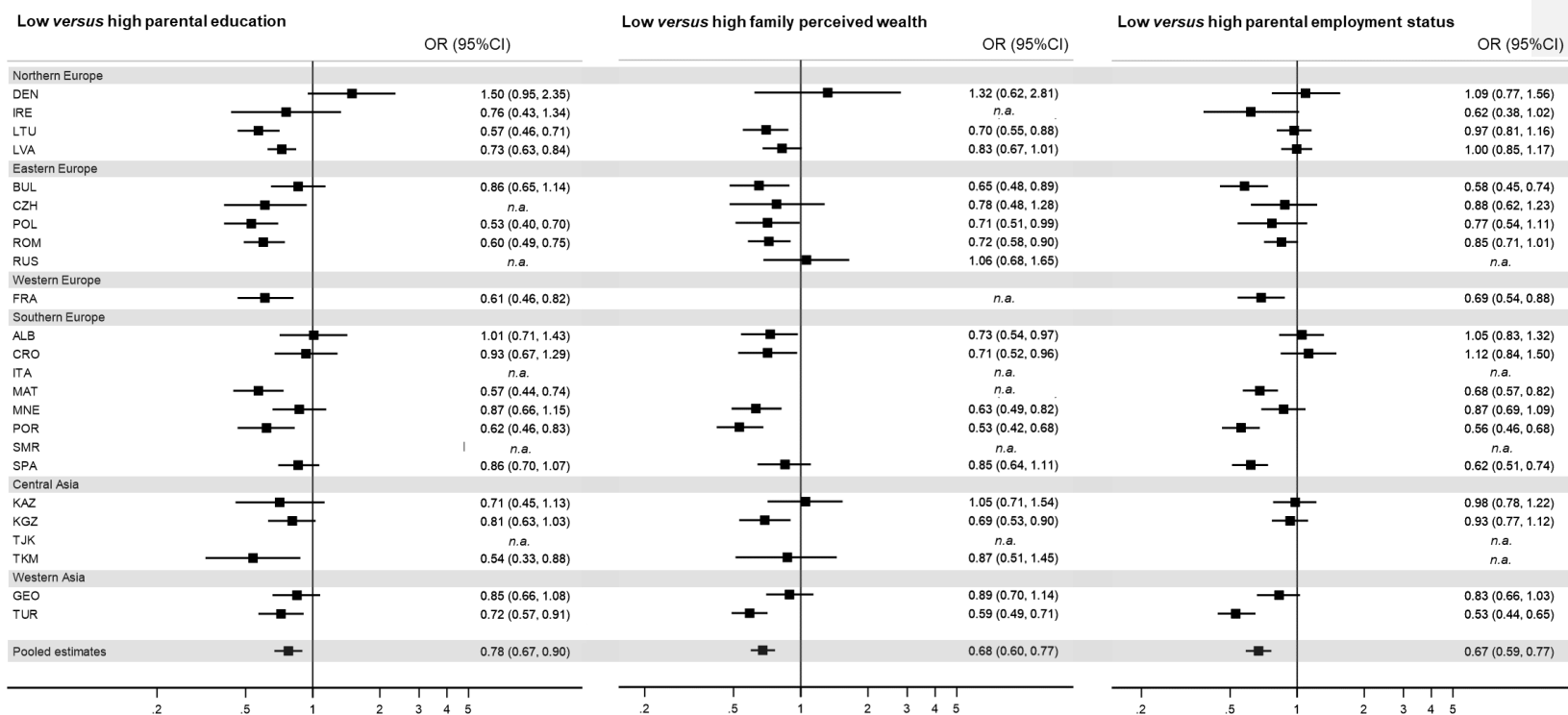
^{a, b} Statistically significant difference of proportions between parental educational attainments for each ‘less healthy’ behaviour - Pearson's chi-squared corrected using Rao-Scott method, $p < 0.001$ (a), $p < 0.0001$ (b).

^{c, d} Statistically significant difference of proportions between family perceived wealth levels for each ‘less healthy’ behaviour - Pearson's chi-squared corrected using Rao-Scott method $p < 0.001$ (c), $p < 0.0001$ (d).

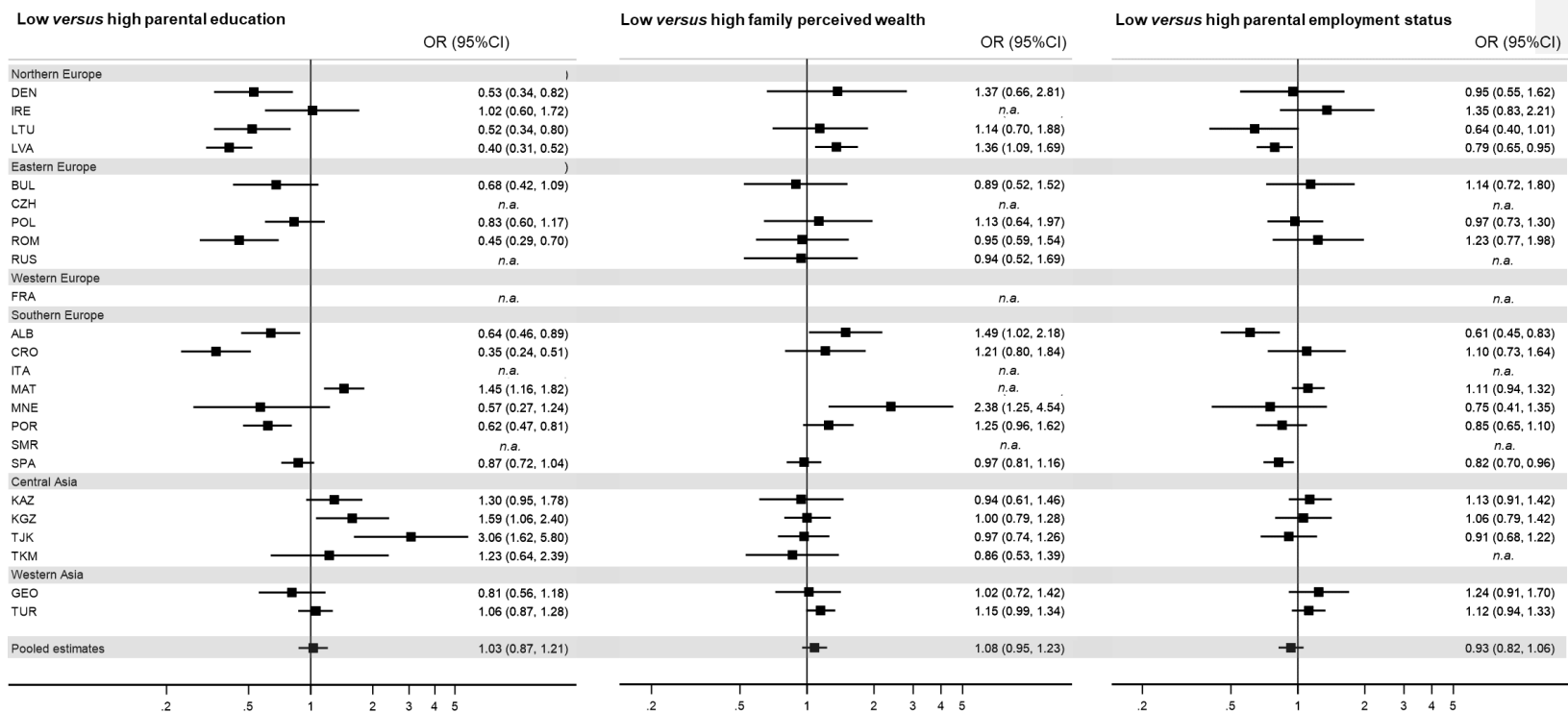
^{e, f} Statistically significant difference of proportions between parental employment status for each ‘less healthy’ behaviour - Pearson's chi-squared corrected using Rao-Scott method, $p < 0.001$ (e), $p < 0.0001$ (f).

Figure 2 - Country-specific and pooled adjusted odds ratios of having a “less healthy” physical activity behaviour (compared to not having) related to parental education, family perceived wealth (i.e. how the family met the end of the month with earnings at its disposal) and parental employment status, COSI/WHO Europe round 4 (2015-17)

