Interchangeability of research and commercial wearable device data for assessing associations with cardiometabolic risk markers

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- 2 assessing associations with cardiometabolic risk markers

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5

6 Abstract

7 Introduction: Whilst there is evidence on agreement, it is unknown whether commercial wearables 8 can be used as surrogates for research grade devices when investigating links with markers of 9 cardiometabolic risk. Therefore, the aim of this study was to investigate if data from a commercial 10 wearable device could be used to assess associations between behaviour and cardiometabolic risk 11 markers, compared to physical activity from a research grade monitor. 12 13 Methods: Forty-five adults concurrently wore a wrist-worn Fitbit Charge 2 and a waist-worn ActiGraph 14 wGT3X-BT during waking hours over 7 consecutive days. Log-linear regression models were fitted, 15 and predictive fit via a 1-out cross-validation was performed for each device between behavioural 16 (steps, light and moderate-to-vigorous physical activity) and cardiometabolic variables (body mass 17 index [BMI], weight, body fat %, systolic and diastolic blood pressure, glycated haemoglobin, grip 18 strength, estimated maximal oxygen uptake and waist circumference). 19 20 Results: Overall, step count was the most consistent predictor of cardiometabolic risk factors, with 21 negative associations across both Fitbit and ActiGraph devices for BMI (-0.017 vs. -0.020, p<0.01), 22 weight (-0.014 vs. -0.017, p<0.05), body fat % (-0.021 vs. -0.022, p<0.01) and waist circumference (-23 0.013 vs. -0.015, p < 0.01). Neither device was found to provide a consistently better prediction across 24 all included cardiometabolic risk markers. 25 26 Conclusions: Step count data from a commercial grade wearable device showed similar associations 27 and predictive relationships with cardiometabolic risk markers compared to a research-grade 28 wearable device, providing preliminary support for their use in health research. 29 30 Words: 239 31 32 Keywords: Commercial wearables, step count, cardiometabolic risk markers 33 34 35

36 **1. Introduction**

37 In behavioural measurement, a diverse range of methods exist that estimate physical behaviours 38 ranging from self-reported questionnaires to wearable devices (Esliger et al., 2017). Wearables can 39 further be split in two broad categories of research-grade and commercial devices, yet the cost and 40 feasibility of deploying research-grade wearables often prevents them from being used within large 41 studies. With nearly two in five (38%) individuals aged 35-54 in the United Kingdom reporting owning 42 a smart watch or wearable fitness tracker (OFCOM, 2021), an opportunity exists for capturing organic data about physical behaviours over multiple weeks or months (Pontin et al., 2021). This is an exciting 43 44 proposition given the potential for population surveillance and health status risk profiling prediction on 45 a large scale (Strain et al., 2019).

46

47 Epidemiological evidence has demonstrated that being physically active is associated with reduced 48 risks of developing several diseases and all-cause mortality, and generally having a more favourable 49 cardiometabolic risk factor profile (Chastin et al., 2021; Hajna et al., 2018; Huang et al., 2020; 50 Janssen et al., 2020; Warburton et al., 2006). However, there are few studies investigating the 51 associations between physical activity and cardiometabolic variables using data captured by 52 wearables, rather than data from research grade devices or guestionnaires. Using step and intensity-53 based metrics from a wearable device, positive relationships have been shown with high-density 54 lipoprotein (HDL), body mass index (BMI) and waist circumference (Rykov et al., 2020). Having a 55 higher resting heart rate and a greater sleep efficiency has also been associated with a lower BMI and 56 waist circumference (Lim et al., 2018; Teo et al., 2019). Despite the potential link between wearable 57 metrics and cardiometabolic variables, the results are not compared to a ground truth measure (a 58 research-grade device). 59 60 If models derived from commercial devices have similar model parameters to those derived from 61 research grade devices, wearable data has the potential in being used more commonly in larger

- 62 studies concentrating on health and physical behaviours. The aim of this study was therefore to
- 63 investigate if data from a commercial wearable device could be used to assess associations between
- 64 behaviour and cardiometabolic risk markers, compared to physical activity derived from a research
- 65 grade monitor.
- 66
- 67

1. Methods 68

2.1 Study setting and ethics 69

- 70 This study was a secondary data analyses using data that were obtained as part of the Sensing
- 71 Interstitial Glucose to Nudge Active Lifestyle (SIGNAL) interventional trial (Whelan et al., 2017, 2021).
- 72 Data were collected between July and October 2017 and ethical approval was provided from
- 73 Loughborough University Ethics Advisory Committee (R17-P049).

