



1 Article

2 **Fitness, fatness and active school commuting among**  
3 **Liverpool schoolchildren**4 \*Robert J. Noonan<sup>1,2</sup>, Lynne M. Boddy<sup>2</sup> Zoe R. Knowles<sup>2</sup>, Stuart J. Fairclough<sup>1,3</sup>5 <sup>1</sup> Department of Sport and Physical Activity, Edge Hill University, Ormskirk, UK.6 <sup>2</sup> Physical Activity Exchange, Research Institute for Sport and Exercise Sciences, Liverpool John Moores  
7 University, Liverpool, UK.8 <sup>3</sup> Department of Physical Education and Sport Sciences, University of Limerick, Limerick, Ireland.9 \* Correspondence: [Robert.Noonan@edgehill.ac.uk](mailto:Robert.Noonan@edgehill.ac.uk); Tel.: 01695 584488

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12 **Abstract:** This study investigated differences in health outcomes between active and passive school  
13 commuters, and examined associations between parent perceptions of the neighbourhood  
14 environment and active school commuting (ASC). One hundred-ninety-four children (107 girls),  
15 aged 9-10 y from ten primary schools in Liverpool, England, participated in this cross-sectional  
16 study. Measures of stature, body mass, waist circumference and cardiorespiratory fitness (CRF)  
17 were taken. School commute mode (active/passive) was self-reported and parents completed the  
18 neighborhood environment walkability scale for youth. Fifty-three percent of children commuted  
19 to school actively. Schoolchildren who lived in more-deprived neighbourhoods that were perceived  
20 by parents as being highly connected, un-aesthetic and having mixed land-use were more likely to  
21 commute to school actively ( $p<0.05$ ). These children were at greatest risk of being obese and  
22 aerobically unfit ( $p<0.01$ ). Our results suggest that deprivation may explain the counterintuitive  
23 relationship between obesity, CRF and ASC in Liverpool schoolchildren. These findings encourage  
24 researchers and policy makers to be equally mindful of the social determinants of health when  
25 advocating behavioural and environmental health interventions. Further research exploring  
26 contextual factors to ASC, and examining the concurrent effect of ASC and diet on weight status by  
27 deprivation is needed.

28 **Keywords:** Child, active commuting, physical activity, fitness, weight, obesity, neighbourhood,  
29 deprivation, poverty, obesogenic.

31 **1. Introduction**

32 Childhood obesity and poor health are most prevalent in areas of high deprivation [1-3]. Physical  
33 activity (PA) improves child health, including weight status [4,5] and cardiorespiratory fitness  
34 (CRF)[6]. Active school commuting (ASC) is recognised as an important component of PA and is  
35 associated with higher daily PA [7,8]. In England, ASC prevalence among schoolchildren has  
36 progressively declined since 1995 [9], but remains consistently highest among schoolchildren from  
37 deprived backgrounds [10-12].

38 In recent years, there has been an increasing focus by the UK government to promote and  
39 increase ASC among schoolchildren with a view to curbing rising obesity levels [13]. However,  
40 evidence to support the positive contribution of ASC to children's weight status is inconsistent  
41 [14,15]. For example, Voss & Sandercock [16] found no association between ASC and weight status  
42 whereas other studies have reported a weak inverse [17,18] and positive association [19]. The effect  
43 of ASC on other components of physical health such as CRF are also inconsistent [20,21]. Studies that  
44 have reported a positive association have been conducted outside of the UK in countries that  
45 experience greater cycling prevalence during ASC. Cycling is a stronger predictor of CRF in

46 comparison to walking which is the most common form of ASC among UK children [16,22,23].  
47 Therefore, further research is needed to explore the contribution of ASC to UK schoolchildren's  
48 health.