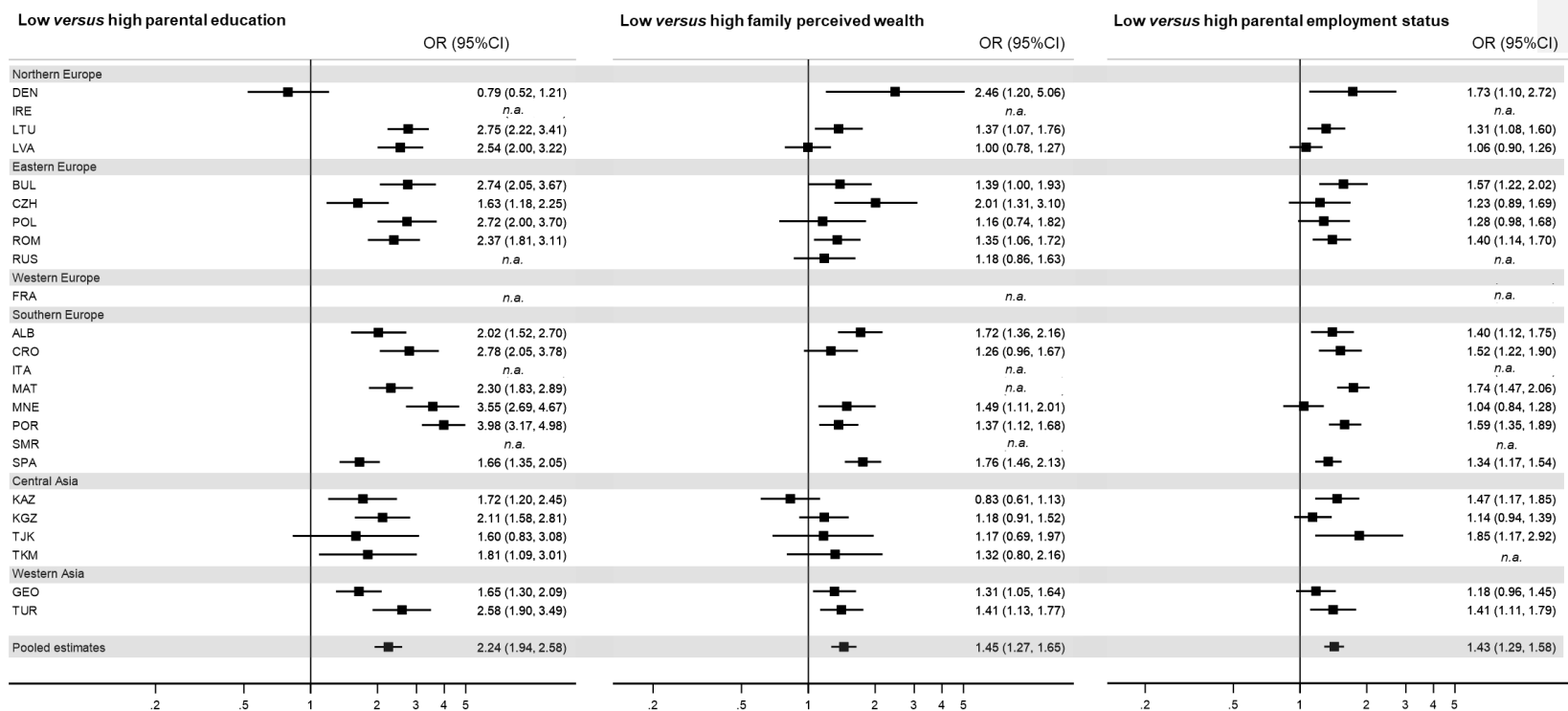
A) GOING TO AND FROM SCHOOL USING MOTORIZED VEHICLES



B) ACTIVELY/VIGOROUSLY PLAYING FOR LESS THAN 1 HOUR A DAY



c) PRACTISING SPORTS FOR LESS THAN 2 HOURS A WEEK



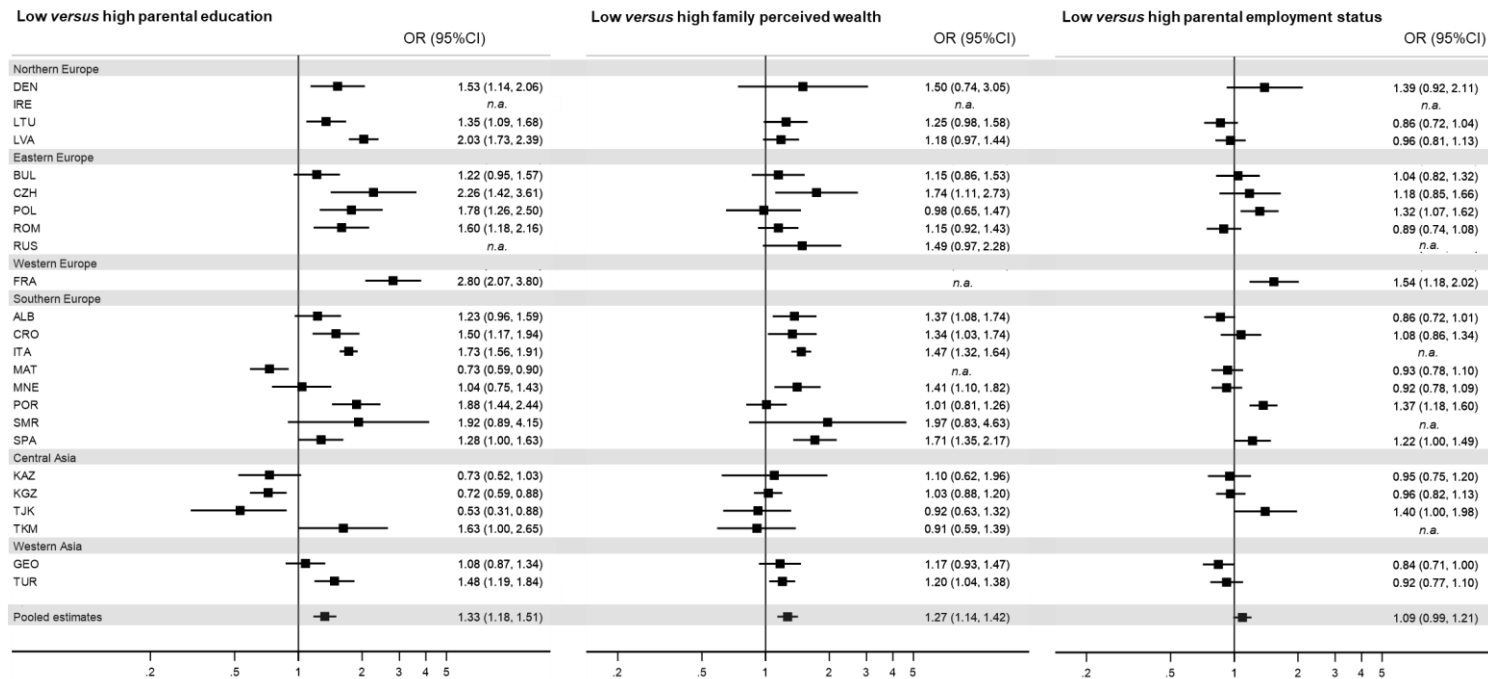
For an explanation of the country abbreviations, see Table 2.

^a Adjusted ORs and 95% CI were estimated through a multilevel logistic regression analysis. Besides family characteristics (parental education, family perceived wealth and parental employment status), all models included child's, sex, age, nutritional status according to WHO definition (i.e. with

normal weight – overweight – obesity) and region of residence among covariates. Pooled estimates were calculated including the following age groups/countries: i) 7-year-olds from Bulgaria, Czechia, Denmark, Georgia, Kyrgyzstan, Lithuania, Latvia, Montenegro, Portugal, Spain, Tajikistan and Turkey; ii) 8-year-olds from Albania, Croatia, Poland and Romania; iii) 9-year-olds from Kazakhstan. Pooled regression model includes country as covariate.

Figure 3 - Country-specific and pooled adjusted ORs of having a “less healthy” behaviour on screen time (compared to not having) related to parental education, family perceived wealth (i.e. how the family met the end of the month with earnings at its disposal) and parental employment status, COSI/WHO Europe round 4 (2015-17)

WATCHING TV OR USING ELECTRONIC DEVICES FOR AT LEAST 2 HOURS A DAY



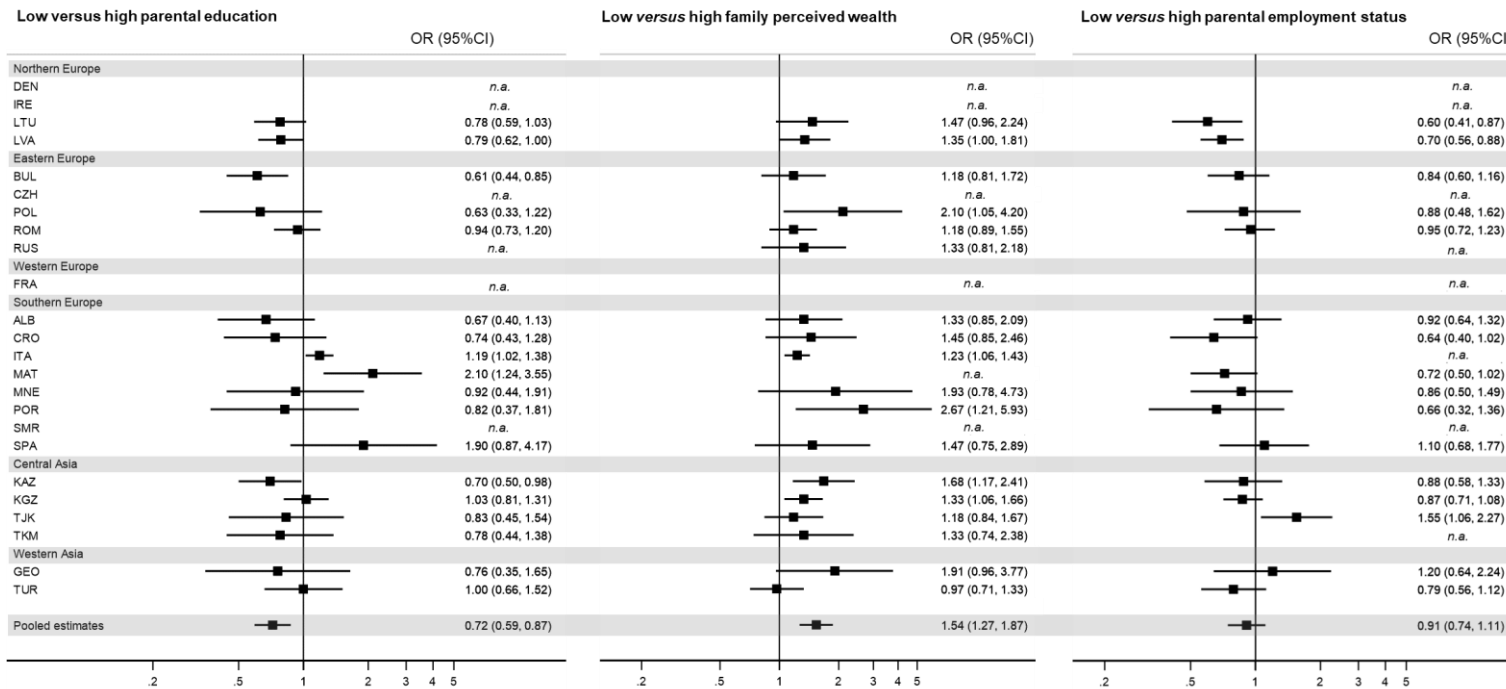
For an explanation of the country abbreviations, see Table 2.