2.2 Participants and procedure 74

- 75 Participants were 45 adults (60% female) aged 40 or older, recruited from the community in
- 76 Leicestershire and classified with a moderate-to-high risk of developing type 2 diabetes using the
- 77 Leicester Risk Assessment Tool (Gray et al., 2010). Participants also had a compatible Android
- 78 smartphone to facilitate participation due to restrictions in glucose monitoring compatibility at the time.
- 79 Written informed consent was obtained from all participants prior to taking part. Participants wore both
- 80 a research-grade device and commercial wearable device during the baseline phase of the study.
- 81

82 2.3 Measurements

83 2.3.1 Physical behaviours

- 84 Participants were requested to wear a wrist-worn Fitbit Charge 2 (Fitbit, San Francisco, USA) and a 85 waist-worn ActiGraph wGT3X-BT (ActiGraph, Pensacola, USA) during waking hours over 7 consecutive days.
- 86
- 87

88 The Fitbit was deployed during an in-person appointment on the non-dominant wrist and participants 89 were provided with study account credentials to sync their data. This enabled the research team to 90 access participant data and check syncing adherence via Fitabase (Small Steps Labs LLC, San 91 Diego, USA). Several day level movement behaviour variables from the Fitbit were obtained: step 92 count and minutes spent within sedentary, lightly active (<3 metabolic equivalents [METs]), fairly 93 active (3-5.9 METs) and very active intensities (≥6 METs) (Van Blarigan et al., 2017). For this study, the fairly active and very active intensities were collapsed to derive the more commonly used, and 94 95 physiologically relevant, moderate to vigorous physical activity (MVPA) intensity category. A step 96 threshold per day of ≥1500 steps/day was used as a valid day criteria in line with previous studies 97 (Chu et al., 2017; Kingsnorth et al., 2021; Mikkelsen et al., 2020; Tudor-Locke et al., 2015). Day level 98 summaries were exported for each participant. In line with other studies that have used wearable data 99 from Fitbit devices, sedentary time was not included due to contamination by non-wear time 100 (Kingsnorth et al., 2021).

101

102 Using an elasticated, nylon waist belt, the ActiGraph device was deployed over the right hip

- 103 (midclavicular line), and devices were set to record data at 100 Hz using ActiLife (ActiGraph,
- 104 Pensacola, USA). Data files were integrated into 60 second epoch .agd files and processed using
- 105 KineSoft (Kinesoft v3.3.80, Loughborough, UK). A valid day was defined as 600 minutes of count data

- per day and non-wear was defined as 60 minutes of consecutive zero values, with allowance of up to
 2 minutes of interruptions (Troiano et al., 2008). The intensity of physical activity was defined with the
 following cut points: light activity (100-2019 cpm) and MVPA (≥2020 cpm) (Troiano et al., 2008).
- 109

110 <u>2.3.2 Cardiometabolic risk markers</u>

During the initial visit of the SIGNAL study, commonly measured cardiometabolic risk markers were measured by a member of the study team. Height, weight, and body composition via bioelectrical impedance (i.e., percent body fat and lean mass) were measured using a stadiometer (Seca 213, Seca, Germany) and Tanita body analyser scales (MC 780 MA, Tanita, Japan), respectively. Body mass index (BMI) was calculated and categorised into underweight (<18.5 kg/m²), healthy weight (18.5-24.9 kg/m²), overweight (25-29.9 kg/m²) and obese (>30 kg/m²) (National Health Service, 2019b).

