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## Device-Measured Change in Physical Activity in Primary School Children During the UK COVID-19 Pandemic Lockdown

### Citation for published version:

Scales, J, Chavda, J, Ikeda, E, Tsocheva, I, Dove, RE, Wood, HE, Kalsi, H, Colligan, G, Griffiths, L, Day, B, Crichlow, C, Keighley, A, Fletcher, M, Newby, C, Tomini, F, Balkwill, F, Mihaylova, B, Grigg, J, Beevers, S, Eldridge, S, Sheikh, A, Gauderman, J, Kelly, F, Randhawa, G, Mudway, IS, van Sluijs, E & Griffiths, CJ 2023, 'Device-Measured Change in Physical Activity in Primary School Children During the UK COVID-19 Pandemic Lockdown: A Longitudinal Study', *Journal of Physical Activity and Health*, vol. 20, no. 7, pp. 639-647. <https://doi.org/10.1123/jpah.2022-0434>

### Digital Object Identifier (DOI):

[10.1123/jpah.2022-0434](https://doi.org/10.1123/jpah.2022-0434)

### Link:

[Link to publication record in Edinburgh Research Explorer](#)

### Document Version:

Peer reviewed version

### Published In:

Journal of Physical Activity and Health

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## 1 **Abstract**

### 2 **Background**

3 Lockdown measures, including school closures, due to the COVID-19 pandemic have  
4 caused widespread disruption to children's lives. The aim of this study was to explore the  
5 impact of a national lockdown on children's physical activity using seasonally-matched  
6 accelerometry data.

### 7 **Methods**

8 Using a pre/post observational design, 179 children aged 8-11 years provided physical  
9 activity data measured using hip worn tri-axial accelerometers worn for 5 consecutive days  
10 pre-pandemic and during the Jan-Mar 2021 lockdown. Multilevel regression analyses  
11 adjusted for covariates were used to assess the impact of lockdown on time spent in  
12 sedentary and moderate-to-vigorous physical activity (MVPA).

### 13 **Results**

14 A 10.8-minute reduction in daily time spent in moderate-to-vigorous physical activity  
15 (standard error [SE]: 2.3min/day,  $P < 0.001$ ), and a 33.2-minute increase in daily sedentary  
16 activity (SE: 5.5min/day,  $P < 0.001$ ) were observed during lockdown. This reflected a  
17 reduction in daily MVPA for those unable to attend school ( $-13.1 \pm 2.3$  min/day,  $P < 0,001$ )  
18 during lockdown, with no significant change for those who continued to attend school  
19 ( $0.4 \pm 4.0$ min/day,  $P < 0.925$ ).

### 20 **Conclusion**

21 These findings suggest that the loss of in-person schooling was the single largest impact on  
22 physical activity in this cohort of primary school children in London, Luton and Dunstable UK.

## 23 Introduction

24 The restrictions placed on populations during the coronavirus pandemic caused  
25 unprecedented disruption to the lives of children. Governments worldwide implemented  
26 national stay-at-home quarantines (lockdowns) to slow the spread of the virus. In the United  
27 Kingdom (UK) multiple regional and national lockdowns were in place for periods between  
28 March 2020 and February 2022 (Figure 1), where UK law during national lockdowns  
29 stipulated that people could only leave their homes for essential work, food shopping,  
30 medical needs and exercise. This also included implementation of “remote” schooling for  
31 most children, except for vulnerable children and children whose parents were involved in  
32 ‘key worker’ occupations (e.g. emergency services personnel, teachers, and workers  
33 involved in the production and sale of food).

34 Physical activity has been associated with numerous health benefits in children, including a  
35 reduction in early-life risk factors for cardiovascular disease and obesity<sup>1,2</sup>. Pre-lockdown  
36 research has suggested that active travel methods of commuting to school contribute to  
37 physical activity in children, national lockdowns have impacted this method of physical  
38 activity. Moreover, pre-pandemic research assessing the structured-day hypothesis has long  
39 held that schools are an important source of structure and routine, which instigates and  
40 encourages physical activity for children beyond simply the active travel component<sup>3,4</sup>.  
41 School closures, alongside the closure of other sports facilities, such as sports centres,  
42 sports clubs, play areas and swimming pools, further limited the opportunities to engage in  
43 physical activity during periods of lockdown.