^a Adjusted ORs and 95% CI were estimated through a multilevel logistic regression analysis. Besides family characteristics (parental education, family perceived wealth and parental employment status), all models included child’s, sex, age, nutritional status according to WHO definition (i.e. with normal weight – overweight – obesity) and region of residence among covariates. Pooled estimates were calculated including the following age groups/countries: i) 7-year-olds from Bulgaria, Czechia, Denmark, Georgia, Kyrgyzstan, Lithuania, Latvia, Montenegro, Portugal, Spain, Tajikistan

and Turkey; ii) 8-year-olds from Albania, Croatia, Poland and Romania; iii) 9-year-olds from Kazakhstan. Pooled regression model includes country as covariate.

Figure 4 - Country-specific and pooled adjusted ORs of having a “less healthy” behaviour on sleeping patterns (compared to not having) related to parental education, family perceived wealth (i.e. how the family met the end of the month with earnings at its disposal) and parental employment status, COSI/WHO Europe round 4 (2015-17)

SLEEPING FOR LESS THAN 9 HOURS PER NIGHT



For an explanation of the country abbreviations, see Table 2.

^a Adjusted ORs and 95% CI were estimated through a multilevel logistic regression analysis. Besides family characteristics (parental education, family perceived wealth and parental employment status), all models included child's, sex, age, nutritional status according to WHO definition (i.e. with normal weight – overweight – obesity) and region of residence among covariates. Pooled estimates were calculated including the following age

groups/countries: i) 7-year-olds from Bulgaria, Czechia, Denmark, Georgia, Kyrgyzstan, Lithuania, Latvia, Montenegro, Portugal, Spain, Tajikistan and Turkey; ii) 8-year-olds from Albania, Croatia, Poland and Romania; iii) 9-year-olds from Kazakhstan. Pooled regression model includes country as covariate.

References

1. NCD Risk Factor Collaboration (NCD-RisC). Worldwide trends in body-mass index, underweight, overweight, and obesity from 1975 to 2016: a pooled analysis of 2416 population-based measurement studies in 128·9 million children, adolescents, and adults. *Lancet*. 2017;390(10113):2627-2642. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(17)32129-3
2. World Health Organization. Obesity and overweight. <https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/obesity-and-overweight>. Published 2020.
3. Freedman DS, Khan LK, Serdula MK, Dietz WH, Srinivasan SR, Berenson GS. The Relation of Childhood BMI to Adult Adiposity: The Bogalusa Heart Study. *Pediatrics*. 2005;115(1):22-27. doi:10.1542/peds.2004-0220
4. Li C, Ford ES, Zhao G, Mokdad AH. Prevalence of Pre-Diabetes and Its Association With Clustering of Cardiometabolic Risk Factors and Hyperinsulinemia Among U.S. Adolescents: National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey 2005-2006. *Diabetes Care*. 2009;32(2):342-347. doi:10.2337/dc08-1128
5. Dietz WH, Robinson TN. Overweight Children and Adolescents. *N Engl J Med*. 2005;352(20):2100-2109. doi:10.1056/NEJMcp043052
6. World Health Organization. *Report of the Commission on Ending Childhood Obesity*. Geneva; 2016. https://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/handle/10665/204176/9789241510066_eng.pdf?sequence=1.
7. Engeland A, Bjørge T, Tverdal A, Sogaard AJ. Obesity in Adolescence and Adulthood and the Risk of Adult Mortality. *Epidemiology*. 2004;15(1):79-85. doi:10.1097/01.ede.0000100148.40711.59
8. Taheri S. The link between short sleep duration and obesity: we should recommend more sleep to prevent obesity. *Arch Dis Child*. 2006;91(11):881-884. doi:10.1136/adc.2005.093013
9. World Health Organization. *WHO Guidelines on Physical Activity and Sedentary Behaviour*. Geneva; 2020.
10. American Academy of Pediatrics. Children, Adolescents, and Television. *Pediatrics*. 2001;107(2):423-426. doi:10.1542/peds.107.2.423
11. Tremblay MS, Carson V, Chaput J-P, et al. Canadian 24-Hour Movement Guidelines for Children and Youth: An Integration of Physical Activity, Sedentary Behaviour, and Sleep. *Appl Physiol Nutr Metab*. 2016;41(6 (Suppl. 3)):S311-S327. doi:10.1139/apnm-2016-0151
12. Guthold R, Stevens GA, Riley LM, Bull FC. Global trends in insufficient physical activity among adolescents: a pooled analysis of 298 population-based surveys with 1·6 million participants. *Lancet Child Adolesc Heal*. 2020;4(1):23-35. doi:10.1016/S2352-4642(19)30323-2
13. Bucksch J, Sigmundova D, Hamrik Z, et al. International Trends in Adolescent Screen-Time Behaviors From 2002 to 2010. *J Adolesc Heal*. 2016;58(4):417-425. doi:10.1016/j.jadohealth.2015.11.014
14. Fernandes HM. Physical activity levels in Portuguese adolescents: A 10-year trend analysis (2006–2016). *J Sci Med Sport*. 2018. doi:10.1016/j.jsams.2017.05.015

15. Loprinzi PD, Davis RE. Recent Temporal Trends in Parent-Reported Physical Activity in Children in the United States, 2009 to 2014. *Mayo Clin Proc.* 2016;91(4):477-481. doi:10.1016/j.mayocp.2016.01.006
16. Sigmund E, Sigmundová D, Badura P, Kalman M, Hamrik Z, Pavelka J. Temporal Trends in Overweight and Obesity, Physical Activity and Screen Time among Czech Adolescents from 2002 to 2014: A National Health Behaviour in School-Aged Children Study. *Int J Environ Res Public Health.* 2015;12(9):11848-11868. doi:10.3390/ijerph120911848
17. Marmot M. *Review of Social Determinants and the Health Divide in the WHO European Region: Final Report.* Copenhagen; 2014. https://www.euro.who.int/__data/assets/pdf_file/0004/251878/Review-of-social-determinants-and-the-health-divide-in-the-WHO-European-Region-FINAL-REPORT.pdf.
18. Marmot M, Bell R. Social determinants and non-communicable diseases: time for integrated action. *BMJ.* January 2019:l251. doi:10.1136/bmj.l251
19. Krist L, Bürger C, Ströbele-Benschop N, et al. Association of individual and neighbourhood socioeconomic status with physical activity and screen time in seventh-grade boys and girls in Berlin, Germany: a cross-sectional study. *BMJ Open.* 2017;7(12):e017974. doi:10.1136/bmjopen-2017-017974
20. Inchley J, Currie D, Budisavljevic S, Torsheim T, Jåstad A, Cosma A et al. editors. *Spotlight on Adolescent Health and Well-Being. Findings from the 2017/2018 Health Behaviour in School-Aged Children (HBSC) Survey in Europe and Canada. International Report. Volume 1. Key Findings.* Copenhagen; 2020.
21. Stalsberg R, Pedersen A V. Effects of socioeconomic status on the physical activity in adolescents: a systematic review of the evidence. *Scand J Med Sci Sports.* 2010;20(3):368-383. doi:10.1111/j.1600-0838.2009.01047.x
22. Sherar LB, Griffin TP, Ekelund U, et al. Association between maternal education and objectively measured physical activity and sedentary time in adolescents. *J Epidemiol Community Health.* 2016;70(6):541-548. doi:10.1136/jech-2015-205763
23. Gorely T, Marshall SJ, Biddle SJH. Couch kids: Correlates of television viewing among youth. *Int J Behav Med.* 2004. doi:10.1207/s15327558ijbm1103_4
24. Inchley J et al. eds. *Growing up Unequal: Gender and Socioeconomic Differences in Young People's Health and Well-Being. Health Behaviour in School-Aged Children (HBSC) Study: International Report from the 2013/2014 Survey.* Copenhagen; 2016.
25. Mielke GI, Brown WJ, Nunes BP, Silva ICM, Hallal PC. Socioeconomic Correlates of Sedentary Behavior in Adolescents: Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *Sport Med.* 2017;47(1):61-75. doi:10.1007/s40279-016-0555-4
26. Coombs N, Shelton N, Rowlands A, Stamatakis E. Children's and adolescents' sedentary behaviour in relation to socioeconomic position. *J Epidemiol Community Health.* 2013. doi:10.1136/jech-2013-202609
27. Van Der Horst K, Paw MJCA, Twisk JWR, Van Mechelen W. A Brief Review on Correlates of Physical Activity and Sedentariness in Youth. *Med Sci Sport Exerc.* 2007;39(8):1241-1250. doi:10.1249/mss.0b013e318059bf35
28. Pate RR, Mitchell JA, Byun W, Dowda M. Sedentary behaviour in youth. *Br J Sports Med.* 2011. doi:10.1136/bjsports-2011-090192