118

119 Waist circumference (WC) was measured using the average of two measurements at the midpoint 120 between the lowest rib and the top of the iliac crest (World Health Organization, 2011b). Blood 121 pressure (systolic and diastolic blood pressure herein referred to as SBP & DBP) was measured 122 using an oscillometric device after 10 minutes of seated rest (Omron 705IT, Omron, UK), and the 123 combined highest value from both left and right grip strength measurements (Takeii analogue 124 dynamometer, Takei, Japan) were used. A point of care device (Afinion AS100 Analyser, Alere, USA) 125 measured glycated haemoglobin (HbA1c) levels with results classified as normoglycemic (<6.0%) or 126 at risk (6.0-6.4%) (World Health Organization, 2011a). The submaximal modified Canadian Aerobic 127 Fitness Test (mCAFT) estimated maximal oxygen consumption (VO_{2max}) (Weller et al., 1993).

128

129 **2.4 Statistical analyses**

130 Multi-level modelling was conducted to ascertain if there were statistically significant differences between steps, light and MVPA between devices. Then, to test the basic assumption that the selected 131 cardiometabolic risk markers were statistically significantly associated with standard outputs on both 132 133 devices, respective separate log-linear regression models were fitted to each of the markers for 134 average daily steps, minutes of light activity and minutes of MVPA for each device. Models were 135 adjusted for gender, age and ethnicity (white British vs. other) and assumptions were checked visually via diagnostic plots. Additionally, to establish whether the relationships between behavioural variables 136 137 and each device were statistically significantly different between devices, the partial correlation of 138 inputs and outputs were evaluated after adjustment for gender, age and ethnicity and bootstrap tested 139 (Thulin, 2021).

140

141 A 1-out cross-validation was also performed for each model to understand how well each behavioural

142 variable predicts each cardiometabolic marker (or predictive fit), and the resulting mean error (ME)

- 143 and RMSE for the differences between observed and predicted values were calculated. The RMSE
- 144 indicates how accurate the model is with smaller values corresponding to better predictive model. In

- 145 addition to single-input models and to understand the combined effect of all device variables together,
- 146 multi-input models were fitted and root mean squared errors (RMSEs) compared.
- 147
- 148 Finally, to examine which behavioural variable across both devices best explain the association with
- 149 the specific cardiometabolic risk markers (or explanatory fit), the proportion of variation explained by
- 150 each of the models (R-squared) was reported. Akaike's information criterion corrected for small
- 151 samples (AICc) was also calculated (Akaike, 1992; Hurvich & Tsai, 1989) with a smaller value of AIC
- 152 corresponding to a better model (the best model for each output is calculated by $\Delta AICc = AICc -$
- 153 AIC c_{min} and thus has a \triangle AIC value of 0), and a difference of at least 3 is considered statistically
- 154 significant (Burnham et al., 2011). All analyses were conducted within R version 4.0.5 (R Foundation
- 155 for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria).

156 **2. Results**

157 **3.1 Descriptive statistics**

158 Briefly, most participants had normoglycemic glucose profiles (93%), were overweight or living with

159 obesity (88.9%) and met the UK national guidelines for physical activity (based on MVPA per day,

160 Table 1). The number of valid days was high for both devices (6.6 days and 6.9 days for the

161 ActiGraph and Fitbit, respectively) Participants conducted on average 6905 and 8593 steps per day

162 as measured by the ActiGraph and Fitbit, respectively.

163

Table 1. Characteristics of the study sample	

	n	Mean (%)	SD
Age (years)	45	56.0	8.7
Sex			
Female	27	60	-
Male	18	40	-
Body mass index (kg/m²)		31.6	6.9
Underweight (<18.5)	0	0	-
Healthy weight (18.5-24.9)	5	11	-
Overweight (25-29.9)	17	38	-
Obese (>30)	23	51	-
Weight (kg)	45	89.6	19.7
Body fat (%)	45	36.4	10.3
HbA1c (%)	45	5.6	0.3
Normoglycemic (<6.0%)	42	-	-
At risk (6.0%–6.4%)	3	-	-
Systolic blood pressure (mm Hg)	45	132.0	15.8
Waist circumference (cm)	45	101.5	14.8
Estimated maximal oxygen uptake (ml/kg/min)	32	36.7	6.7
Grip strength (kg)	45	69.1	22.2
ActiGraph (waist-worn)			
Number of valid days	45	6.6	0.7
Steps per valid day	45	6905	3776
Light activity (mins) per valid day	45	288.2	83.4
MVPA (mins) per valid day	45	33.1	28.4
Fitbit (wrist-worn)			
Number of valid days	45	6.9	0.3
Steps per valid day	45	8593	4543
Lightly active (mins) per valid day	45	231.8	72.5
MVPA (mins) per valid day	45	40.2	42.1

Notes: abbreviations (MVPA: moderate to vigorous physical activity, SD: standard deviation, min: minimum, max: maximum).