44 A substantial body of research has already documented some of the effects of COVID-19  
45 lockdowns on children’s perceived physical activity levels. These studies are summarised in  
46 recent systematic and narrative reviews<sup>5-7</sup>. Broadly, children’s physical activity is reported to  
47 decline and sedentary activity increase during a lockdown, and this has been consistent  
48 regardless of life stage and country of residence. Specifically, engagement with physical

49 activity has been shown to be dependent on sociodemographic factors. Findings from an  
50 ethnically-diverse cohort in England, UK showed that White British children were more  
51 'sufficiently active' (34.1%) compared to children of Pakistani heritage (22.8%), or children of  
52 'any other ethnic group' (22.8%)<sup>8</sup>. A survey of 1214 children in Ireland also highlighted that  
53 the lack of in-person schooling limited physical activity by reducing active travel<sup>9</sup>. However,  
54 to date no research has employed device-assessed methods to explore the mediating  
55 effects of ethnicity or loss of active travel on lockdown physical activity.

56 While self-report questionnaires facilitate large sample sizes and are easy to complete with  
57 participants confined to their homes, they are commonly associated with many  
58 disadvantages such as recall bias<sup>10</sup> and mood-congruence bias<sup>11</sup>. Few studies have  
59 reported on device-measured physical activity data during lockdowns. One study among  
60 Dutch primary school children used accelerometry data from 66 children (10.5±3.6 years),  
61 reporting that sedentary time was increased by 45 minutes per day and total physical activity  
62 was 17 minutes per day lower while attending school under national lockdown<sup>12</sup>. A  
63 longitudinal study conducted with 800 children, aged 8 to 18, in Wales showed that  
64 moderate-to-vigorous physical activity (MVPA) measured by accelerometry increased by  
65 38.4 minutes per day when children returned to school after a stay-at-home lockdown<sup>13</sup>.  
66 Finally, a repeated measures cross-sectional design has highlighted that children engaged in  
67 7 minutes per day less MVPA while attending school during the pandemic<sup>14</sup>. To date,  
68 research has only reported total daily physical activity, and not considered physical activity  
69 during school time, meaning it has not been possible to ascertain the specific contribution of  
70 school attendance compared to out-of-school physical activity to total physical activity levels.  
71 Understanding the specific role of school-based physical activity is critical to informing future  
72 school-based initiatives.

73 While a few studies have reported physical activity change during general national  
74 lockdowns, no previous studies have quantified the change in accelerometer-derived

75 physical activity in UK children before and during a national lockdown with school closures.  
76 Therefore, the primary aim of this study was to determine the impacts of the third national  
77 UK lockdown (06/01/2021-08/03/2021) on daily and school time MVPA and sedentary  
78 activity, using seasonally-matched accelerometry data from primary school children during  
79 school closures in England, UK. Secondary aims were to explore potential moderators of  
80 change in MVPA and self-reported physical activity. We hypothesised that children's  
81 physical activity would be lower during school closures in lockdowns.

82

## 83 **Methods**

### 84 **Participants**

85 Participants were recruited from the Children's Health in London and Luton (CHILL) study.  
86 CHILL is a multi-ethnic cohort recruited in 2018-2019 from 84 schools in Central London,  
87 Luton and Dunstable to evaluate the impact of London's Ultra-Low Emission Zone (ULEZ)  
88 on health. To be included in CHILL, children had to be attending primary schools located in  
89 Luton and Dunstable or within or very close to the border of London's ULEZ. Further details  
90 about the cohort recruitment can be found elsewhere <sup>15</sup>. Participants in the CHILL study  
91 were sent invites to participate in this sub-study in January 2021, while aged between 8-11  
92 years.

93 In the first instance, our contacts at the primary schools were approached by email to gain  
94 assent to approach participants' parents/guardians. Invitations to participate were then sent  
95 to participants' parents by SMS. Parents were offered the opportunity to ask any questions  
96 via phone or email. Assent was obtained from nominated parents or guardians to collect  
97 data during lockdown. Written consent was provided by participants' parents during  
98 recruitment to the CHILL study. All procedures were performed in accordance with the

99 declaration of Helsinki and the institutional research ethics committee provided research  
100 approval (QMERC: 2018/08).

### 101 **Study timeline**

102 Time spent in MVPA and sedentary activity is known to be influenced by seasonal variation.  
103 To minimise the impact of seasonal variation on the current analyses <sup>16</sup>, participants had to  
104 have provided acceptable accelerometer wear between the dates of 01/11/2019 and  
105 15/03/2020, as baseline (pre-lockdown) comparison to match follow-up data collection  
106 (06/01/2021-08/03/2021).