29. Buzek T, Poulain T, Vogel M, et al. Relations between sleep duration with overweight and academic stress—just a matter of the socioeconomic status? *Sleep Heal.* 2019;5(2):208-215. doi:10.1016/j.sleh.2018.12.004
30. Doane LD, Breitenstein RS, Beekman C, Clifford S, Smith TJ, Lemery-Chalfant K. Early Life Socioeconomic Disparities in Children’s Sleep: The Mediating Role of the Current Home Environment. *J Youth Adolesc.* 2019. doi:10.1007/s10964-018-0917-3
31. Breitenstein RS, Doane LD, Lemery-Chalfant K. Early life socioeconomic status moderates associations between objective sleep and weight-related indicators in middle childhood. *Sleep Heal.* 2019. doi:10.1016/j.sleh.2019.04.002
32. O’Donoghue G, Kennedy A, Puggina A, et al. Socio-economic determinants of physical activity across the life course: A “DEterminants of Diet and Physical ACTivity” (DEDIPAC) umbrella literature review. Henchoz Y, ed. *PLoS One.* 2018;13(1):e0190737. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0190737
33. Torre G La, Masala D, De Vito E, Langiano E, Capelli G, Ricciardi W. Extra-curricular physical activity and socioeconomic status in Italian adolescents. *BMC Public Health.* 2006;6(1):22. doi:10.1186/1471-2458-6-22
34. Voorhees CC, Catellier DJ, Ashwood JS, et al. Neighborhood Socioeconomic Status and Non School Physical Activity and Body Mass Index in Adolescent Girls. *J Phys Act Heal.* 2009;6(6):731-740. doi:10.1123/jpah.6.6.731
35. Gorely T, Atkin AJ, Biddle SJH, Marshall SJ. Family circumstance, sedentary behaviour and physical activity in adolescents living in England: Project STIL. *Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act.* 2009;6(1):33. doi:10.1186/1479-5868-6-33
36. Kantomaa MT, Tammelin TH, Näyhä S, Taanila AM. Adolescents’ physical activity in relation to family income and parents’ education. *Prev Med (Baltim).* 2007;44(5):410-415. doi:10.1016/j.yjmed.2007.01.008
37. Hawkins SS, Cole TJ, Law C. Examining the relationship between maternal employment and health behaviours in 5-year-old British children. *J Epidemiol Community Heal.* 2009;63(12):999-1004. doi:10.1136/jech.2008.084590
38. Hesketh K, Crawford D, Salmon J. Children’s television viewing and objectively measured physical activity: Associations with family circumstance. *Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act.* 2006;3(36). doi:10.1186/1479-5868-3-36
39. World Health Organization Regional Office for Europe. Thinness, Overweight and Obesity in 6-9-Year-Old Children from 35 Countries. The WHO European Childhood Obesity Surveillance Initiative – COSI 2015-17. *Obes Rev.* 2020.
40. World Health Organization Regional Office for Europe. *WHO European Childhood Obesity Surveillance Initiative: Overweight and Obesity among 6–9-Year-Old Children. Report of the Fourth Round of Data Collection 2015-2017.* Copenhagen; 2020.
41. World Health Organization Regional Office for Europe. *Childhood Obesity Surveillance Initiative (COSI) Protocol.* Copenhagen; 2016.
42. (WHO) C for IO of MS (CIOMS) in collaboration with the WHO. *International Ethical Guidelines for Health-Related Research Involving Humans.;* 2016.
43. World Health Organization. *Childhood Obesity Surveillance Initiative (COSI) – Data Collection Procedures.* Copenhagen; 2016.

44. Whiting S, Buoncristiano M, Gelius P, et al. Physical activity, screen time and sleep duration of children aged 6-9 years in 25 countries: an analysis within the WHO European Childhood Obesity Surveillance Initiative – COSI 2015/2017. *Obes Facts*. 2020.
45. Breda et al. Methodology and implementation of the WHO European Childhood Obesity Surveillance Initiative (COSI). *Obes Rev Suppl*. in press.
46. Wijnhoven TMA, van Raaij JM, Yngve A, et al. WHO European Childhood Obesity Surveillance Initiative: health-risk behaviours on nutrition and physical activity in 6–9-year-old schoolchildren. *Public Health Nutr*. 2015;18(17):3108-3124. doi:10.1017/S1368980015001937
47. Buoncristiano et al. Socio-economic inequalities in overweight and obesity among 6-9-year-old children in 24 countries from WHO European Region. *Obes Rev Suppl*. in press.
48. United Nations. United Nations Standard Country Code SMMSP, No. 49, ST/ESA/STAT/SER.M/49. <https://unstats.un.org/unsd/methodology/m49/>. Accessed December 2, 2019.
49. World Health Organization. *GLOBAL ACTION PLAN ON PHYSICAL ACTIVITY 2018-2030: More Active People for a Healthier World*. Geneva; 2018.
50. Molina-García J, Queralto A. Neighborhood Built Environment and Socioeconomic Status in Relation to Active Commuting to School in Children. *J Phys Act Heal*. 2017;14(10):761-765. doi:10.1123/jpah.2017-0033
51. Rothman L, Macpherson AK, Ross T, Buliung RN. The decline in active school transportation (AST): A systematic review of the factors related to AST and changes in school transport over time in North America. *Prev Med (Baltim)*. 2018;111(November):314-322. doi:10.1016/j.ypmed.2017.11.018
52. Su JG, Jerrett M, McConnell R, et al. Factors Influencing Whether Children Walk to School. *Heal Place*. 2013;July(22):153-161. doi:10.1016/j.physbeh.2017.03.040
53. Heinen M, Murrin C, Daly L, et al. *The Childhood Obesity Surveillance Initiative (COSI) in the Republic of Ireland: Descriptives of Childhood Obesity Risk Factors*. Dublin; 2016.
54. Chillón P, Ortega FB, Ruiz JR, et al. Active commuting to school in children and adolescents: An opportunity to increase physical activity and fitness. *Scand J Public Health*. 2010;38(8):873-879. doi:10.1177/1403494810384427
55. Larsen K, Gilliland J, Hess PM. Route-Based Analysis to Capture the Environmental Influences on a Child's Mode of Travel between Home and School. *Ann Assoc Am Geogr*. 2012. doi:10.1080/00045608.2011.627059
56. Cepeda M, Schoufour J, Freak-Poli R, et al. Levels of ambient air pollution according to mode of transport: a systematic review. *Lancet Public Heal*. 2017;2(1):e23-e34. doi:10.1016/S2468-2667(16)30021-4
57. Mueller N, Rojas-Rueda D, Cole-Hunter T, et al. Health impact assessment of active transportation: A systematic review. *Prev Med (Baltim)*. 2015;76:103-114. doi:10.1016/j.ypmed.2015.04.010
58. Copat C, Cristaldi A, Fiore M, et al. The role of air pollution (PM and NO2) in COVID-19 spread and lethality: A systematic review. *Environ Res*. 2020;191:110129. doi:10.1016/j.envres.2020.110129
59. Ginsburg KR, Shifrin DL, Broughton DD, et al. The importance of play in promoting healthy

- child development and maintaining strong parent-child bonds. *Pediatrics*. 2007;119(1):182-191. doi:10.1542/peds.2006-2697
60. UK National Health Service. *Physical Activity Guidelines for Children (under 5 Years)*.; 2013.
 61. Wijtzes AI, Jansen W, Bouthoorn SH, et al. Social inequalities in young children's sports participation and outdoor play. *Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act*. 2014;11(1):155. doi:10.1186/s12966-014-0155-3
 62. Aarts M-J, de Vries SI, van Oers HAM, Schuit AJ. Outdoor play among children in relation to neighborhood characteristics: a cross-sectional neighborhood observation study. *Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act*. 2012;9(1):98. doi:10.1186/1479-5868-9-98
 63. Nielsen G, Grønfeldt V, Toftegaard-Støckel J, Andersen LB. Predisposed to participate? The influence of family socio-economic background on children's sports participation and daily amount of physical activity. *Sport Soc*. 2012;15(1):1-27. doi:10.1080/03031853.2011.625271
 64. Moraesus L, Lissner L, Yngve A, Poortvliet E, Al-Ansari U, Sjöberg A. Multi-level influences on childhood obesity in Sweden: Societal factors, parental determinants and child's lifestyle. *Int J Obes*. 2012;36(7):969-976. doi:10.1038/ijo.2012.79
 65. Post EG, Green NE, Schaefer DA, et al. Socioeconomic status of parents with children participating on youth club sport teams. *Phys Ther Sport*. 2018;32:126-132. doi:10.1016/j.ptsp.2018.05.014
 66. Vella SA, Cliff DP, Okely AD. Socio-ecological predictors of participation and dropout in organised sports during childhood. *Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act*. 2014;11(1):1-10. doi:10.1186/1479-5868-11-62
 67. Finger JD, Mensink GBM, Banzer W, Lampert T, Tylleskär T. Physical activity, aerobic fitness and parental socio-economic position among adolescents: The German Health Interview and Examination Survey for Children and Adolescents 2003-2006 (KiGGS). *Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act*. 2014;11(1):1-10. doi:10.1186/1479-5868-11-43
 68. Arundell L, Fletcher E, Salmon J, Veitch J, Hinkley T. A systematic review of the prevalence of sedentary behavior during the after-school period among children aged 5-18 years. *Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act*. 2016;13(1):93. doi:10.1186/s12966-016-0419-1
 69. Klein M, Fröhlich M, Pieter A, Emrich E. Socio-economic status and motor performance of children and adolescents. *Eur J Sport Sci*. 2016;16(2):229-236. doi:10.1080/17461391.2014.1001876
 70. Ryan Dunn C, Dorsch TE, King MQ, Rothlisberger KJ. The Impact of Family Financial Investment on Perceived Parent Pressure and Child Enjoyment and Commitment in Organized Youth Sport. *Fam Relat*. 2016;65(2):287-299. doi:10.1111/fare.12193
 71. Brockman R, Jago R, Fox KR, Thompson JL, Cartwright K, Page AS. "get off the sofa and go and play": Family and socioeconomic influences on the physical activity of 10 -11 year old children. *BMC Public Health*. 2009;9:3-9. doi:10.1186/1471-2458-9-253
 72. Richter M, Vereecken CA, Boyce W, Maes L, Gabhaim SN, Currie CE. Parental occupation, family affluence and adolescent health behaviour in 28 countries. *Int J Public Health*. 2009;54(4):203-212. doi:10.1007/s00038-009-8018-4
 73. Platat C, Perrin A-E, Oujaa M, et al. Diet and physical activity profiles in French preadolescents. *Br J Nutr*. 2006;96(3):501-507. doi:10.1079/BJN20061770

