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Comparison of Indirect Calorimetry- and Accelerometry-Based Energy Expenditure During Children's Discrete Skill Performance

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ABSTRACT

Purpose: To compare children's energy expenditure (EE) levels during object projection skill performance (OPSP; e.g., kicking, throwing, striking) as assessed by hip- and wrist-worn accelerometers. **Method:** Forty-two children (female $n = 20$, $M_{age} = 8.1 \pm 0.8$ years) performed three, nine-minute sessions of kicking, over-arm throwing, and striking at performance intervals of 6, 12, and 30 seconds. EE was estimated using indirect calorimetry (COSMED k4b2) and accelerometers (ActiGraph GT3X+) worn on three different locations (hip, dominant-wrist, and non-dominant-wrist) using four commonly used cut-points. Bland-Altman plots were used to analyze the agreement in EE estimations between accelerometry and indirect calorimetry (METS). Chi-square goodness of fit tests were used to examine the agreement between accelerometry and indirect calorimetry. **Results:** Hip- and wrist-worn accelerometers underestimated EE, compared to indirect calorimetry, during all performance conditions. Skill practice at a rate of two trials per minute resulted in the equivalent of moderate PA and five trials per minute resulted in vigorous PA (as measured by indirect calorimetry), yet was only categorized as light and/or moderate activity by all measured forms of accelerometry. **Conclusion:** This is one of the first studies to evaluate the ability of hip- and wrist-worn accelerometers to predict PA intensity levels during OPSP in children. These data may significantly impact PA intervention measurement strategies by revealing the lack of validity in accelerometers to accurately predict PA levels during OPSP in children.

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Only 26% of U.S. children ages 6–15 years accumulate the recommended minimum of 60 minutes of moderate-to-vigorous physical activity (MVPA) every day (Katzmarzyk et al., 2016), which is needed to reduce chronic disease risk and obesity (Committee., 2018). Furthermore, updated recommendations from the Physical Activity Guidelines Advisory Committee (2018) emphasize the need to a) increase our understanding of dose-response relationships between physical activity (PA) and multiple health outcomes throughout the life-span, and b) to develop instrumentation and measurement that will enhance physical activity surveillance systems. Physical activities that have been promoted for the achievement of recommended levels of physical activity (e.g., sports, games, leisure activities) include movements that are both continuous (e.g., brisk walking, jogging, or running) and discrete (e.g., kicking, throwing, or striking) in various forms (Committee., 2018). The wide range of movement types impose significant methodological and logistical challenges to PA assessment in children where PA can take many forms and occur in environments with various movement constraints (Butte et al., 2017; Kim, Beets, & Welk, 2012; Ridley, Ainsworth, & Olds, 2008). As a result, many forms of PA measurement (e.g., self-report, systematic observation, accelerometry) have been developed to address the need to evaluate both small and large groups of children in a cost-conscious manner without disrupting the natural environment of play. However, limitations exist for all current forms of PA

measurement. For example, self-report assessments are limited in their accuracy due to the validity of parental recall of their child's PA behavior (Machado-Rodrigues et al., 2011) and self-assessments questionnaires are not recommended for distribution to children due to the child's lack of cognitive ability to accurately recall their PA behavior (Kohl, Fulton, & Caspersen, 2000). Difficulties in the use of systematic observation include the requirement of large amounts of researcher time to measure PA (McKenzie et al., 1991) and results may be altered due to interactions between observers and children (Bailey et al., 1995). However, objective technology driven assessments such as accelerometers and pedometers also have limitations. Two current limitations include a) activity levels are dependent upon the selection of cut-points developed from studies that mainly involved continuous locomotion movements or activities heavily impacted by locomotor activity and b) the choice of wear location (e.g., hip, wrist) on the participant (Crouter, Flynn, & Bassett, 2015; Kim et al., 2012; Sacko, Brazendale, et al., 2018). Universal agreement among researchers regarding cut-points and the optimal wear location for cut-points does not exist (Kim et al., 2012). Therefore, it is critical to obtain precise estimates of energy expenditure (EE) of children during all forms of PA in order to advance technology driven assessment of PA.

Recently, Sacko, Brazendale, et al. (2018) demonstrated hip-worn accelerometry dramatically underestimates energy expenditure (EE) during the repetitive performance of object projection skills at different trial intervals in adults. Sacko et al. (2019) established that EE associated with the practice of object projection skills in children (ranging from 4.5 to 8.3 METS depending on interval condition) was equivalent to moderate and/or vigorous PA (Sacko, Brazendale, et al., 2018; Sacko et al., 2019). Thus, examining the predictive utility of accelerometry for repetitive object projection skills in children is warranted; however, algorithms and wear locations for children differ and are far more numerous than those available for adults (Brazendale et al., 2016).