107 The follow-up data collection time point (06/01/2021-08/03/2021) occurred during the third  
108 UK national lockdown (Figure 1). During these dates, the UK was under strict stay-at-home  
109 lockdown where schools offered online learning to students, with the exception of vulnerable  
110 children, or the children of 'key workers', who were permitted to attend school in person.

111 \*FIGURE 1\*

112

### 113 **Participant demographics and mode of transport**

114 Child's ethnicity and mode of travel to school were reported by parents on a baseline  
115 questionnaire. Participants' parents and participants were individually asked "During a  
116 normal week, how often does your child/do you travel to school using the following modes of  
117 transport", with the option to respond, "Never" , "1-2 days" , "3-4days" , "Everyday" for the  
118 modes of "Walk", "Scooter", "Bike", "Private car", "Taxi", "Bus", "Train/tube". To support the  
119 final analysis the transport modes were condensed; walk, scooter and bike were categorised  
120 as active travel, while train/tube and bus were categorised as public transport, and taxi and  
121 private car were categorised as private transport. Mode of transport was presented as the  
122 method which was used for the most days per week once all scores had been summed.

123 In the first instance a parents score to the question was reported as the outcome variable,  
124 however if a parent reported a score that classified a participant as using two modes of  
125 transport, or a spurious result, the child's responses to "How did you travel to school today?",  
126 were also included to the calculation to provide a single transport method.

### 127 **Device-measured physical activity**

128 Actigraph GT3X+ (Actigraph Corp, USA) tri-axial accelerometers were used to collect  
129 physical activity data. The children wore the accelerometer on their right hip using an  
130 elasticated belt. Valid daily wear time at baseline was set at five consecutive days of 480  
131 minutes (eight hours) between 6am and 11pm. This threshold was chosen in agreement with  
132 previous large cohort research<sup>17-19</sup>. Baseline data was collected during routine research  
133 visits to schools as part of the CHILL study. Participants were provided with an  
134 accelerometer and instruction sheet by researchers who explained that they should be worn  
135 at all times except when sleeping, swimming, or showering. Participants were instructed to  
136 wear the accelerometer for seven days, then return it to the school, after which a researcher  
137 collected them. Accelerometers were initialised to start recording at 9am on the day they  
138 were handed out.

139 Due to restrictions during UK lockdown, all follow-up measures took place remotely. An  
140 accelerometer, an instruction sheet were mailed to the participant's home address with a  
141 self-addressed, freepost envelope for return.

142 Accelerometers were initialised to start collecting two days after they had been placed in the  
143 post. Participants were asked to start wearing the accelerometer as soon as it arrived,  
144 regardless of whether it was a weekday or weekend, and to wear it for five days before  
145 returning via self-addressed, prepaid envelope.

146

147 Accelerometer data were downloaded and exported at five-second intervals using the  
148 ActiLife software (Version 6.13.4). Data were processed through ActiLife software to mark  
149 periods of 60 minutes or greater of continuous zero (tri-axial) counts as non-wear and apply  
150 thresholds to calculate time spent at different intensity levels Data files with hourly-level data  
151 were then subsequently processed in Stata (Version 13, StataCorp. College Station, TX,  
152 USA) to remove periods of 60 minutes or more of continuous zero acceleration. Cut-points  
153 defined by Evenson et al.,<sup>20</sup> were applied to classify sedentary activity (<101 counts per  
154 minute) and MVPA ( $\geq 2296$  counts per minute) using uniaxial data. School time MVPA and  
155 sedentary activity were defined as any activity at the required threshold between 9am-3pm  
156 on weekdays. Accelerometers were set up to only collect data for seven days.

157 Anthropometric data (measured by trained researchers and reported as age- and sex-  
158 specific body mass index), ethnicity and mode of travel were collected during baseline as  
159 part of the CHILL study health assessments and data collection methods are described  
160 elsewhere<sup>20</sup>.