74. Leech RM, McNaughton SA, Timperio A. Clustering of children's obesity-related behaviours: Associations with sociodemographic indicators. *Eur J Clin Nutr.* 2014;68(5):623-628. doi:10.1038/ejcn.2013.295
75. Hoffmann B, Kobel S, Wartha O, Kettner S, Dreyhaupt J, Steinacker JM. High sedentary time in children is not only due to screen media use: a cross-sectional study. *BMC Pediatr.* 2019;19(1):154. doi:10.1186/s12887-019-1521-8
76. Chaput JP, Dutil C, Sampasa-Kanyinga H. Sleeping hours: What is the ideal number and how does age impact this? *Nat Sci Sleep.* 2018. doi:10.2147/NSS.S163071
77. Ordway MR, Sadler LS, Jeon S, et al. Sleep health in young children living with socioeconomic adversity. *Res Nurs Heal.* 2020;(March):1-12. doi:10.1002/nur.22023
78. Biggs SN, Lushington K, James Martin A, van den Heuvel C, Declan Kennedy J. Gender, socioeconomic, and ethnic differences in sleep patterns in school-aged children. *Sleep Med.* 2013;14(12):1304-1309. doi:10.1016/j.sleep.2013.06.014
79. Buckhalt JA. Insufficient Sleep and the Socioeconomic Status Achievement Gap. *Child Dev Perspect.* 2011;5(1):59-65. doi:10.1111/j.1750-8606.2010.00151.x
80. Hale L, Guan S. Screen time and sleep among school-aged children and adolescents: A systematic literature review. *Sleep Med Rev.* 2015;21:50-58. doi:10.1016/j.smrv.2014.07.007
81. O'Dea JA, Dibley MJ, Rankin NM. Low sleep and low socioeconomic status predict high body mass index: A 4-year longitudinal study of Australian schoolchildren. *Pediatr Obes.* 2012;7(4):295-303. doi:10.1111/j.2047-6310.2012.00054.x
82. Evans GW, Gonnella C, Marcynyszyn LA, Gentile L, Salpekar N. The role of chaos in poverty and children's socioemotional adjustment. *Psychol Sci.* 2005. doi:10.1111/j.0956-7976.2005.01575.x
83. Fisman et al. Socio-economic differences in eating habits among 6-9 year old children from 23 countries - WHO European Childhood Obesity Surveillance Initiative (COSI 2015/2017). *Obes Rev Suppl.* in press.

SUPPLEMENTARY TABLES

Supplementary Table 1 - Percentages of completed family record forms in COSI/WHO Europe round 4 and number of children included in the analysis by country^a.

Country ^a	Children invited to participate ^b		Children aged 6-9 years with family form filled in	Children included in the analysis ^d
	Total number	Proportion whose family record form was filled in ^c , %		
ALB	7,113	36.2	2,527	2,184
BUL	4,090	83.1	3,400	3,217
CRO	7,220	76.0	2,651	2,520
CZH	n.a.	n.a.	1,406	1,342
DEN	3,202	29.9	957	878
FRA	7,094	75.6	5,318	4,462
GEO	4,143	78.4	3,246	2,950
IRE	2,704	32.4	874	802
ITA	50,902	95.2	43,696	40,576
KAZ	6,026	82.3	4,311	3,598
KGZ	8,773	86.6	7,567	5,790
LTU	5,527	69.8	3,812	3,436
LVA	8,143	71.5	5,707	5,071
MAT	4,329	73.4	3,179	2,813
MNE	4,094	66.8	2,736	2,613
POL	3,828	76.9	2,945	2,656
POR	7,475	85.6	6,391	5,458
ROM	9,094	73.6	6,610	5,736
RUS	3,900	52.6	2,052	1,922

SMR	329	93.6	306	289
SPA	14,908	70.1	10,453	9,755
TJK	3,502	93.5	3,270	2,924
TKM	4,085	95.3	3,891	3,518
TUR	14,164	81.7	10,502	10,190
Total^d	184,645	79.1	137,807	124,700

Abbreviations: n.a. – not available

^a Figures refer to primary school children from: Albania (ALB); Bulgaria (BUL); Croatia (CRO); Czechia (CZH); Denmark (DEN); France (FRA); Georgia (GEO); Ireland (IRE); Italy (ITA); Kazakhstan (KAZ); Kyrgyzstan (KGZ); Lithuania (LTU); Latvia (LVA); Malta (MAT); Montenegro (MNE); Poland (POL); Portugal (POR); Romania (ROM); Russia – only Moscow city (RUS); San Marino (SMR); Spain (SPA); Tajikistan (TJK); Turkmenistan (TKM) and Turkey (TUR). Data on family perceived wealth were not collected in France, Ireland and Malta; while Italy, San Marino and Turkmenistan did not collect information on parental employment status. Data on parental education and employment status collected in Moscow city were not included due to the high level of missing data.

^b Total figures were calculated including only countries with available information on the number of children invited to participate in COSI.

^c For Croatia, only data on 8-year-olds were available for comparison at the European level. Families' participation in the survey was calculated in the whole sample (not only on 8-year-olds).

^d All children whose age is between 6 and 9 years old, whose parents filled in the family form and with complete information on all of the following variables: physical activity, sedentary behaviour, sleep, parental educational attainment, employment status and family perceived wealth, unless noted otherwise.

Supplementary table 2 – Country-specific and pooled prevalence (%) of children’s “less healthy” behaviours related to physical activity, screen time and sleep patterns by parental education *. COSI/WHO Europe round 4 (2015-17)

	Going to and from school by motorised vehicles			Actively/vigorously playing for less than 1 hour a day			Practising sports for less than 2 hours a week			Watching TV or using electronic devices for 2 hours a day or more			Sleeping for less than 9 hours per night		
	Parental education														
	<i>High</i>	<i>Medium</i>	<i>Low</i>	<i>High</i>	<i>Medium</i>	<i>Low</i>	<i>High</i>	<i>Medium</i>	<i>Low</i>	<i>High</i>	<i>Medium</i>	<i>Low</i>	<i>High</i>	<i>Medium</i>	<i>Low</i>
%															
Northern Europe															
DEN _{a;d;g;n}	33.8	47.6	47.6	33.9	25.6	21.8	45.1	34.2	42.7	27.5	38.0	43.6	0	0	0
IRE	74.0	74.0	63.8	13.9	16.6	15.6	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	0	0	0
LTU _{a;f;i;n}	48.9	42.3	38.1	10.2	7.2	5.0	31.3	43.7	60.0	34.8	39.7	43.5	11.0	10.6	9.3
LVA _{c;f;i;n;p}	52.1	45.4	41.5	21.3	15.9	8.7	15.8	24.6	33.0	35.9	46.9	53.4	15.1	12.8	10.8
Eastern Europe															
BUL _{d;i;n;q}	36.4	38.1	32.0	9.7	6.7	6.4	36.0	44.5	77.6	39.1	42.5	53.9	20.0	17.2	12.7
CZH _{h;n}	42.9	40.1	36.7	1.6	0.3	2.2	38.4	42.5	54.0	24.4	21.4	42.2	0.7	0.9	1.5
POL _{i;n;p}	46.8	47.6	41.7	18.6	17.7	15.8	29.0	41.4	59.3	29.8	44.3	50.3	9.2	5.1	4.7
ROM _{c;f;i;n;p}	41.4	39.7	28.5	8.1	4.3	3.0	41.4	59.3	80.7	40.4	49.2	54.7	16.5	15.5	13.1
RUS	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Western Europe															
FRA _{a;n}	55.7	56.4	48.0	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	18.2	29.9	42.9	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Southern Europe															
ALB _{b;d;i;p}	48.9	32.3	27.7	15.4	14.2	9.5	44.6	69.7	72.4	40.4	46.0	43.8	12.8	9.1	7.5