165 **2.2 Movement behaviour and cardiometabolic comparisons**

- 166 Results of the multi-level modelling to assess the differences of behavioural variables between
- 167 devices are displayed within Table 2. The Fitbit recorded statistically significantly greater steps and
- 168 fewer light minutes per day (*p* < 0.001), but there were no statistical differences when evaluating
- 169 minutes of MVPA. Whilst steps from both devices had a correlation of r = 0.93, agreement varied by a
- 170 large amount within individuals (65%).
- 171

Table 2. Comparisons between movement variables calculated via multi-level modelling.							
		Fixed effects		Random effects			
	Mean difference (AG-FB)	SE	p	r	Within individual variance (% of total)		
Steps	-1727.1	264.2	< 0.001	0.93	65%		
Light (mins)	50.48	6.8	< 0.001	0.78	34%		
MVPA (mins)	-6.83	4.17	0.110	0.67	31%		

Notes: The mean difference is interpretated a the ActiGraph minus Fitbit and the within individual variance has been calculated as a percent of the total variance. Abbreviations: SE (standard error), p (probability), r (Pearson's correlation coefficient), MVPA (moderate to vigorous physical activity).

172

173 Linear regression analyses confirmed that cardiometabolic risk markers were significantly associated with both devices (Table 3). Overall, step count was the most consistent predictor of cardiometabolic 174 175 risk factors, with negative associations with BMI, weight, body fat and waist circumference for both the Fitbit and the ActiGraph. Despite coefficients from the ActiGraph being generally stronger, the 176 177 magnitude of the logged coefficients were mostly similar between devices. Putting the coefficients into 178 context, for every 1000 increase in step count BMI could reduce by 1.7-2.0% (keeping everything else 179 constant). Associations for light activity and MVPA were more mixed as some cardiometabolic risk 180 factors were related to different intensities for the Fitbit and ActiGraph monitors. Finally, analysis of partial bivariate correlations also confirmed that behavioural associations did not differ between the 181 two devices (Supplementary Table 1). 182 183

	INPUTS							
	Steps ((1000s)	Light	(mins)	MVPA (mins)			
OUTPUTS	FB	AG	FB	AG	FB	AG		
DMI	0.017	0.020	-0.001	-0.001	-0.001	-0.002		
DIVII	(0.006)	(0.007)	(0.0004)	(0.0003)	(0.001)	(0.001)		
Weight	-0.014	-0.017	-0.001	-0.001	-0.001	-0.002		
	(0.006)	(0.006)	(0.0003)	(0.0003)	(0.001)	(0.001)		
Body fat	0.021	0.022	0.001	-0.001	0.002	-0.002		
	(0.005)	(0.006)	(0.0003)	(0.0003)	(0.001)	(0.001)		

Table 3. Estimated effects and respective standard errors (in brackets) of physical activity inp	puts on
cardiometabolic risk markers, adjusting for sex, age and ethnicity.	

<u>edd</u>	0.007	0.009	0.0001	0.0001	0.001	0.001
SDF	(0.004)	(0.005)	(0.0003)	(0.0002)	(0.001)	(0.001)
חסח	0.008	0.010	0.0002	0.0001	0.001	0.002
DDP	(0.004)	(0.004)	(0.0002)	(0.0002)	(0.001)	(0.001)
	-0.002	-0.002	-0.0001	0.000	-0.0002	-0.0001
HDATC	(0.002)	(0.002)	(0.0001)	(0.0001)	(0.0003)	(0.0003)
Grip strength	0.009	0.009	0.001	0.001	-0.001	0.001
	(0.007)	(0.008)	(0.0004)	(0.0003)	(0.001)	(0.001)
	0.012	0.014	-0.0003	-0.0004	0.002	0.002
V O2max	(0.005)	(0.006)	(0.0004)	(0.0003)	(0.001)	(0.001)
	0.013	0.015	-0.001	-0.001	-0.001	-0.002
VVC	(0.004)	(0.004)	(0.0002)	(0.0002)	(0.001)	(0.001)