## 161 **Data analysis**

162 To account for variance in wear time across data collection waves, three-level multilevel  
163 mixed effects models were used to analyse the accelerometer data (see supplementary  
164 material 1 for details on data structure). Ten different multilevel mixed effects models were  
165 run. Four were used to assess the primary aim exploring changes in MVPA during lockdown  
166 compared to baseline. School time model 1 and total daily model 1 included key  
167 demographic data as covariates (wave, age at baseline, wear time, BMI, Chill study site,  
168 gender, ethnicity and whether children attended school during lockdown). While total daily  
169 models 2, 3 and 4 kept the same demographic input but included ethnicity (Model 2), school  
170 attendance (Model 3) or transport to school (Model 4) as effect modifiers (full model  
171 descriptions are available in supplementary material 2). The same design was used to  
172 examine sedentary behaviour with Total Daily Model 5 including data as covariates only, and



173 Models 6, 7 and 8 including modifiers for ethnicity, school attendance and transport to  
174 school, respectively. The ethnicity variable in Total daily models 2 and 6 was converted to  
175 dummy variables except the 'Other' category. The same design was used to examine  
176 sedentary activity with Model 5 including data as covariates only, and Models 6, 7 and 8  
177 including modifiers for ethnicity, school attendance and transport to school, respectively.  
178 MVPA and sedentary activity during school time were assessed via multilevel models with  
179 the same demographic inputs and no moderating variables as a sensitivity analysis.

180 P-values  $\leq 0.05$  were considered statistically significant for all statistical tests. All analysis  
181 was conducted using STATA MP (Version 13, StataCorp. College Station, TX, USA).

182

## 183 **Results**

184 Out of a cohort of 3414 CHILL participants, 802 children provided valid baseline  
185 accelerometry data between the pre-defined matched baseline dates. Due to a limited  
186 number of accelerometers available, a random sample of 633 (79%) of these children were  
187 sent an SMS message inviting them to take part in the study, and 233 (37%) consented to  
188 taking part. 192 (82%) returned accelerometers, of whom 179 (93%) participants wore them  
189 and provided acceptable data for analysis. 38 (21%) children attended school at least one  
190 day during national lockdown while wearing an activity monitor. Table 1 presents descriptive  
191 baseline characteristics of the 179 participants with acceptable accelerometry data.

192

### \*TABLE 1\*

193 Valid total wear time at baseline was 749.89 (116.88) min/day and 733.37 (117.14) min/day  
194 during lockdown. Multilevel mixed effects models for school time (School time model) and  
195 daily MVPA (Totally daily models 1,2,3,4) exploring the impact of lockdown are summarised  
196 in Table 2 with more detailed models presented in supplementary material 2.

197 The school time model shows a significant reduction of time spent in MVPA during lockdown  
198 compared to baseline ( $-10.8 \pm 1.8$  min/day,  $P < 0.001$ ). Total daily model 1 presents a  
199 significant reduction of time spent in MVPA during lockdown compared to baseline ( $-$   
200  $10.8 \pm 2.3$  min/day,  $P < 0.001$ ). When effect modifiers were included in subsequent models, no  
201 significant interaction effect was observed for ethnicity ( $\chi^2 (4) = 3.33$ ,  $P = 0.505$ ), or mode of  
202 travel to school ( $\chi^2 (2) = 1.58$ ,  $P = 0.4530$ ). Significant interaction was observed for school  
203 attendance, which was characterised by a statistically significant reduction in daily MVPA for  
204 those not able to attend in-person schooling ( $-13.1 \pm 2.3$  min/day,  $P < 0.001$ ) during lockdown  
205 and no change for those attending school ( $0.4 \pm 4.0$  min/day,  $P < 0.925$ ) during lockdown.

206 \*TABLE 2\*

207 Multilevel mixed effects models for school time (School time model) and daily sedentary  
208 activity (Total daily models 5,6,7,8) exploring the impact of lockdown are summarised in  
209 table 3 with further detail presented in supplementary material 3.

210 The school time model (Table 3) presents a significant increase in time spent in sedentary  
211 activity during lockdown compared to baseline ( $28.6 \pm 4.3$  min/day,  $P < 0.001$ ). The total daily  
212 model (Model 5), presents a significant increase in daily sedentary activity during lockdown  
213 compared to baseline ( $32.2 \pm 5.5$  min/day,  $P < 0.001$ ). When effect modifiers were included in  
214 subsequent models, no interaction effect for ethnicity ( $\chi^2 (4) = 2.14$ ,  $P = 0.711$ ), or mode of  
215 travel ( $\chi^2 (2) = 1.39$ ,  $P = 0.500$ ) was observed. A significant interaction was observed for school  
216 attendance, which was characterised by a significant increase in sedentary activity for those  
217 unable to attend school in person during lockdown ( $39.6 \pm 5.6$  min/day,  $P < 0.0001$ ) and no  
218 change in sedentary activity for those attending school during lockdown ( $2.2 \pm 9.9$  min/day,  
219  $P = 0.822$ ).