CRO ^{f;in}	32.8	30.4	33.2	16.0	8.5	5.8	15.6	28.0	43.9	39.3	45.9	55.2	6.0	5.5	4.7
ITA ^{n;r}	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	54.0	61.3	71.4	10.7	11.5	14.2
MAT ^{c;f;ir}	81.3	78.4	68.4	31.2	33.0	40.9	27.0	36.9	50.3	44.5	44.2	36.5	3.3	6.2	6.5
MNE ⁱⁿ	41.2	39.6	36.1	3.6	3.6	2.8	28.4	43.3	62.8	49.1	50.8	50.3	3.2	3.3	3.4
POR ^{c;d;in}	84.5	82.9	75.4	17.6	12.5	12.4	24.0	35.2	60.0	15.1	16.7	25.5	1.3	1.6	1.2
SMR ⁿ	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	55.3	57.8	71.2	5.3	5.5	6.7
SPA ^{c;d;in}	52.9	47.8	39.0	30.5	32.5	27.0	27.6	35.5	45.9	15.0	18.9	23.3	1.1	1.7	2.3
Central Asia															
KAZ ^{c;l;p}	28.5	23.6	12.9	26.5	26.6	30.8	55.9	62.4	67.6	28.9	27.0	20.9	22.4	19.0	14.2
KGZ ^{c;d;im}	34.4	22.1	14.2	8.3	8.1	12.5	68.7	84.5	92.1	54.6	49.2	45.9	18.8	17.8	16.3
TJK ^{b;d}	10.3	5.3	2.3	24.2	32.6	38.9	83.1	89.3	90.4	34.4	33.9	31.0	16.3	16.3	15.3
TKM ^{c;d}	37.3	26.8	11.5	14.6	13.6	19.2	69.6	77.6	78.6	49.4	55.0	60.6	10.4	9.1	8.4
Western Asia															
GEO ^{b;d;i}	46.9	42.9	36.2	11.9	12.4	8.5	38.4	49.6	58.7	40.1	38.4	41.8	2.5	2.2	1.9
TUR ^{c;in}	59.3	41.2	26.8	26.5	26.5	28.8	62.6	76.1	88.4	26.9	36.2	36.6	6.3	7.3	5.7
Pooled estimates	45.6	40.2	30.3	20.7	20.8	21.0	38.2	50.6	70.9	28.0	33.1	37.5	9.8	7.6	7.6

For an explanation of the country abbreviations, see Table 1. Abbreviation ‘n.a.’ means ‘not available’.

* Information on parental education was not available for Moscow. Data on transportation to and from school, playing actively/vigorously and practising sports were not collected in Italy and San Marino. Data on playing actively/vigorously, practising sports and sleep patterns were not collected in France. Data on practising sports and watching TV or using electronic devices were not collected in Ireland. Pooled estimates were calculated including the following age groups/countries: i) 7-year-olds from Bulgaria, Czechia, Denmark, Georgia, Kyrgyzstan, Lithuania, Latvia, Montenegro, Portugal, Spain, Tajikistan and Turkey; ii) 8-year-olds from Albania, Croatia, Poland and Romania; iii) 9-year-olds from Kazakhstan.

^{a, b, c} Statistically significant difference of proportions between parental educational attainments for going to and from school by motorised vehicles - Pearson's chi-squared corrected using Rao-Scott method, $p < 0.05$ (a), $p < 0.001$ (b), $p < 0.0001$ (c).

^{d, e, f} Statistically significant difference of proportions between parental educational attainments for actively/vigorously playing for less than 1 hour a day - Pearson's chi-squared corrected using Rao-Scott method, $p < 0.05$ (d), $p < 0.001$ (e), $p < 0.0001$ (f).

^{g, h, i} Statistically significant difference of proportions between parental educational attainments for practising sports for less than 2 hours a week - Pearson's chi-squared corrected using Rao-Scott method, $p < 0.05$ (g), $p < 0.001$ (h), $p < 0.0001$ (i).

^{l, m, n} Statistically significant difference of proportions between parental educational attainments for watching TV or using electronic devices for 2 hours a day and more - Pearson's chi-squared corrected using Rao-Scott method, $p < 0.05$ (l), $p < 0.001$ (m), $p < 0.0001$ (n).

^{p, q, r} Statistically significant difference of proportions between parental educational attainments for sleeping for less than 9 hours per night - Pearson's chi-squared corrected using Rao-Scott method, $p < 0.05$ (p), $p < 0.001$ (q), $p < 0.0001$ (r).

Supplementary table 3 – Country-specific and pooled prevalence (%) of children’s “less healthy” behaviours related to physical activity, screen time and sleep patterns by family perceived wealth *. COSI/WHO Europe round 4 (2015-17)

	Going to and from school by motorised vehicles			Actively/vigorously playing for less than 1 hour a day			Practising sports for less than 2 hours a week			Watching TV or using electronic devices for 2 hours a day and more			Sleeping for less than 9 hours per night		
	Family perceived wealth: how a family met the end of the month with its own earnings														
	High	Medium	Low	High	Medium	Low	High	Medium	Low	High	Medium	Low	High	Medium	Low
%															
Northern Europe															
DEN ^{h;l}	42.6	41.6	48.2	29.2	23.4	29.3	37.2	43.3	60.9	32.4	39.5	51.8	0	0	0
IRE	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
LTU ^{b;i;l;p}	46.0	44.3	35.3	7.5	7.5	7.5	39.7	46.2	55.7	36.2	40.6	43.2	8.4	11.4	10.7
LVA ^{a;n}	50.7	44.9	46.6	16.3	14.7	17.0	21.5	24.4	25.7	41.4	44.0	51.6	12.4	12.5	14.3
Eastern Europe															
BUL ^{b;i;m}	39.9	36.0	28.0	8.4	6.6	7.3	53.9	55.0	76.5	46.0	45.3	55.0	14.8	15.8	14.6
CZH ^{d;i;m;p}	41.3	37.6	33.5	0.3	1.7	5.3	42.6	49.7	64.3	32.2	34.3	50.4	1.2	0.6	3.9
POL ^{a;p}	48.0	47.2	34.5	15.3	18.7	17.5	42.4	42.0	46.0	40.7	39.0	44.6	6.0	6.0	10.3
ROM ^{c;i;l}	37.4	34.6	26.4	5.1	4.3	3.9	63.4	63.5	80.5	48.2	50.0	54.4	13.5	15.9	14.0
RUS	19.4	16.2	18.7	9.3	8.2	8.6	30.8	36.7	34.4	22.7	27.0	30.7	9.4	11.1	12.7
Western Europe															
FRA	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Southern Europe															
ALB ^{b;i;l}	36.2	35.0	23.7	10.9	10.9	11.4	61.2	62.8	78.2	38.9	45.6	46.8	8.1	9.3	8.8
CRO ^{a;d;i;l}	35.3	32.3	28.7	9.9	6.7	9.0	30.5	34.8	44.8	46.1	50.0	58.2	4.9	4.6	6.7
ITA ^{n;r}	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	57.4	64.3	72.5	10.6	12.0
MAT	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.

MNE _{c;e;i;l}	40.5	40.0	30.2	2.7	2.3	5.8	48.3	49.9	65.2	45.7	50.9	53.6	2.9	3.0	5.2
POR _{c;i;n;p}	83.5	81.5	68.7	12.5	13.3	13.6	41.9	46.1	61.8	19.7	20.9	26.7	0.8	1.1	2.1
SMR ⁿ	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	52.9	63.3	74.2	14.3	4.7	6.1
SPA _{c;d;i;n}	51.0	41.9	35.9	31.3	28.9	27.1	30.3	41.3	54.1	15.8	21.1	29.4	1.6	1.6	2.8
Central Asia															
KAZ ^a	20.5	23.8	15.5	28.7	27.8	29.5	61.2	63.3	66.0	23.2	28.9	22.2	16.7	18.6	17.4
KGZ _{c;i}	26.0	24.1	12.2	10.2	10.7	11.3	83.0	80.5	91.4	48.7	51.2	46.3	15.8	17.5	18.1
TJK ^l	3.6	3.4	3.1	35.0	33.0	38.0	89.5	89.9	89.2	33.9	39.4	27.6	13.5	15.0	17.5
TKM ^d	15.7	13.2	11.9	20.6	14.4	17.5	78.2	76.0	83.8	58.7	60.0	59.4	8.9	8.0	9.2
Western Asia															
GEO ⁱ	41.0	39.9	38.9	10.0	9.6	9.9	51.5	47.3	60.6	39.6	40.6	43.6	1.8	2.0	2.7
TUR _{c;f;i;m}	42.9	34.3	23.0	27.0	25.6	31.2	78.0	81.1	90.4	32.8	34.2	38.3	6.2	6.4	5.6
Pooled estimates	41.3	39.0	24.0	21.9	18.9	22.9	51.6	54.7	74.5	29.6	35.7	38.4	6.8	7.7	10.7

For an explanation of the country abbreviations, see Table 1. Abbreviation ‘n.a.’ means ‘not available’.

* Information on family perceived wealth was not available for France, Ireland and Malta. Data on transportation to and from school, playing actively/vigorously and practising sports were not collected in Italy and San Marino. Pooled estimates were calculated including the following age groups/countries: i) 7-year-olds from Bulgaria, Czechia, Denmark, Georgia, Kyrgyzstan, Lithuania, Latvia, Montenegro, Portugal, Spain, Tajikistan and Turkey; ii) 8-year-olds from Albania, Croatia, Poland and Romania; iii) 9-year-olds from Kazakhstan.