Notes: The darker cell background means the effects were statistically significantly different from zero at 1% significance level. The lighter cells background corresponds to statistical significance of 5%, and the white cells are for non-statistically significant effects. Because the response variables were logged, the interpretation is on the log-scale. For example, other things being equal, an extra 1000 steps a day as measured by Fitbit is associated with an average 1.7% lower BMI. Abbreviations: MVPA (moderate to vigorous physical activity), FB (Fitbit), AG (ActiGraph), BMI (body mass index), SBP (systolic blood pressure), DBP (diastolic blood pressure), VO_{2max} (estimated maximal oxygen uptake), WC (waist circumference). Results rounded to 3 decimal places where possible.

184

185 Predictive fit, i.e., the extent to which cardiometabolic risk markers can be predicted by physical

- 186 activity as measured by devices, is displayed within Table 4. For single input models, the best
- 187 predictive root mean squared error (RMSE) ranged from 0.0639 for HbA1c (i.e., a 95% predictive
- 188 interval of \pm 6.6%) to 0.1853 (i.e., a 95% predictive interval of \pm 20%) for grip strength. No device was
- 189 found to provide a consistently better prediction across the cardiometabolic risk markers. Combining
- the inputs into one model generally resulted in a smaller RMSE with the exception of DBP, SBP and
- 191 HBA1c.
- 192

Table 4. Comparing how well each behavioural variable predicts each cardiometabolic marker (or predictive fit) in terms of mean error (ME) and root mean squared error (RMSE, in brackets below) for the models with individual Fitbit and ActiGraph inputs and all inputs simultaneously.

	Steps (1000s)	Light	Light (mins)		MVPA (mins)		All
OUTPUTS	FB	AG	FB	AG	FB	AG	FB	AG
DM	-0.001	-0.002	0.001	0.002	0.001	-0.001	0.001	0.002
BIMI	(0.175)	(0.178)	(0.173)	(0.182)	(0.186)	(0.183)	(0.169)	(0.120)
Weight	-0.0003	0.001	0.001	0.002	0.001	-0.0001	-0.002	0.003
	(0.162)	(0.161)	(0.165)	(0.170)	(0.171)	(0.165)	(0.177)	(0.074)
Dody fot	0.002	0.001	0.002	0.003	0.003	0.004	0.004	0.002
BOUY IAL	(0.152)	(0.157)	(0.166)	(0.175)	(0.169)	(0.175)	(0.165)	(0.076)
SBP	0.001	0.001	0.002	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.002	0.006
	(0.125)	(0.123)	(0.130)	(0.130)	(0.125)	(0.124)	(0.166)	(0.206)
DBP	0.001	0.002	0.002	0.001	0.001	0.002	0.007	-0.001

	(0.117)	(0.116)	(0.123)	(0.124)	(0.121)	(0.115)	(0.159)	(0.192)
	-0.001	-0.001	0.0001	0.001	-0.0004	-0.001	0.004	0.014
TDA IC	(0.066)	(0.067)	(0.064)	(0.066)	(0.067)	(0.067)	(0.146)	(0.168)
Grip	0.003	0.004	0.0001	0.0003	0.003	0.002	0.001	0.010
strength	(0.197)	(0.199)	(0.195)	(0.185)	(0.197)	(0.199)	(0.132)	(0.152)
VO _{2max}	-0.002	0.001	-0.003	-0.002	-0.002	0.0001	-0.0004	0.005
	(0.125)	(0.122)	(0.146)	(0.143)	(0.126)	(0.123)	(0.130)	(0.115)
W/O	0.002	0.001	0.002	0.003	0.002	0.002	0.005	0.005
VVC	(0.112)	(0.113)	(0.118)	(0.121)	(0.122)	(0.119)	(0.122)	(0.115)

