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1 Article

2 **Fitness, fatness and active school commuting among** 3 **Liverpool schoolchildren**

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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

65

66 2.1. Participants

67

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.

77

78 2.2. Measures

79

80 2.2.1. Anthropometrics

81

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 (kg/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.

92

93 2.2.2. Cardiorespiratory fitness

94

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

111

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

124

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]).

135

136 2.3. Analysis

137

138 Participant characteristics were analysed descriptively. Independent samples t-tests and χ^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. χ^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 ²) | 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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170

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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194
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).

200

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 |

201

202

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

203

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 (≥ 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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