Accelerometer cut-points are developed in calibration studies. In calibration studies, participants are instructed to wear accelerometers placed on specified locations on the body (e.g., hip, wrist) while executing various forms of PA. The participant would also wear a standardized device (i.e., criterion measure) used to determine energy expenditure (e.g., indirect calorimetry) (Kim et al., 2012). Algorithms are then applied to raw accelerometer "counts" (output unit of accelerometers) and the energy expenditure measured by the standardized device to transform accelerometer data into METS (metabolic equivalence of task) (Lyden, Kozey, Staudenmeyer, & Freedson, 2011). Accelerometers worn on the hip mainly capture movement associated with the movement of an individual's center of mass, while accelerometers worn on the wrist are associated more closely with arm movement independent from the hip or lower extremity (Evenson, Catellier, Gill, Ondrak, & McMurray, 2008; Freedson, Melanson, & Sirard, 1998; Freedson, Pober, & Janz, 2005; Trost, McIver, & Pate, 2005). The two most commonly used hip-worn accelerometer cut-points, which are derived from indirect calorimetry-assessed METS for children were developed by Evenson et al. (2008) and Freedson et al. (2005). Specifically, these cut points were based on the linear relationship between vertical accelerations of the body and EE (assessed by indirect calorimetry) during locomotion (Evenson et al., 2008; Freedson et al., 2005). Monitoring activity with accelerometers worn on the wrist has been suggested to increase accelerometer PA observation validity in children (Evenson et al., 2008; Freedson et al., 2005) due to a stronger association between wrist and upper body movement (Chandler, Brazendale, Beets, & Mealing, 2016). Researchers also have attempted to develop regression techniques that could be used to unify accelerometer cut-point equations in an attempt to address inaccuracies that exist, due to in part the intermittent performance nature of discrete skill performance and differences in movement counts that are tallied when accelerometers are placed on different anatomical positions (i.e., dominant or non-dominant wrists) (Crouter, Clowers, & Bassett, 2006; Crouter et al., 2015). Regression models predict movement intensity levels by expressing average counts during a period of time (i.e., 5, 15, or 60 seconds) (Freedson et al., 2005; Pate, Almeida, McIver, Pfeiffer, & Dowda, 2006; Trost et al., 2005), in categorical form (i.e., sedentary, light, moderate, vigorous), or by translating counts into a universal unit such as METS. Activities that require at least 4 METS are classified as moderate intensity activity in

children, while > 7 METS are classified as vigorous (Butte et al., 2017).

Over the past decade, there has been a movement away from hip-worn, to wrist-worn (dominant and non-dominant) accelerometry in PA assessment studies (Chandler et al., 2016; Crouter et al., 2006; Crouter et al., 2015). This change was brought about, in part, due to the lack of validity of hip worn accelerometry to adequately classify PA during seated or non-locomotor activities, such as video games, where wrist movement upper extremity movements may be more likely than hip movement during activities (Kim, Lee, Peters, Gaesser, & Welk, 2014). Advantages to the wrist location also include increased wear time compliance (van Hees et al., 2011) and the ability to assess movement during activities where hip movement may be limited in low-skilled individuals (e.g., kicking, throwing, striking) (Sacko, Brazendale, et al., 2018). Accelerometer cut-points and regression equations were recently established in children using accelerometer placement on the dominant wrist (Crouter et al., 2006; Crouter et al., 2015). A concern with using an accelerometer on the dominant hand is the possibility of an overestimation of PA, during sedentary activities, such as drawing, coloring, and video games. In response to this assumption, Chandler et al. (2016) published cut points for accelerometers worn on the non-dominant wrist. While numerous accelerometer calibration studies have been published to provide “cut-points” for the estimation of PA levels (e.g., sedentary, light, moderate, vigorous) during activities such as walking running or activities of daily living (Troiano, 2006), accurately quantifying PA intensities during discrete skill performance (e.g. kicking, throwing, and striking) remains a challenge to researchers and clinicians (Butte et al., 2017; Kim et al., 2012; Sacko, McIver, Brian, & Stodden, 2018).