Notes: Mean errors (MEs) closer to zero indicate less bias and smaller root mean squared errors (RMSEs) indicate higher precision of prediction. The shaded cells indicate the models with the lowest RMSE values for each output. Note, that since the response was logged, the results are to be interpreted on a logarithmic scale. Thus, for example, predictions of systolic blood pressure based on FB steps alone will on average be off by 0.09%, and 95% of them will fall within 26.6% of the true value. Abbreviations: MVPA (moderate to vigorous physical activity), FB (Fitbit), AG (ActiGraph), BMI (body mass index), SBP (systolic blood pressure), DBP (diastolic blood pressure), VO_{2max} (estimated maximal oxygen uptake), WC (waist circumference). The darker cell background highlights the best RMSE pairing for each cardiometabolic marker, for both individual and grouped input models. Results rounded to 3 decimal places where possible.

193 194

195 Analyses to understand the extent to which each behavioural variable from both devices explains the

196 specific cardiometabolic risk markers (explanatory fit) were also conducted (Supplementary Table 2).

197 This showed that whilst the number of steps as recorded by ActiGraph was the best explanatory

198 variable for the majority of cardiometabolic variables including BMI, weight, SBP, V0_{2max} and WC,

199 Fitbit models were not statistically significantly worse for those cardiometabolic risk markers (AICc <

200 3).

201 **3. Discussion**

202 This study confirms that when using step count data derived from wearable devices to predict 203 cardiometabolic risk markers, relationships are similar irrespective of whether a research grade or a 204 commercial grade device was been used. Whilst data from the waist-worn ActiGraph produced 205 stronger estimates and better explanatory fit, models predicting cardiometabolic risk markers from 206 step data were not statistically different between devices (BMI, weight, body fat %, SBP, DBP, VO_{2max} 207 and WC AICc differences < 3). These results indicate that the predictive ability of a commercial wrist-208 worn wearable device was similar, and provides a rationale for their use in scenarios that research 209 grade devices are typically used.

210

211 Our finding that body composition variables are associated with movement behaviours derived from 212 wearable devices is consistent with the existing literature (Lim et al., 2018; Rykov et al., 2020). 213 However, in contrast to the current study, Rykov et al. (2020) demonstrated that only blood based 214 markers (in their case HDL and Triglycerides) were significantly associated with variables derived 215 from steps and not body composition. There is a lack of supporting literature within this area, likely 216 due to the unpractical deployment of two devices into health screening interventions. Despite this, the 217 significant associations shown in this study point to the potential beneficial application of commercial 218 wearables within the health and wellbeing sector. Yet, the proprietary nature of how commercial 219 wearable devices calculate physical activity metrics and the variation in accelerometric signal 220 transformation into behavioural outcome variables are key concerns for using wearables within health 221 research (Troiano et al., 2020). Within this study, steps were shown to be one of the better input 222 variables for explanatory fit and although minutes of behaviour are often used to compare national guideline compliance, steps are often the most easily understood and widely used metric and could 223 224 suffer from less proprietary processing.

225

226 Population level surveillance of physical activity using wearable devices would provide an

227 understanding to the level of compliance with national guidelines but there are significant barriers for

wide scale adoption. Research grade devices are often costly and are not designed for longitudinal

229 monitoring unlike consumer developed monitors. The aim of this study was to assess if the outputs

from commercial devices are comparable to a research grade device, and we have shown that for

- some cardiometabolic variables coefficients were similar. Based on our models, for every 1000
- 232 increase in steps as measured by the Fitbit could result in an average 1.7% decrease in body mass
- 233 index or 1.4% decrease in body weight. With consumer wearable interventions on average increasing
- physical activity by 2,123 steps per day (Franssen et al., 2020), if an individual with the average BMI
- of the sample (31.82 kg/m²) did 2500 more steps per day, BMI could drop to by 1.35 kg/m² to 30.46
- 236 kg/m². Therefore, linking metrics provided by commercial wearable devices into existing healthcare
- 237 pathways such as patient medical records could provide the necessary platform for prevention-
- focused activities, and offer an opportunity for important conversations about health and wellbeing
- 239 within routine interactions with health professionals. The integration of digital health technologies