^{a, b, c} Statistically significant difference of proportions between parental educational attainments for going to and from school by motorised vehicles - Pearson's chi-squared corrected using Rao-Scott method, $p < 0.05$ (a), $p < 0.001$ (b), $p < 0.0001$ (c).

^{d, e, f} Statistically significant difference of proportions between parental educational attainments for actively/vigorously playing for less than 1 hour a day - Pearson's chi-squared corrected using Rao-Scott method, $p < 0.05$ (d), $p < 0.001$ (e), $p < 0.0001$ (f).

^{g, h, i} Statistically significant difference of proportions between parental educational attainments for practising sports for less than 2 hours a week - Pearson's chi-squared corrected using Rao-Scott method, $p < 0.05$ (g), $p < 0.001$ (h), $p < 0.0001$ (i).

^{l, m, n} Statistically significant difference of proportions between parental educational attainments for watching TV or using electronic devices for 2 hours a day and more - Pearson's chi-squared corrected using Rao-Scott method, $p < 0.05$ (l), $p < 0.001$ (m), $p < 0.0001$ (n).

^{p, q, r} Statistically significant difference of proportions between parental educational attainments for sleeping for less than 9 hours per night - Pearson's chi-squared corrected using Rao-Scott method, $p < 0.05$ (p), $p < 0.001$ (q), $p < 0.0001$ (r).

Supplementary table 4 – Country-specific and pooled prevalence (%) of children’s “less healthy” behaviours related to physical activity, screen time and sleep patterns by parental employment status ^a. COSI/WHO Europe round 4 (2015-17)

	Going to and from school by motorised vehicles		Actively/vigorously playing for less than 1 hour a day		Practising sports for less than 2 hours a week		Watching TV or using electronic devices for 2 hours a day and more		Sleeping for less than 9 hours per night	
	Parental employment status									
	<i>High</i>	<i>Low</i>	<i>High</i>	<i>Low</i>	<i>High</i>	<i>Low</i>	<i>High</i>	<i>Low</i>	<i>High</i>	<i>Low</i>
%										
Northern Europe										
DEN ^{g;l}	41.7	47.7	27.8	23.6	38.2	54.7	34.8	45.2	0	0
IRE ^{d;i;p}	73.5	66.6	14.0	17.6	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	0	0
LTU ^{e;g;q}	43.8	42.4	8.2	5.3	42.5	55.0	39.6	38.8	11.3	7.2
LVA	46.7	45.8	16.4	11.8	23.2	27.1	44.6	46.1	13.8	9.6
Eastern Europe										
BUL ^{e;i;m;p}	37.6	25.8	6.9	6.8	53.2	80.3	45.6	54.4	16.7	12.1
CZH ^g	39.9	34.1	1.3	3.0	46.1	56.4	33.0	38.8	1.1	1.6
POL ^{i;n}	47.0	42.8	17.9	16.4	38.7	54.2	36.8	49.9	7.0	5.6
ROM ^{b;d;i}	37.0	28.0	5.2	3.5	58.0	83.9	48.6	52.8	15.5	13.1
RUS	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Western Europe										
FRA ^{e;n}	57.2	42.6	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	23.8	39.4	n.a.	n.a.
Southern Europe										
ALB ^{a:e;i;p}	35.9	27.9	13.1	8.4	59.7	75.6	44.6	41.7	9.6	7.1
CRO ^{i;l}	32.7	32.5	8.6	7.0	30.1	48.2	48.2	55.2	5.6	4.1
ITA	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
MAT ^{e;f;i;n;r}	76.9	67.2	35.6	40.4	36.2	53.4	41.2	37.7	6.3	5.1

MNE ^{b,i}	40.8	32.1	3.2	3.2	48.3	60.2	50.8	49.6	3.2	4.1
POR ^{c,i;n}	81.8	69.0	13.7	11.4	44.6	63.4	20.2	27.9	1.3	1.2
SMR	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
SPA ^{c,e;i;n}	51.5	36.7	31.8	26.5	31.5	45.8	16.2	25.2	1.7	2.1
Central Asia										
KAZ ^a	22.6	16.7	27.1	30.4	59.7	68.1	26.1	22.3	18.7	16.5
KGZ ^{c,i}	25.1	16.8	9.4	11.2	80.6	88.8	50.3	47.4	18.5	16.6
TJK ^{a,i;p}	5.4	2.5	37.1	36.1	83.3	91.9	30.5	32.2	10.7	17.3
TKM	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Western Asia										
GEO ^{c,i}	44.1	34.4	9.3	10.8	48.2	58.5	42.3	39.3	2.0	2.2
TUR ^{c,i;l}	53.3	28.0	26.0	28.5	68.3	87.0	32.3	36.1	6.7	5.8
Pooled estimates	43.8	27.4	19.5	22.7	46.3	73.1	32.1	36.6	7.9	8.5

For an explanation of the country abbreviations, see Table 1. Abbreviation ‘n.a.’ means ‘not available’.

^a Information on parental employment status was not available for Italy, Moscow, San Marino and Turkmenistan. Data on playing actively/vigorously, practising sports and sleep patterns were not collected in France. Data on practising sports and watching TV or using electronic devices were not collected in Ireland. Pooled estimates were calculated including the following age groups/countries: i) 7-year-olds from Bulgaria, Czechia, Denmark, Georgia, Kyrgyzstan, Lithuania, Latvia, Montenegro, Portugal, Spain, Tajikistan and Turkey; ii) 8-year-olds from Albania, Croatia, Poland and Romania; iii) 9-year-olds from Kazakhstan.

^{a, b, c} Statistically significant difference of proportions between parental educational attainments for going to and from school by motorised vehicles - Pearson's chi-squared corrected using Rao-Scott method, $p < 0.05$ (a), $p < 0.001$ (b), $p < 0.0001$ (c).

^{d, e, f} Statistically significant difference of proportions between parental educational attainments for actively/vigorously playing for less than 1 hour a day - Pearson's chi-squared corrected using Rao-Scott method, $p < 0.05$ (d), $p < 0.001$ (e), $p < 0.0001$ (f).

^{g, h, i} Statistically significant difference of proportions between parental educational attainments for practising sports for less than 2 hours a week - Pearson's chi-squared corrected using Rao-Scott method, $p < 0.05$ (g), $p < 0.001$ (h), $p < 0.0001$ (i).

^{l, m, n} Statistically significant difference of proportions between parental educational attainments for watching TV or using electronic devices for 2 hours a day and more - Pearson's chi-squared corrected using Rao-Scott method, $p < 0.05$ (l), $p < 0.001$ (m), $p < 0.0001$ (n).

^{p, q, r} Statistically significant difference of proportions between parental educational attainments for sleeping for less than 9 hours per night - Pearson's chi-squared corrected using Rao-Scott method, $p < 0.05$ (p), $p < 0.001$ (q), $p < 0.0001$ (r).

Supplementary table 5 – Country-specific and pooled adjusted ORs of having a “less healthy” behaviours on physical activity – i.e going to and from school by motorised vehicles; actively/vigorously playing for less than 1 hour a day and practising sports for less than 2 hours a week (compared to not having) related to medium versus high parental education and medium versus high family perceived wealth.^a COSI/WHO Europe round 4 (2015-17)

	Going to and from school by motorised vehicles		Actively/vigorously playing for less than 1 hour a day		Practising sports for less than 2 hours a week	
	Parental education	Family perceived wealth	Parental education	Family perceived wealth	Parental education	Family perceived wealth
	<i>Medium vs High</i>	<i>Medium vs High</i>	<i>Medium vs High</i>	<i>Medium vs High</i>	<i>Medium vs High</i>	<i>Medium vs High</i>
Northern Europe						
DEN	1.63 [1.12-2.37]	0.73 [0.53-1.01]	0.67 [0.48-0.96]	0.85 [0.56-1.27]	0.66 [0.43-1.01]	1.33 [0.97-1.83]
IRE	0.80 [0.45-1.43]	n.a.	1.33 [0.82-2.15]	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
LTU	0.77 [0.61-0.98]	0.94 [0.76-1.15]	0.72 [0.47-1.12]	1.04 [0.69-1.57]	1.68 [1.37-2.06]	1.20 [1.01-1.42]
LVA	0.86 [0.73-1.02]	0.81 [0.69-0.95]	0.76 [0.61-0.95]	1.03 [0.82-1.29]	1.68 [1.38-2.05]	1.05 [0.86-1.28]
Eastern Europe						
BUL	1.12 [0.86-1.47]	0.84 [0.66-1.06]	0.65 [0.42-1.01]	0.78 [0.49-1.22]	1.10 [0.80-1.50]	1.16 [0.87-1.56]
CZH	0.84 [0.52-1.38]	0.81 [0.61-1.07]	n.a.	n.a.	1.11 [0.76-1.63]	1.26 [0.97-1.62]
POL	0.85 [0.67-1.08]	0.95 [0.69-1.32]	0.96 [0.65-1.41]	1.43 [0.94-2.16]	1.44 [1.04-2.00]	0.96 [0.74-1.24]
ROM	0.98 [0.72-1.33]	1.02 [0.87-1.21]	0.59 [0.37-0.94]	0.80 [0.54-1.19]	1.36 [1.09-1.70]	1.09 [0.91-1.30]
RUS	n.a.	0.83 [0.64-1.08]	n.a.	0.83 [0.57-1.20]	n.a.	1.28 [1.03-1.60]
Western Europe						
FRA	0.79 [0.58-1.07]	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Southern Europe						
ALB	0.87 [0.54-1.39]	1.01 [0.76-1.35]	0.96 [0.54-1.68]	1.12 [0.83-1.52]	2.51 [1.72-3.66]	1.03 [0.83-1.28]
CRO	0.81 [0.59-1.11]	0.85 [0.68-1.07]	0.51 [0.34-0.78]	0.78 [0.53-1.14]	1.69 [1.20-2.38]	1.06 [0.84-1.33]
ITA	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
MAT	0.94 [0.70-1.28]	n.a.	1.02 [0.78-1.32]	n.a.	1.37 [1.05-1.78]	n.a.
MNE	0.95 [0.71-1.27]	0.96 [0.73-1.25]	0.80 [0.36-1.79]	0.80 [0.38-1.70]	1.73 [1.28-2.34]	1.03 [0.79-1.32]
POR	0.94 [0.66-1.32]	0.88 [0.69-1.13]	0.66 [0.49-0.88]	1.12 [0.90-1.39]	1.57 [1.22-2.03]	0.99 [0.82-1.18]
SMR	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
SPA	0.95 [0.75-1.19]	0.83 [0.72-0.97]	1.13 [0.93-1.38]	0.96 [0.83-1.11]	1.30 [1.08-1.56]	1.28 [1.10-1.49]