220 \*TABLE 3\*

## 221 **Discussion**

222 The aim of this study was to determine the impact of a UK lockdown on primary school  
223 children's daily physical activity in and outside of school time using accelerometry. This is  
224 amongst the first studies to report device-based measures of physical activity during a  
225 lockdown with school closures. Sedentary activity increased while MVPA decreased during  
226 lockdown in comparison to before lockdown measures. Critically, this change was almost  
227 completely attenuated in children who attended school in person during the lockdown. This  
228 was supported by significant reductions in physical activity during school time among those  
229 not attending school. These findings suggest that the removal of in-person schooling and not  
230 the closure of sports clubs was likely the largest impact on physical activity in this cohort.

231 This study observed that children's total daily MVPA was reduced by an average of 10.8  
232 minutes compared to before lockdown baseline. Our findings are comparable to a Dutch  
233 study which saw a reduction of 17.0 minutes of daily MVPA during lockdown with school  
234 attendance and another UK study which saw an increase of 12.4 minutes of daily MVPA as  
235 children returned to school following school closure lockdown<sup>13</sup> and a US study which  
236 observed reductions of 7 minutes during lockdown<sup>21</sup>. The reduced difference between Dutch  
237 and US cohorts and our UK cohort is notable considering the Dutch and US children were  
238 attending school during lockdown data collection. The different data collection and analysis  
239 techniques may partially account for this difference. However, large observational studies  
240 have shown that country-specific lockdown guidelines may account for different levels of  
241 physical activity<sup>22</sup>.

242 The present study observed significant increases of 33.2 min/day of sedentary activity,  
243 broadly in line with the Dutch (45 minute increase) and US cohorts (145 minute increase)  
244 while a UK cohort saw a reduction of 90 minutes in sedentary time when children returned to  
245 school after a stay-at-home lockdown<sup>13</sup>. Possible contributing factors for the large  
246 differences seen between sedentary activity include the use of different thresholds to define

247 sedentary activity, differences in the cohorts studied, i.e. older children, and the lack of  
248 before-pandemic baseline data for comparison. However, in general this shift from MVPA to  
249 sedentary activity is consistent in direction with large UK survey-based research <sup>8,23</sup>.

250 Such findings are concerning as it is well known that physical activity habits are formed in  
251 childhood <sup>24-26</sup>. Scientific consensus shows that physical activity habit forming in childhood is  
252 critical to preventing obesity and chronic illness, and maximising health prospects <sup>1,27</sup>.

253 Lockdown restrictions, and thus physical activity restrictions, during this critically formative  
254 time may therefore increase the risk of chronic health problems later in life.

255 Pre-lockdown research has suggested that ethnicity may predict engagement with physical  
256 activity, with research suggesting that South East Asian primary school-aged children may  
257 be less likely to engage in physical activity <sup>28</sup>. Moreover, national self-reported UK data has  
258 highlighted that Black children were less likely than Asian and White children to meet  
259 Government daily physical activity guidelines of 60 minutes MVPA, during lockdown  
260 compared to before lockdown baseline <sup>8</sup>. When using device-measured physical activity, the  
261 present study found that the impact of the lockdown did not differ by ethnicity. Notably, self-  
262 reported data in a predominantly South East Asian UK inner-city cohort broadly comparable  
263 to the present sample, suggested that children of Pakistani heritage were less likely to meet  
264 the same Government physical activity guidelines<sup>28</sup>. However, the researchers noted that no  
265 difference occurred when trips outside the home were added as a confounder, highlighting  
266 that parental and demographic variability may have a greater impact than ethnicity itself.

267 Interestingly, school attendance (children who were permitted to go to school during  
268 lockdown as their parents were classified as 'key workers') highly predicted change in MVPA  
269 and sedentary activity. Children who attended school maintained pre-pandemic levels of  
270 MVPA and sedentary activity, showing that school attendance plays a key role in maintaining  
271 physical activity. This suggests schools were unable to encourage physical activity by  
272 remote learning methods during stay-at-home lockdowns. This is in agreement with post-

273 lockdown work which shows that when attending in-person schooling were more physically  
274 active compared to virtual-schooling at home<sup>29</sup>.

275 The observed moderating effect of school attendance is further supported by a reduction in  
276 MVPA of a similar magnitude during school time. It has been postulated that young children  
277 are able to mitigate against periods of sedentary activity by intuitively engaging in informal  
278 play forms of physical activity<sup>30</sup>. It is likely that children have been able to compensate for  
279 closures of sport clubs and general restrictions to movements outside of the home that have  
280 occurred outside of school time, but not loss of physical activity associated with school  
281 activities. This novel finding suggests that school closures were potentially the primary  
282 source of shift from MVPA to sedentary activity in children during lockdown.