- 240 within healthcare systems is on the agenda of the UK government to support future disease
- prevention pathways (National Health Service, 2019a; Taskforce on Innovation, 2021) but significant
 concerns include representativeness, data ownership and longevity of devices (Troiano et al., 2020).
- 243

244 As only one of the few studies that have investigated the link between physical activity behaviours 245 measured by wearable devices and cardiometabolic risk markers, there is a need for more research to investigate the opportunity that wearable devices hold for healthcare. This is highlighted by 246 247 variability in the literature that suggests wearable interventions can provide between -0.4 to -4.4 kg 248 and 0.08 to -3.43 kg/m² changes in body weight and BMI, respectively (McDonough et al., 2021). 249 Greater population level data are therefore required to understand if the associations presented here under or overestimate the relationship with body composition variables, and if larger datasets can 250 251 explain associations with other important cardiometabolic risk markers.

252

253 Although this study is novel and to our knowledge the first to compare behavioural estimates from two 254 devices to the same cardiometabolic risk markers, the sample size is small which limits the 255 generalizability of the data. However, our work does offer proof of concept insights into the potential 256 use of commercial wearables as a substitute for research grade devices. The exclusion of wear time 257 from the statistical models was a limitation as it prevented us from determining if volumetric 258 discrepancies were device or wear related. This approach was taken due to a lack of standardised 259 methods for deciphering wear time and sedentary time within Fitbit devices. Additionally, the 260 sedentary time contamination prevented the use of modelling techniques that accounts for the codependence of behaviours (compositional data analyses) and should be explored in future datasets 261 262 that has dual deployment of devices. The difference in wear sites (waist and wrist) between devices 263 must also be acknowledged, which could explain some of the variation in models in intensity 264 variables. Our study also focused on a device that at the time was popular and available but now is 265 not on the commercial market due to the release of more recent models. However, this approach 266 could and should be taken with a larger dataset and with the latest emerging devices. 267

268 4. Conclusion

Regardless of whether step count data from a research grade or commercial grade device was used,
 similar associations were found for BMI, weight, body fat % and WC. Overall, these results suggest

that the predictive and explanatory ability of step count data from both devices with selected

272 cardiometabolic risk markers is similar, which may offer additional opportunities for health research

273 from commercial wearables. Further work exploring the dual deployment of both types of devices are

274 required to confirm these findings.

275 Supplementary material

- 276 Analysis of partial bivariate correlations revealed that behavioural associations did not differ between
- 277 devices as Fitbit inputs were not statistically significantly different from those for AG inputs
- 278 (Supplementary Table 1).
- 279

Supplementary Table 1. Partial correlations (after adjusting for demographic variables) between individual inputs and outputs to test the hypothesis that the differences between partial correlations for Fitbit and ActiGraph inputs are statistically significant.

			INPUTS				
	Steps (1000s)	Light	Light (mins)		MVPA (mins)	
OUTPUTS	FB	AG	FB	AG	FB	AG	
DMI	-0.40	-0.42	-0.38	-0.30	-0.19	-0.32	
Divil	(0.4	49)	(0.	38)	(0.	24)	
Weight	-0.36	-0.39	-0.31	-0.25	-0.18	-0.32	
weight	(0.37)		(0.	65)	(0.	18)	
Body fat	-0.56	-0.54	-0.42	-0.32	-0.39	-0.36	
Body lat	(0.88)		(0.31)		(0.83)		
SBP	0.26	0.28	0.07	0.05	0.26	0.27	
	(0.80)		(0.97)		(0.95)		
DBD	0.33	0.34	0.13	0.05	0.22	0.38	
DBP	(0.75)		(0.	(0.69)		(0.09)	
	-0.14	-0.10	-0.16	-0.06	-0.12	-0.07	
TIDATC	(0.77)		(0.70)		(0.86)		
Grip	0.21	0.19	0.22	0.36	0.20	0.09	
strength	(0.7	75)	(0.17)		(0.45)		
	0.36	0.41	-0.14	-0.23	0.35	0.39	
V O2max	(0.3	(0.32)		(0.56)		(0.70)	
	-0.47	-0.48	-0.36	-0.33	-0.30	-0.38	
WC	(0.6	64)	(0.	72)	(0.34)		

Notes: The bootstrapped p-values (in brackets) are for testing the hypothesis that the differences between partial correlations for Fitbit input and for ActiGraph inputs are statistically significant. Abbreviations: MVPA (moderate to vigorous physical activity), FB (Fitbit), AG (ActiGraph), BMI (body mass index), SBP (systolic blood pressure), DBP (diastolic blood pressure), VO_{2max} (estimated maximal oxygen uptake), WC (waist circumference). Results rounded to 2 decimal places.