Object projection skill performance and children’s physical activity

Discrete movement skills, specifically object projection skill performance (OPSP), involve complex multi-joint movements that demand high neuromuscular involvement (Escamilla & Andrews, 2009; Gabbard, 2011; Laukkanen, Pesola, Havu, Sääkslahti, & Finni, 2014). Effortful movements that include multiple segments of the body, such as kicking, throwing or striking a ball, activate large muscle groups and are generally produced with high effort in many games and sports. The inherent complexity of coordination and control of OPSP skills requires repetitive practice and a large number of trials to develop a high level of performance. Promoting high effort levels also is a prerequisite to developing advanced levels of OPSP as the emergence of more advanced coordination patterns inherently includes the exploitation of neuromuscular mechanisms that necessitate high effort eccentric/concentric muscular contractions (Cattuzzo et al., 2016; Croix & Korff, 2013; Girard, Micallef, & Millet, 2005; Langendorfer, Robertson, & Stodden, 2011; Stodden, True, Langendorfer, & Gao, 2013) that produce high ground reaction forces and power (MacWilliams, Choi, Perezous, Chao, & McFarland, 1998; Orloff et al., 2008).

Object projection skills (e.g., kicking, throwing, and striking), are an integral part of many games, sports and physical activities recommended for the accumulation of suggested levels of MVPA per week (Committee., 2018). Specifically, MET levels associated with OPSP performance have recently been calculated to be between 4.5 and 8.3 METS, during varying rates of performance trials in children (Sacko, McIver, et al., 2018). However, due to periods of relative inactivity that occur between high effort activity trial repetitions, it may be possible that commonly used hip- and wrist-worn accelerometer cut-points underestimate EE levels associated with OPSP (Chandler et al., 2016; Crouter et al., 2015; Sacko, Brazendale, et al., 2018; Trost et al., 2005). Thus, an important step in increasing our understanding of dose-response relationships of various activities to children’s overall PA levels is to determine the accuracy of established cut-points for children’s accelerometry. The purpose of this study was to compare children’s energy expenditure (EE) levels during object projection skill performance (OPSP) as assessed by indirect calorimetry and hip- and wrist-worn accelerometry.

Methods

Participants

This study is a part of a larger study; however, the data represented in the current study has never been published elsewhere. A convenient sample of 42 elementary school-aged children (*Age*: 8.0 ± 0.8 years) from a southeastern city in the United States were recruited for this study. The physical characteristics of participants are shown in [Table 1](#). The study was approved by the University's Institutional Review Board and the ethical treatment of participants was followed. The parent/guardian of each participant completed informed consent and each child provided assent before participating in the study. Participants also completed a Health History Questionnaire to determine eligibility for participation. Disqualifying conditions included those: (a) who were under the care of a physician that excluded them from PA (e.g., heart condition, chest pain, injury, chronic illness, limb deformity) (b) who were taking prescription or non-prescription medications or used an inhaler (c) who had high blood pressure or cholesterol (d) who had a history of seizures, asthma, lung disease, vertigo, or diabetes. Parents self-identified the race/ethnicity of their children as 88% Caucasian, 8% African-American, 2% Hispanic, and 2% Asian/Pacific Islander.

Object projection skill performance procedures

For the purposes of this study children participated in three, nine-minute experimental sessions in an indoor laboratory where participants performed rounds of five kicks, five throws, and five strikes in blocked fashion, at three different trial intervals (i.e., 6, 12, and 30 second intervals). Each participant completed the three experimental sessions in a randomized order. Participants were instructed to perform all trials with maximum effort. The interval schedules ranged from more intense (i.e., 6 second intervals to less intense intervals (i.e., 30 second intervals) that could be expected in a different practice, training, or physical education environments. A complete description of the OPSP procedures may be found in Sacko et al. (2019).

Table 1. Physical characteristics of the participants.

	Boys (<i>n</i> = 22)	Girls (<i>n</i> = 20)	All participants (<i>N</i> = 42)
Age, years	8.1 ± 0.8	8.0 ± 0.8	8.1 ± 0.8
Height, cm	133.8 ± 3.9*	135.0 ± 4.0	134.4 ± 7.6
Body mass, kg	33.2 ± 4.3*	30.0 ± 6.6	29.1 ± 5.6
Resting METS, ml·kg ⁻¹ ·min ⁻¹	2.5 ± 0.3	2.5 ± 0.6	2.5 ± 0.5

Note. Values presented as means (SD); *n*, number of subjects; BMI, body mass index; METS, metabolic equivalent of task; *Significantly different from girls, *p* < .01.

Indirect calorimetry

Energy expenditure during skill performance was measured using a criterion measure of indirect calorimetry. A COSMED K4b2 portable system for pulmonary gas exchange was used to collect expired respiratory gases on a breath-by-breath basis to measure oxygen consumption (VO_2 kg⁻¹·min⁻¹) and METS (Duffield, Dawson, Pinnington, & Wong, 2004; Melby, Scholl, Edwards, & Bullough, 1993; Pinnington, Wong, Tay, Green, & Dawson, 2001). METS were averaged using data collected during minutes 4–8 of each nine-minute OPSP session (Pinnington et al., 2001) of each nine-minute OPSP session (Sacko et al., 2019).