49 ASC is influenced by multiple environmental factors. Household distance to school is  
50 considered the strongest influence with shorter distances associated with higher levels of ASC [24-  
51 26]. However, parents' assessment of environmental attributes related to safety are also known to  
52 play an important role in determining whether children commute actively to school [27,28].  
53 Neighbourhoods perceived by parents as having well connected streets, good land-use mix and  
54 residential density have been linked with higher ASC [29,30]. However, these reported associations  
55 are based on data from the USA [27,30] and Australia [31] which limits generalisation to UK children.  
56 To promote and support ASC among UK schoolchildren it is important to understand which  
57 environmental attributes support and restrict ASC. The Neighborhood Environment Walkability  
58 Scale-Youth (NEWS-Y) developed by Rosenberg et al. [32] provides an empirically derived measure  
59 of various built environmental attributes that may influence ASC. The NEWS-Y has been used to  
60 investigate associations between parental perceptions of the neighbourhood environment and child  
61 PA [33,34] but not ASC. Therefore, the aims of this study were to 1) investigate differences in health  
62 outcomes between active and passive school commuters, and 2) examine associations between parent  
63 perceptions of the neighbourhood environment and ASC.

## 64 2. Materials and Methods

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### 66 2.1. Participants

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68 Study participants were 9-10-year-old schoolchildren recruited from ten primary schools in  
69 Liverpool, England. Liverpool is ranked the most deprived English City [35] and obesity rates among  
70 children aged 10–11 years exceed the national average (23.0% vs 18.9%; [36]). All eligible participants  
71 ( $n = 326$ ) in participating schools received a participant recruitment pack containing parent and child  
72 information sheets, consent and assent forms, and a medical screening form. Written informed  
73 consent and assent were received from parents and their children, respectively, before children could  
74 participate in the study. Completed informed parental consent and child assent were obtained for  
75 217 children (39.5% response rate). Liverpool John Moores University Ethics Committee approved  
76 the study (13/SPS/048) and data collection took place between January and April 2014.

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### 78 2.2. Measures

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#### 80 2.2.1. Anthropometrics

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82 Stature and sitting stature were measured to the nearest 0.1 cm using a portable stadiometer  
83 (Leicester Height Measure, Seca, Birmingham, UK). Leg length was calculated by subtracting sitting  
84 stature from stature. Body mass was measured to the nearest 0.1 kg using calibrated scales (Seca,  
85 Birmingham, UK). Body mass index (BMI) was calculated from stature and body mass as a proxy  
86 measure of body composition ( $\text{kg}/\text{m}^2$ ) and BMI z-scores were assigned to each child [37]. Age and  
87 sex-specific BMI cut-points were used to classify children as normal weight or overweight/obese [38].  
88 Waist circumference was measured at the midpoint between the bottom rib and the iliac crest to the  
89 nearest 0.1 cm using a non-elastic measuring tape (Seca, Birmingham, UK). Gender-specific  
90 regression equations were used to predict children's age from peak height velocity [39]. This  
91 calculation was used as a proxy measure of biological maturation.

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#### 93 2.2.2. Cardiorespiratory fitness

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95 CRF was assessed using the Sports Coach UK 20 m multistage shuttle run test (20mSRT; [40]).  
96 Children completed 20m shuttle runs keeping in time with an audible 'bleep' signal. The time

97 between bleeps progressively decreases, increasing the intensity of the test. Children were  
98 encouraged to run to exhaustion, and the number of completed shuttles was recorded for each  
99 participant and retained for analysis. Age and sex specific cut-points were used to classify children  
100 as 'fit' or 'unfit' [41].

101

#### 102 2.2.3. School commute data

103

104 School commute mode was child reported. Responses included (walk, cycle, scooter, bus, car,  
105 train, taxi, other). Responses were dichotomised into (0 reference category) active transport and (1)  
106 passive transport. Household distance to school was objectively measured using Google maps online  
107 route planner <https://www.google.co.uk/maps>. The shortest route from school addresses to parent  
108 reported home addresses was used [42].