283 It is long established that vulnerable groups such as those from deprived backgrounds, low  
284 income households, or in poor health are less likely to engage in physical activity<sup>28,31</sup>.

285 Schools mitigate health inequalities by providing access to welfare and wellbeing resources  
286 and support. It is likely that school closures will negatively impact vulnerable groups, further  
287 increasing health inequality.

288 There are two commonly proposed methods of how school attendance encourages healthy  
289 behaviours, such as increased physical activity. Firstly, pre-pandemic work has long  
290 suggested that school attendance increases physical activity by increasing active travel  
291 forms of commuting to the location<sup>26</sup>, providing structure to engage in physical activity via  
292 physical education lessons, break times and at after school clubs<sup>32</sup> and through  
293 unstructured play during break and lunch times. Secondly, the structured day hypothesis  
294 postulates that school attendance provides vital daily routine which promotes healthy  
295 behaviours such as physical activity. The sudden closure of schools during lockdown has  
296 enabled a natural quasi experiment of the structured day hypothesis. This study observed no  
297 differences children who travelled to school by active and non-active travel methods.  
298 However, when combined with significant drops in school time physical activity, it can be

299 suggested that the daily structure provided by school attendance itself is significant in  
300 mediating the observed decrease in physical activity, providing support for the structured day  
301 hypothesis and suggesting that active travel to school has only a small impact on physical  
302 activity.

303 Children engage in physical activity in many settings. Most environments involve familial  
304 engagement, such as attending sports clubs and swimming pools, informal play in parks with  
305 friends and family, and active methods of commuting and transportation. Pre-lockdown  
306 research has shown that schools provide a uniquely egalitarian environment to encourage  
307 physical activity predominantly through structured physical education lessons <sup>32</sup> and  
308 unstructured play during break and lunch times <sup>33</sup>. Thus, these findings suggest school  
309 closures during such critically formative life stage may increase health inequalities, by  
310 disproportionately impacting the most vulnerable children in society.

311 It is notable that schools were unable to promote physical activity during remote learning.  
312 While national lockdowns propose a unique challenge, long term absence from school is a  
313 common and persistent challenge for many children. The findings of this work suggest that  
314 providing daily structure may encourage physical activity during absence from school.

315 The findings of this study suggest that a strong argument can be made for providing schools  
316 with further resources to support children in returning to pre-lockdown levels of physical  
317 activity. Additionally, resources should be developed to help children engage in physical  
318 activity during periods of long-term school absence. It is encouraging that previous research  
319 has observed a reduction of 90 minutes in daily sedentary time after returning to school,  
320 which highlights some rebound in physical activity following the easing of lockdown  
321 restrictions, however a sequential cross-sectional design has shown that children have not  
322 returned to pre-pandemic levels of physical activity<sup>14</sup> Future research could explore whether  
323 children returned to pre-pandemic baseline levels of physical activity.

324 Methodological strengths of this study include the use of a repeated measures study design  
325 and device-measured physical activity at seasonally-matched time points before and during  
326 lockdown with school closure. Despite this, the limitations of this work should be  
327 acknowledged: This study used a convenience sample from an ongoing study (CHILL Study)  
328 which recruited inner-city children. While the CHILL cohort is ethnically representative of  
329 Central London and Luton, this population might not be fully representative of the UK  
330 population as a whole.

331 The seasonally-matched within-participant design is a strength, allowing comparison of  
332 measures collected before and during a national lockdown. Previous large observational  
333 research has shown that total physical activity in children reduces by 4.2% annually,  
334 characterised predominantly by a shift from light physical activity to increased sedentary  
335 activity. This suggests that sedentary changes at follow up could have been overestimated  
336 <sup>34</sup>. However, it should be noted that no change in physical activity occurred in children  
337 attending school suggesting in this cohort there is a reduced risk of overestimation.  
338 Moreover, retrospective baseline measures from the parental questionnaires may be subject  
339 to recall or selection bias.