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288	The number of steps as recorded by ActiGraph was the best explanatory variable for BMI ($R^2 = 0.42$),
289	weight ($R^2 = 0.59$), WC ($R^2=0.58$), SBP ($R^2=0.25$) and V0 _{2max} ($R^2=0.66$). For body fat, DBP, and
290	HBA1c, the best explanatory variables were the number of steps as recorded by FitBit (R^2 =0.81), the
291	MVPA as recorded by ActiGraph (R ² =0.46), and the minutes of light activity as recorded by FitBit
292	(R ² =0.10) respectively. However, none of those were statistically significantly worse than the number
293	of steps as recorded by ActiGraph (Δ AICc=1.9, Δ AICc=1.5, and Δ AICc=0.8 respectively). The only
294	cardiometabolic marker for which the model with the number of steps as recorded by ActiGraph as an
295	explanatory variable was statistically significantly worse than the best model (the minutes of light
296	activity as recorded by ActiGraph, R ² =0.75) was Grip strength (Δ AICc=4.8).

Akaike information Chieffon (AICC) and K-squared (in brackets).										
	INPUTS									
	Steps ((1000s)	Light	mins)	MVPA (mins)					
OUTPUTS	FB	AG	FB AG		FB	AG				
DM	0.9	0.0	1.3	4.6	7.1	4.0				
DIVII	(0.41)	(0.42)	(0.40)	(0.35)	(0.32)	(0.36)				
Woight	1.2	0.0	3.0	4.6	6.1	2.8				
vveight	(0.58)	(0.59)	(0.56)	(0.54)	(0.53)	(0.56)				
Dedutet	0.0	1.9	8.2	12.4	9.4	11.1				
Body lat	(0.81)	(0.81)	(0.78)	(0.75)	(0.77)	(0.76)				
<u>epp</u>	0.6	0.0	3.7	3.7	0.6	0.4				
3DP	(0.24)	(0.25)	(0.19)	(0.19)	(0.24)	(0.25)				
חפת	2.0	1.5	6.4	7.1	4.8	0.0				
DBP	(0.43)	(0.44)	(0.38)	(0.37)	(0.40)	(0.46)				
	0.3	0.8	0.0	1.1	0.5	1.0				
HDATC	(0.09)	(0.08)	(0.10)	(0.08)	(0.09)	(0.08)				
Grip	4.4	4.8	4.1	0.0	4.6	6.1				
strength	(0.73)	(0.72)	(0.73)	(0.75)	(0.73)	(0.72)				
	1.2	0.0	5.9	4.9	1.4	0.2				
VO2max	(0.64)	(0.66)	(0.59)	(0.60)	(0.64)	(0.66)				
MC	0.6	0.0	5.5	7.0	7.8	5.3				
VVC	(0.57)	(0.58)	(0.52)	(0.50)	(0.50)	(0.52)				

Supplementary Table 2. The extent to which each behavioural variable, as measured by both devices, explains specific cardiometabolic risk markers (explanatory fit) expressed via corrected Akaike Information Criterion (AICc) and R-squared (in brackets).

Notes: For the ease of comparison, for each output, the difference between the AICc for the model with each specified input and the best model for that output is shown. The best model for each output thus has a Δ AICc value of 0 (highlighted by the darker cell background). AICc allows for statistical comparison of non-nested models with the same input with the difference of at least 3 is required for statistical significance. Abbreviations: MVPA (moderate to vigorous physical activity), FB (Fitbit), AG (ActiGraph), BMI (body mass index), SBP (systolic blood pressure), DBP (diastolic blood pressure), VO_{2max} (estimated maximal oxygen uptake), WC (waist circumference). R-squared rounded to 2 decimal places.

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