109

#### 110 2.2.4. Neighbourhood environment

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112 Parental perceptions of neighbourhood attributes were assessed using the Neighbourhood  
113 Environment Walkability Scale for Youth (NEWS-Y). The NEWS-Y is a 67-item scale, organised into  
114 nine subscales representing land-use mix-diversity, neighbourhood recreation facilities, residential  
115 density, land-use mix-access, street connectivity, walking/cycling facilities, neighbourhood  
116 aesthetics, pedestrian and road traffic safety, and crime safety. The NEWS-Y has demonstrated  
117 acceptable to good test-retest reliability (ICC=0.56–0.87; [32]) and has been used previously in child  
118 PA research [33,34]. Items are averaged and higher scores denote higher walkability. Higher  
119 neighbourhood scores indicate a more walkable environment for all items except pedestrian and road  
120 traffic safety, and crime safety items, where higher scores indicate lower walkability [32]. An overall  
121 NEWS-Y score was calculated from the sum of z-scores for each of the nine subscales.

122

#### 123 2.2.5. Deprivation

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125 Area level deprivation was calculated using the 2015 Indices of Multiple Deprivation (IMD; [35]).  
126 The IMD is a UK Government produced measure comprising seven areas of deprivation (income,  
127 employment, health, education, housing, environment, and crime). Parent reported home postcodes  
128 were imported into the GeoConvert application [43] to generate deprivation scores. Higher  
129 deprivation was represented by lower deprivation scores. Sixty-eight percent of the study sample  
130 were above the IMD cut-off value (26.83) for the most nationally deprived tertile for England. We  
131 calculated a 50th centile IMD score of 35.63 for the sample, and created one IMD median-split  
132 categorical variable to provide two groups representative of children living in areas of high-  
133 deprivation (HD; median IMD score 49.76) and high-to-medium deprivation (MD; median IMD score  
134 22.86; [34]).

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### 136 2.3. Analysis

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138 Participant characteristics were analysed descriptively. Independent samples t-tests and  $\chi^2$   
139 compared descriptive data between genders. For study aim 1, multivariate analysis of covariance  
140 (MANCOVA) assessed differences in health outcomes by school commute mode (active vs passive)  
141 adjusted for gender, APHV, and school commute distance.  $\chi^2$  with odds ratios (OR) as a measure of  
142 effect examined school commute mode group differences in weight status, aerobic fitness,  
143 deprivation and school commute distance. The same analyses were repeated to examine deprivation  
144 group differences in weight status, aerobic fitness, school commute mode and school commute  
145 distance. For study aim 2, multivariate logistic regression analyses assessed associations between  
146 parent perceptions of the neighbourhood environment and ASC controlling for school commute  
147 distance and IMD. Statistical significance was set to  $p \leq 0.05$ . All analyses were conducted using IBM  
148 SPSS Statistics version 23 (IBM, Armonk, NY).

149 **3. Results**

150 Of the 217 children who returned written parental informed consent and participant assent, 6  
 151 participants were not present on the day of testing, and a further 17 children had incomplete data.  
 152 Thus, data were available from 194 children (107 girls) (35.3% response rate). Participant  
 153 characteristics are presented in Table 1. Preliminary analyses revealed no significant differences  
 154 between included and excluded participants. Boys were taller ( $p<0.05$ ) and aerobically fitter than girls  
 155 ( $p<0.01$ ) who were closer to maturation than boys ( $p<0.001$ ). More children commuted to school  
 156 actively (52.6%) than passively (47.4%). Walking was the most common mode of commuting to school  
 157 (47.4%), followed by car (44.8%), cycle (4.1%), bus (2.1%), scooter (1.0%), and other (0.5%). Active  
 158 school commuters had significantly higher BMI ( $p=0.02$ ), BMI z-score ( $p=0.05$ ) and waist  
 159 circumference ( $p=0.01$ ) than passive school commuters (Table 2). Differences were also observed for  
 160 CRF but these did not reach statistical significance ( $p>0.05$ ). Children that lived closer to school had  
 161 higher BMI, BMI z-scores and waist circumference but these did not reach statistical significance  
 162 ( $p>0.05$ ).

163 **Table 1.** Participant characteristics (mean  $\pm$  SD).