340 Our findings show that children have been able to mitigate the impact of closures of sports  
341 clubs and after school activities; however, they experienced significant drops in physical  
342 activity during school time. Schools play a critical role in encouraging physical activity and  
343 this importance is only increased during lockdown. We have observed that schools were  
344 unable to remotely support children in engaging in physical activity during stay-at-home  
345 lockdowns. This loss in school-based physical activity at such a critical habit-forming life  
346 stage may impact children's long-term development and increase health inequalities by  
347 impacting children with less out-of-school support to engage in physical activity. It is not  
348 clear whether children return to baseline levels of physical activity; previous work has shown

349 that physical activity does increase following the removal of lockdown<sup>9</sup>, however, it is not yet  
350 clear whether this means a return to baseline levels of activity.

### 351 **Acknowledgements**

352 The authors would like to thank the Physical Activity Technical Team at the University of  
353 Cambridge for their help in processing the accelerometry data. The CHILL team would like  
354 to thank all the teachers and students at the participating schools in London, Luton and  
355 Dunstable.

356 This research was supported by the NIHR Cambridge Biomedical Research Centre  
357 (NIHR203312). The views expressed are those of the authors and not necessarily those of  
358 the NIHR or the Department of Health and Social Care

### 359 **Funding**

360 CHILL is funded by NIHR Public Health Research with additional funding by NIHR CLAHRC  
361 North Thames, NIHR ARC North Thames, the Mayor of London and the NIHR Cambridge  
362 Biomedical Research Centre.

### 363 **Competing Interests statement**

364 The authors have no competing interests to declare.

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Table 1: Baseline (before-lockdown) demographic profile of study sample

Variable	Descriptive (n)	Cohort distribution (%)
<b>Site</b>		
London	122	68.2
Luton	57	31.8
<b>Gender</b>		
Male	70	39.11
Female	109	60.89
<b>Ethnicity</b>		
Asian	41	23.70
Black	29	16.76
Mixed	22	12.72
White	69	39.88
Other	12	6.94
<b>Mode of travel to school</b>		
Active travel	102	56.98
Private transport	46	25.70
Public transport	31	17.32
Age, (years: mean, SD) 8.83 (0.75)		
BMI (z-score: mean, SD) 0.15 (1.13)		
Total Sedentary time (min/day) 530.62 (100.75)		
Total MVPA(min/day) 55.75 (24.86)		

Age, BMI and physical activity variables presented as mean with SD in parenthesis

379

380

Table 2 Summary of results of hierarchical linear modelling for time spent in MVPA

Parameter	School time model	Total daily model 1	Total daily model 2	Total daily model 3	Total daily model 4
Regression coefficients					
Intercept	24.5 (9.9), P=0.014	49.0 (13.5), P<0.001	48.3 (14.7), P<0.001	44.0 (13.6), P=0.001	47.4 (13.7), P=0.001
Lockdown	-10.8 (1.8), P<0.001	-10.8 (2.3), P<0.001	-15.6 (6.6), P=0.017	0.4 (4.0), P=0.925	-10.0 (2.6), P<0.001
Age	-0.5 (1.0), P<0.637	-2.0 (1.5), P=0.172	-2.0 (1.5), P=0.168	-2.0 (1.5), P=0.172	-1.9 (1.5), P=0.197
Wear time	0.1 (0.0), P<0.001	0.1 (0.0), P<0.001	0.1 (0.0), P<0.001	0.1 (0.0), P<0.001	0.1 (0.0), P<0.001
School attendance at lockdown (attend/none)	-7.4 (2.1), P<0.001	-5.0 (2.9), P=0.088	-5.0 (2.9), P=0.089	1.1 (3.5), P=0.748	-5.00 (2.9), P=0.09
Site (London/Luton)	-2.8 (1.6), P<0.083	-5.0 (2.3), P=0.031	-4.9 (2.3), P=0.032	-5.0 (2.3), P=0.028	-4.9 (2.6), P=0.061
Gender (Male/Female)	-8.7 (1.6), P<0.001	-11.5 (2.3), P<0.001	-11.5 (2.3), P<0.001	-11.6 (2.3), P<0.001	-11.4 (2.3), P<0.001
Ethnicity group (White)			0.4 (5.7), P=0.945		
Asian	-5.8 (2.0), P<0.003	-7.1 (2.8), P<0.011	-5.6 (5.9), P=0.342	-7.2 (2.8), P=0.010	-7.2 (2.8), P=0.010
Black	-4.1 (2.3), P<0.073	-8.1 (3.3), P<0.013	-5.6 (6.2), P=0.365	-8.2 (3.3), P=0.013	-8.8 (3.4), P=0.010
Mixed	-7.6 (2.4), P<0.002	-7.4 (3.5), P<0.032	-8.9 (6.3), P=0.162	-7.4 (3.4), P=0.032	-7.8 (3.5), P=0.025
Other	-2.9 (3.4), P<0.388	-3.2 (4.8), P<0.503		-3.1 (4.8), P=0.519	-3.4 (4.8), P=0.484
BMI-for-age	0.0 (0.7), P<0.952	-1.2 (1.0), P<0.249	-1.2 (1.0), P=0.250	-1.2 (1.0), P=0.237	-1.1 (1.0), P=0.259
Private transport					1.1 (3.3), P=0.750
Public transport					4.9 (3.9), P=0.215
Effect modifiers					
Lockdown x White			6.1 (6.8), P=0.370		
Lockdown x Black			1.4 (7.4), P=0.845		
Lockdown x Asian			3.6 (7.1), P=0.608		
Lockdown x Mixed			10.0 (7.6), P=0.188		
Lockdown x Absent				-13.5 (4.0), P=0.001	
Lockdown x Private transport					-0.3 (3.7), P=0.937
Lockdown x Public transport					-5.5 (4.5), P=0.216