ALB	0.87 [0.54-1.39]	1.01 [0.76-1.35]	0.96 [0.54-1.68]	1.12 [0.83-1.52]	2.51 [1.72-3.66]	1.03 [0.83-1.28]
Central Asia						
KAZ	0.93 [0.62-1.39]	1.22 [0.84-1.78]	1.12 [0.80-1.56]	1.00 [0.72-1.37]	1.03 [0.76-1.39]	0.88 [0.66-1.18]
KGZ	0.97 [0.76-1.23]	1.02 [0.80-1.31]	1.03 [0.71-1.51]	1.12 [0.82-1.55]	1.40 [1.09-1.81]	0.94 [0.73-1.22]
TJK	n.a.	n.a.	2.03 [1.17-3.51]	0.88 [0.66-1.17]	1.51 [0.80-2.83]	0.92 [0.60-1.41]
TKM	0.82 [0.49-1.37]	0.99 [0.70-1.41]	0.84 [0.40-1.74]	0.89 [0.65-1.22]	1.58 [0.96-2.59]	1.01 [0.72-1.42]
Western Asia						
GEO	1.09 [0.81-1.47]	0.82 [0.64-1.04]	1.19 [0.76-1.85]	0.89 [0.64-1.24]	1.32 [1.00-1.74]	0.92 [0.75-1.12]
TUR	0.88 [0.67-1.14]	0.86 [0.72-1.03]	1.05 [0.83-1.33]	0.88 [0.77-1.02]	1.49 [1.10-2.03]	0.97 [0.78-1.20]
Pooled estimates	0.98 [0.82-1.16]	0.89 [0.79-1.00]	1.00 [0.85-1.18]	1.02 [0.90-1.17]	1.30 [1.12-1.51]	1.13 [1.00-1.27]

For an explanation of the country abbreviations, see Table 1. Abbreviation ‘n.a.’ means ‘not available’.

^a Data on transportation to and from school were not collected in Italy and San Marino. Data on actively/vigorously playing were not collected in France, Italy and San Marino. Data on practising sports were not collected in France, Ireland, Italy and San Marino. Pooled estimates were calculated including the following age groups/countries: i) 7-year-olds from Bulgaria, Czechia, Denmark, Georgia, Kyrgyzstan, Lithuania, Latvia, Montenegro, Portugal, Spain, Tajikistan and Turkey; ii) 8-year-olds from Albania, Croatia, Poland and Romania; iii) 9-year-olds from Kazakhstan. Adjusted ORs and 95% CI were estimated through a multilevel logistic regression analysis. Besides family characteristics (parental education, family perceived wealth and parental employment status), all models included child’s, sex, age, nutritional status according to WHO definition (i.e. with normal weight – overweight – obesity) and region of residence among covariates. The following regression models were not estimated due to the limit number of children who had the analysed “less healthy” behaviour: the model related to going to and from school by motorized vehicles for Tajikistan; the model for actively/vigorously playing for less than 1 hour a day Czechia

Supplementary table 6 – Country-specific and pooled adjusted ORs of having a “less healthy” behaviour (compared to not having) on watching TV or using electronic devices for 2 hours a day and more and on sleeping for less than nine hours per night, related to medium versus high parental education and medium versus high family perceived wealth ^a. COSI/WHO Europe round 4 (2015-17)

	Watching TV or using electronic devices for 2 hours a day and more		Sleeping for less than nine hours per night	
	Parental education	Family perceived wealth	Parental education	Family perceived wealth
	<i>Medium vs High</i>	<i>Medium vs High</i>	<i>Medium vs High</i>	<i>Medium vs High</i>
DEN	1.37 [0.96-1.95]	1.18 [0.88-1.59]	n.a.	n.a.
IRE	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
LTU	1.14 [0.91-1.43]	1.20 [1.01-1.44]	0.83 [0.63-1.08]	1.57 [1.20-2.06]
LVA	1.52 [1.29-1.80]	0.98 [0.84-1.15]	0.87 [0.68-1.10]	1.12 [0.88-1.41]
BUL	0.92 [0.69-1.23]	0.96 [0.76-1.22]	0.74 [0.52-1.05]	1.05 [0.77-1.43]
CZH	0.83 [0.47-1.46]	0.92 [0.68-1.26]	n.a.	n.a.
POL	1.61 [1.11-2.36]	0.88 [0.67-1.17]	0.59 [0.33-1.05]	1.17 [0.62-2.22]
ROM	1.32 [0.96-1.82]	1.08 [0.89-1.32]	1.06 [0.77-1.46]	1.31 [1.04-1.65]
RUS	n.a.	1.24 [0.90-1.71]	n.a.	1.18 [0.87-1.60]
FRA	1.66 [1.29-2.15]	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
ALB	1.27 [0.92-1.76]	1.31 [1.02-1.69]	0.74 [0.46-1.19]	1.19 [0.83-1.71]
CRO	1.17 [0.87-1.58]	1.08 [0.88-1.34]	0.88 [0.50-1.54]	0.95 [0.58-1.57]
ITA	1.23 [1.11-1.37]	1.18 [1.06-1.31]	1.04 [0.88-1.23]	1.11 [0.96-1.29]
MAT	1.02 [0.80-1.29]	n.a.	1.78 [0.98-3.23]	n.a.
MNE	1.08 [0.76-1.55]	1.18 [0.92-1.50]	1.02 [0.51-2.03]	1.28 [0.54-3.03]

POR	1.08 [0.81-1.44]	0.97 [0.8-1.18]	1.34 [0.54-3.36]	1.35 [0.67-2.73]
SMR	1.19 [0.53-2.67]	n.a.	1.04 [0.18-5.92]	n.a.
SPA	1.16 [0.88-1.51]	1.19 [0.99-1.44]	1.72 [0.74-3.98]	0.76 [0.41-1.40]
ALB	1.27 [0.92-1.76]	1.31 [1.02-1.69]	0.74 [0.46-1.19]	1.19 [0.83-1.71]
KAZ	0.91 [0.68-1.22]	1.11 [0.80-1.54]	0.96 [0.70-1.32]	1.11 [0.82-1.51]
KGZ	0.80 [0.64-1.00]	1.11 [0.91-1.35]	1.15 [0.88-1.51]	1.10 [0.86-1.42]
TJK	0.73 [0.43-1.24]	1.09 [0.79-1.52]	0.83 [0.46-1.49]	1.09 [0.77-1.54]
TKM	1.25 [0.75-2.08]	0.86 [0.65-1.16]	0.83 [0.41-1.66]	0.91 [0.62-1.33]
GEO	0.92 [0.71-1.19]	1.00 [0.82-1.23]	0.89 [0.34-2.35]	0.92 [0.43-1.98]
TUR	1.56 [1.18-2.08]	1.02 [0.88-1.17]	1.26 [0.74-2.16]	1.05 [0.75-1.46]
Pooled estimates	1.24 [1.08-1.44]	1.11 [1.01-1.22]	0.77 [0.63-0.95]	1.27 [1.07-1.51]

For an explanation of the country abbreviations, see Table 1. Abbreviation ‘n.a.’ means ‘not available’.

^a Data on screen time were not collected in Ireland. Pooled estimates were calculated including the following age groups/countries: i) 7-year-olds from Bulgaria, Czechia, Denmark, Georgia, Kyrgyzstan, Lithuania, Latvia, Montenegro, Portugal, Spain, Tajikistan and Turkey; ii) 8-year-olds from Albania, Croatia, Poland and Romania; iii) 9-year-olds from Kazakhstan. Adjusted ORs and 95% CI were estimated through a multilevel logistic regression analysis. Besides family characteristics (parental education, family perceived wealth and parental employment status), all models included child’s, sex, age, nutritional status according to WHO definition (i.e. with normal weight – overweight – obesity) and region of residence among covariates. The regression model on sleep pattern was not estimated for Denmark, Ireland and Czechia due to the absence or the limited number of children who had the analysed “less healthy” behaviour.