Variable	All (n=194)	Boys (n=87)	Girls (n=107)
Age	9.96 (0.30)	9.97 (0.30)	9.95 (0.30)
Stature (cm)	139.12 (7.30)	140.42 (6.99)	138.06 (7.41)*
Mass (kg)	35.01 (8.44)	35.68 (7.68)	34.45 (9.01)
BMI (kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	17.92 (3.20)	17.96 (2.90)	17.89 (3.43)
Weight status (%)			
Normal weight	75.30	79.30	72.00
Overweight/obese	24.70	20.60	28.00
BMI z-score	0.32 (1.25)	0.51 (1.16)	0.16 (1.30)
Waist circumference	63.84 (7.72)	64.57 (7.97)	63.24 (7.50)
APHV	-2.64 (0.93)	-3.49 (0.45)	-1.94 (0.57)***
CRF (shuttles)	38.18 (19.37)	48.37 (20.05)	29.90 (14.22)***
Aerobically fit (%)	67.00	77.00	58.90**
Commute distance (km)	1.68 (1.77)	1.60 (1.53)	1.74 (1.95)
School commute mode (%)			
Active	52.60	52.90	52.30
Passive	47.40	47.10	47.70
IMD score	36.80 (18.20)	36.87 (19.62)	36.73 (17.05)
NEWS-Y	0.03 (3.16)	0.05 (3.19)	0.02 (3.15)

164 APHV, age from peak height velocity; BMI, body mass index; CRF, cardiorespiratory fitness; NEWS-Y,  
 165 neighbourhood environment walkability scale – youth; IMD, indices of multiple deprivation. Significant gender  
 166 difference at \* $p<0.05$ ; \*\* $p<0.01$ ; \*\*\* $p<0.001$ .

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171 **Table 2.** MANCOVA analyses of health-related variables by school commute mode group, adjusted  
 172 for gender, APHV and school commute distance.

Variable	Active mean (95%	Passive mean (95%	p value
	CI) (n=102)	CI) (n=92)	
BMI	18.33 (17.79-18.87)	17.32 (16.75-17.89)	0.02
BMI z-score	0.45 (0.23-0.67)	0.12 (-0.11-0.36)	0.05
Waist circumference	64.84 (63.57-66.11)	62.29 (60.95-63.64)	0.01
CRF	37.98 (34.37-41.60)	38.99 (35.16-42.84)	0.72

173 MANCOVA, multivariate analysis of covariance; BMI, body mass index; CI, confidence interval;  
 174 CRF, cardiorespiratory fitness

175  
 176 Table 3 presents OR for deprivation, CRF, and weight status by school commute mode. Children  
 177 who used passive transport were more likely to be classified as healthy weight (OR=2.17, 95%  
 178 CI=1.10-4.30), aerobically fit (OR=2.23, 95% CI=1.20-4.14), and live further away from school (>0.5km,  
 179 OR=38.14, 95% CI=5.08-286.62; >1.0km, OR=11.61, 95% CI=5.83-23.10), compared with children who  
 180 commuted actively.

181 **Table 3.** OR (95% CI) for likelihood of being classified as healthy weight, aerobically fit, and living  
 182 within 1km from school by school commute mode.

Variable	Active mean (95%	Passive mean (95%	p value
	CI) (n=102)	CI) (n=92)	
Healthy weight	47.9%	52.1%	0.02
	2.17 (1.10-4.30)		
Aerobically fit	46.2%	53.8%	0.01
	2.23 (1.20-4.14)		
Commute distance			
<0.5 km	30.0%	1.1%	<0.001
	38.14 (5.08-286.62)		
<1.0 km	73%	18.9%	<0.001
	11.61 (5.83-23.10)		

183  
 184 Table 4 presents OR for school commute mode, CRF, weight status and distance from school by  
 185 deprivation group. Compared with children who lived in areas of HD, MD children were more likely  
 186 to commute to school passively (OR=2.41, 95% CI=1.35-4.30), live further away from school (<0.5km,  
 187 OR=2.95, 95% CI=1.28-6.82; <1.0km, OR=2.06, 95% CI=1.16-3.68), be classified as healthy weight  
 188 (OR=2.74, 95% CI=1.37-5.48), and aerobically fit (OR=2.52, 95% CI=1.35-4.70).