Table 3 Summary of results of hierarchical linear modelling for objective physical activity measured by sedentary behaviour

Physical Activity during national lockdown

Parameter	School time model 2	Total daily model 5	Total daily model 6	Total daily model 7	Total daily model 8
Regression coefficients					
Intercept	-76 (22.8), P=0.001	-174.0 (31.2), P<0.001	-165.1 (34.0), P<0.001	160.2 (31.3), P=0.001	-169.4 (31.5), P<0.001
Lockdown	28.6 (4.3), P<0.001	32.2 (5.5), P<0.001	36.4 (16.4), P=0.027	2.2 (9.9), P=0.822	30.0 (6.3), P<0.001
Age	5.1 (2.4), P=0.031	11.3 (3.4), P=0.001	11.3 (3.4), P<0.001	11.3 (3.4), P<0.001	11.1 (3.4), P=0.001
Wear time	0.7 (0.0), P<0.001	0.8 (0.0), P<0.001	0.8 (0.0), P<0.001	0.8 (0.0), P=0.001	0.8 (0.0), P<0.001
School attendance at lockdown (attend/none)	21.6 (4.7), P<0.001	19.0 (6.8), P=0.005	19.0 (6.8), P=0.005	1.7 (8.2), P=0.837	18.9 (6.8), P=0.005
Site (London/Luton)	1.9 (3.7), P=0.600	7.1 (5.3), P=0.179	7.1 (5.3), P=0.183	7.3 (5.3), P=0.169	7.3 (6.0), P=0.227
Gender (Male/Female)	8.8 (3.6), P=0.016	13.0 (5.2), P=0.013	12.9 (5.20), P=0.013	13.0 (5.2), P=0.012	12.6 (5.2), P=0.015
Ethnicity group (White)			-6.8 (13.5), P=0.618		
Asian	11.2 (4.5), P=0.013	9.8 (6.5), P=0.129	-0.2 (14.0), P=0.990	10.0 (6.5), P=0.123	10.0 (6.5), P=0.122
Black	12.3 (5.3), P=0.019	23.9 (7.6), P=0.002	9.4 (14.7), P=0.521	23.9 (7.6), P=0.002	25.6 (7.8), P=0.001
Mixed	10.5 (5.6), P=0.058	11.6 (7.9), P=0.144	2.6 (15.1), P=0.863	11.6 (7.9), P=0.145	12.5 (8.0), P=0.117
Other	10.5 (7.8), P=0.175	10.9 (11.0), P=0.319		10.7 (10.9), P=0.329	11.4 (11.0), P=0.300
BMI-for-age	-0.6 (1.6), P=0.692	2.0 (2.3), P=0.379	2.0 (2.3), P=0.380	2.1 (2.3), P=0.365	1.9 (2.3), P=0.397
Private transport					-5.7 (7.9), P=0.472
Public transport					-12.2 (9.3), P=0.190
Effect modifiers					
Lockdown x White			-8.9 (17.2), P=0.605		
Lockdown x Black			7.6 (18.6), P=0.684		
Lockdown x Asian			-2.0 (18.7), P=0.910		
Lockdown x Mixed			-4.1 (19.1), P=0.829		
Lockdown x Absent				37.4 (10.0), P<0.001	
Lockdown x Private transport					6.1 (9.3), P=0.514
Lockdown x Public transport					12.5 (11.3), P=0.267

Parameter estimate presented with standard error in parenthesis. Outcome reported in minutes.

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