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195**Table 4.** OR (95% CI) for likelihood of being classified as healthy weight, aerobically fit, an active commuter and living with 1km from school by deprivation group.

Variable	MD mean (95% CI) or % (n=96)	HD mean (95% CI) or % (n=98)	p value
Healthy weight	84.4%	66.3%	
		2.74 (1.37 – 5.48)	<0.01
Aerobically fit	77.1%	57.1%	
		2.52 (1.35 - 4.70)	<0.01
Commute distance			
<0.5 km	9.4%	23.4%	
		2.95 (1.28 - 6.82)	0.01
<1.0 km	38.5%	56.4%	
		2.06 (1.16 - 3.68)	0.01
Active commute	36.7%	63.3%	
		2.41 (1.35 - 4.30)	<0.01

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ASC was positively associated with street connectivity (B=0.62, OR=1.66, 95% CI=1.16-2.96) and land-use mix diversity (B=0.55, OR=1.86, 95% CI=1.01-2.73), and was inversely associated with neighbourhood aesthetics (B=-0.44, OR=0.65 95% CI=0.44-0.95; Table 5).

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**Table 5.** Associations between neighbourhood environment attributes and ASC.

Variable	B	SE	ORa (95% CI)	p value
Land-use mix-diversity	0.62	0.24	1.86 (1.16 - 2.96)	0.01
Constant	-1.80	0.73	0.17	0.01
Street connectivity	0.50	0.26	1.66 (1.01 - 2.73)	0.04
Constant	-1.45	0.76	0.23	0.06
Neighbourhood aesthetics	-0.44	0.19	0.65 (0.44 - 0.95)	0.02
Constant	1.13	0.51	3.09	0.03

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B, unstandardised  $\beta$  coefficient; SE, standard error; OR, odds ratio; OR=exp ( $\beta$ ). a Adjusted for IMD and school commute distance. Only variables that showed a statistically significant association with ASC are presented.

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#### 4. Discussion

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This study examined the association between ASC, BMI and CRF in Liverpool schoolchildren. Counter to what might be assumed, we found that ASC was associated with higher BMI and lower CRF. The most recent systematic review in this area found that only 35.9% of included studies observed more favourable weight status among active school commuters relative to passive school commuters [14]. Fewer studies have reported an inverse relationship between ASC and child weight status [17,18]. There are several potential reasons for the inverse relationship found in this study.

Firstly, as observed here, children that commute to school actively tend to be from deprived backgrounds [17,44,45], and deprived children are more likely to live in an *obesogenic* environment that encourages the consumption of unhealthy food and/or discourages physical activity, placing them at greater risk of obesity compared to affluent children [46-49]. The IMD captures a range of deprivation markers including the neighbourhood environment [35]. In Liverpool, HD neighbourhoods could be considered *obesogenic*, as they are less walkable and have less access to self-contained gardens/yards compared to MD neighbourhoods [34]. Moreover, HD children are more likely to experience an unbalanced diet at home [50], and be exposed to fast food and takeaway

218 outlets along the home-school commute route [51,52]. Both of which are strong predictors of fatness  
219 [53,54]. To improve child health and foster more equitable neighbourhoods requires an appreciation  
220 of the social determinants of health, and a structural approach to health promotion, through  
221 modifications to the physical, social, political, and economic environment in which children and  
222 families make health-related decisions [55,56]. Such changes may include but are not limited to  
223 improved infrastructure (e.g., sidewalks, bike lanes, and green spaces) and policy implementations  
224 (i.e., restrictions on fast food outlets and food marketing, and greater accessibility to affordable,  
225 healthy foods).

226 This study found an inverse association between ASC and CRF after deprivation was accounted  
227 for. Some previous studies have reported contrasting findings to those reported here [15,21,57].  
228 However, these studies comprised a higher proportion of cyclists and observed higher CRF among  
229 cyclists compared to walkers and passive commuters [15,57]. In the present study, only 4.1% of  
230 children reported cycling to school. The average trip distance for cyclists is often greater than that of  
231 walkers and tends to be a more vigorous intensity activity [58]. It is well established that high  
232 intensity PA ( $\geq 6$  METs) is necessary to improve children's CRF [59]. Walking is often performed at a  
233 moderate or light intensity, and thus, is unlikely to place the cardiorespiratory system under the  
234 necessary strain to confer positive adaptations to CRF. Presently, there is limited evidence for the  
235 association between walking to school and CRF among schoolchildren. Our findings add to the  
236 developing body of evidence.

237 Children that commuted actively to school lived closer to school than passive commuters. School  
238 to home commute distance is the strongest predictor of ASC [24,25]. D'Haese et al. [24] found that  
239 the criterion distance for walking to school in Belgium schoolchildren was 1.5km. Chillón and  
240 colleagues [60] found that a distance of 1.4km best discriminated walkers from passive commuters in  
241 a UK study involving 10-year-old schoolchildren. School choice can significantly reduce  
242 opportunities for ASC and thus impact on strategies to promote ASC. Schoolchildren live further  
243 from school than ever before. Presently, less than half of all English schoolchildren attend their  
244 nearest school [9]. Current educational policies in the UK are counterintuitive to public health goals  
245 of increasing child PA, especially ASC, for example, permitting schools to enrol schoolchildren from  
246 wide catchment areas thus creating long commuting distances. In such contexts, efforts to promote  
247 widespread adoption of ASC may be unrealistic. The uptake and maintenance of ASC is likely to be  
248 dependent on Government policies aligning with public health priorities, as well as community and  
249 societal level influences to create safe and feasible commuting routes.

250 This study found that after adjusting for area deprivation and distance to school,  
251 neighbourhoods perceived by parents as having well-connected streets, mixed land-use, and  
252 unpleasant aesthetic features were associated with a higher likelihood of ASC. In contrast to previous  
253 research [61,62], we observed an inverse association between neighbourhood aesthetics and ASC.  
254 Our study is the first to investigate the association between ASC and parents' perceptions of various  
255 neighbourhood attributes in UK schoolchildren. Previous studies were undertaken outside of the UK,  
256 did not adjust for distance to school [61], and were based on ASC among adolescent girls [62]. It is  
257 plausible to suggest that favourable neighbourhood aesthetics (e.g., well maintained sidewalks, green  
258 spaces, low volumes of street litter and graffiti) may improve children's satisfaction of walking to  
259 school. However, many children in this study lived close to school and in neighbourhoods classified  
260 as high deprivation. Whilst we cannot be certain that these children were from deprived  
261 backgrounds, deprivation is inversely associated with car access [63,64], and thus may result in these  
262 children having no other option but to commute to school actively.

263 In agreement with previous research [65], we found that neighbourhoods perceived by parents  
264 as having a well-connected street network with numerous intersections/crossings were positively  
265 associated with ASC. These neighbourhood features result in shorter and more direct commute  
266 routes to school, which is a well-established predictor of ASC [24,26]. Moreover, routes to school that  
267 are more direct and well-connected and made up of minor rather than major roads are likely to be  
268 perceived by parents as safer and thus more conducive to ASC given that they experience less  
269 motorised traffic and are subject to lower speed limits [29,66]. The introduction of traffic calming

270 measures within school catchment areas such as pedestrianization and street crossings would  
271 provide a more conducive environment for children's ASC and should be considered by future urban  
272 planners. Land-use mix diversity was also positively associated with ASC. A potential reason for this  
273 finding may be that neighbourhoods with diverse land uses experience more people walking around  
274 the neighbourhood and are thus more likely to be perceived by parents as safer [67]. Kerr et al. [61]  
275 and Larsen et al. [68] both found a positive relationship between land use mix and ASC whereas  
276 Ewing et al. [69] reported contrasting findings. Further research is warranted to better understand  
277 how mixed land uses influences ASC.

278 Consistent with prior UK research, we found that children from highly deprived  
279 neighbourhoods are most likely to commute to school actively [10-12]. One reason for this is that  
280 children from deprived neighbourhoods are less likely to live in a family that owns a car [63,64].  
281 Deprived children therefore commute to school actively in most part by necessity rather than choice.  
282 The distinction though between necessity and choice with regards to ASC is seldom explored in the  
283 literature. Of particular interest is the potential psychological strain placed on children and in the  
284 case of younger children, their parents, through relying on such forms of transport in often-  
285 unpleasant environments [70,71]. This could impact negatively on children's motivation to  
286 participate in PA, especially walking for leisure in both the short and long-term. Further qualitative  
287 research is warranted to explore children's perceptions of ASC, including the benefits and challenges  
288 they experience.

289 Importantly, it is not our intention to suggest that ASC is detrimental for Liverpool  
290 schoolchildren's health. rather, Liverpool schoolchildren with poorer health because they are  
291 deprived are more likely to commute actively to school, for reasons that warrant further  
292 investigation. Rather than advocating for those that participate [deprived children] to actively  
293 commute more to improve their weight status, we suggest that the challenge remains to identify ways  
294 to reduce deprivation, and increase ASC prevalence among the non-participants, especially those that  
295 live in close proximity to school. A recent UK study [72] that explored the habitual PA behaviours of  
296 a nuclear and single parent family, found that the nuclear family used the family car for short  
297 commute distances including the home to school commute (1.1 km). Future studies should consider  
298 recruiting such passive commuters that reside close to home to understand their decision making to  
299 not commuting actively.

300 This is the first study to explore the influence of neighbourhood attributes on schoolchildren's  
301 ASC using the NEWS-Y survey. Several limitations are though, worthy of consideration. Our study  
302 used cross-sectional data which limits inference of causality. When compared with the national  
303 average, children in this study lived in more deprived areas and had higher BMI. Therefore,  
304 generalising our findings to more affluent and rural areas of the UK should be done with caution.  
305 The NEWS-Y survey is a valid and reliable measure of neighbourhood attributes [32] but may be  
306 open to bias from respondents. The IMD is a well-established measure of deprivation that reflects a  
307 range of deprivation markers, but may not have accurately reflected the actual deprivation level of  
308 all participating schoolchildren. We did not assess sedentary time or energy intake, which both  
309 contribute to energy balance. Moreover, the relatively small sample size and low participant response  
310 rate may have biased results with active children more likely to have taken part in the study.  
311 Furthermore, we did not explore questions of context, which limits discussion on children's reasons  
312 for commuting actively or passively to school. Although commute distance was measured  
313 objectively, this may not accurately reflect *actual* commute distance taken for all children. Another  
314 limitation is the fact that some children can be driven to school in the morning but commute actively  
315 in the afternoon. However, we did not distinguish between active, passive or 'mixed transport'  
316 commuters. Despite these limitations, the findings reported here are consistent with larger-scale  
317 studies [17,18].

## 318 5. Conclusions

319 In this study, schoolchildren who lived in more-deprived neighbourhoods that were perceived  
320 by parents as being highly connected, un-aesthetic and having mixed land-use were more likely to



321 commute to school actively. These children were at greatest risk of being obese and aerobically unfit.  
322 Our findings suggest that deprivation may explain the counterintuitive relationship between obesity,  
323 CRF and ASC in Liverpool schoolchildren. These findings encourage researchers and policy makers  
324 to be mindful of the social determinants of health when planning and advocating behavioural and  
325 environmental health interventions. Further research exploring contextual factors to ASC, and  
326 examining the concurrent effect of ASC and diet on weight status by deprivation is needed. To  
327 improve child health and alleviate deprivation requires a systems approach to health promotion and  
328 actions on inequalities in wider social determinants operating outside the health system.

329 **Supplementary Materials:** No additional data are available.

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332 **Author Contributions:** RJN was responsible for the design of the study, data collection, analyses and drafted  
333 the manuscript. LMB, ZRK and SJF contributed to the design of the study and editing the manuscript. All authors  
334 read and approved the final manuscript.

335 **Conflicts of Interest:** The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest

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