Accelerometry

Accelerometers (ActiGraph GT3X+, ActiGraph, Pensacola, FL) were worn on three locations: a) waist level at the right anterior axillary line attached to a belt, b) posterior side of the non-dominant wrist, and c) posterior side of the dominant wrist. The accelerometers were synchronized with the COSMED K4b2 (indirect calorimetry) for data analysis purposes. The accelerometers were initialized using the sampling rate of 100 Hz and downloaded in epoch lengths of 1 second. The results were downloaded using ActiLife (Pensacola, FL) software. Measurements from accelerometry were matched with the corresponding time period collected by indirect calorimetry (i.e., minutes 4–8) and used for EE prediction evaluation.

The inclusion criteria for the cut-points used within this study were accelerometer studies that: (a) reflected a sample age range included children 7–9 years of age. (b) used an appropriate biological standard (4.0 METS = moderate), (c) used an EPOCH length less than 60 s, and (d) were validated in sample sizes of at least 10 per age group. The following four cut-points and their respective wear location were identified for inclusion into this study (1) Freedson et al. (2005), hip; (2) Evenson et al. (2008), hip; (3) Crouter et al. (2015), dominant wrist; and (4) Chandler et al. (2016), non-dominant wrist.

Predicted METS from accelerometer data were calculated using four sets of cut points that delineated various intensities of PA (e.g., light, moderate, vigorous) and were established for children ages 7–9 for the hip (i.e., Evenson et al., 2008; Freedson et al., 2005), non-dominant wrist (i.e., Chandler et al., 2016), and dominant wrist-worn (i.e., Crouter et al., 2015) accelerometers. All data was converted to average counts min⁻¹. Accelerometer data from the hip (i.e., Freedson et al., 2005) and from the dominant wrist using the equation developed by (Crouter et al., 2015) were transformed to METS using regression equations provided in text by the respective authors (Crouter et al., 2015; Freedson et al., 2005).

Freedson et al. (2005) Hip-worn Regression Model:

$$\text{METS} = 2.757 + (0.0015 \cdot \text{cntspermin}) - (0.08957 \cdot \text{age}(\text{yr})) \\ - (0.000037 \cdot \text{cntsperminute} \cdot \text{age}(\text{yr}))$$

Crouter et al. (2015) Dominant Wrist-worn Regression Model

- (1) If the vertical axis counts per 5 sec are ≤ 35 , energy expenditure = 1.0 child-MET
- (2) If the vertical axis counts per 5 sec are > 35 , energy expenditure (child-MET)

$$\text{METS} = 1.592 + (0.0039 \cdot \text{ActiGraph vertical axis counts per 5 second})$$

MET transformation could not be performed for Evenson et al. (2008) or Chandler et al. (2016) because no regression equations were provided in the respective publications. All data were classified as light, moderate, or vigorous by the cut-points that corresponded to their wear location and are presented in Table 2.

Data analysis

To examine time spent in moderate (>4.0 METS), and vigorous (>7.0 METS) PA, the minute-by-minute values for the COSMED K4b2 (criterion) and each accelerometer regression formula (estimate) were downloaded and used for comparison. Estimated METS (i.e., accelerometer) and actual METS (i.e., indirect calorimetry) were analyzed to examine the prediction accuracy of hip-worn accelerometry and wrist-worn accelerometry during OPSP. One-sample *t*-tests were conducted and used to detect differences between the COSMED K4b2 and accelerometer regression formulas (Freedson et al., 2005; Crouter et al., 2006).

Table 2. Vertical axis cut-points associated with moderate-to-vigorous physical activity.

Cut-point	Wear location	Range of accelerometer counts-per-minute				
		Sedentary	Light	Moderate	Vigorous	Very-vigorous
Freedson et al.	Hip	0–149	150–499	500–3999	4000–7599	> 7600
Evenson et al.	Hip	0–100	101–2295	2296–4011	> 4012	N/A
Crouter et al.	Wrist (dominant)	0–420	421–4320	4321–13548	> 13560	N/A
Chandler et al. ^a	Wrist (non-dominant)	0–1932	1933–6348	6349–17532	> 17554	N/A

Note. N/A, non-applicable. All cut-points presented as measure of vertical axis. All cut-points presented in counts-per minute.

^aOriginally published as counts per 5 seconds.

Bland-Altman plots were used to analyze the agreement between accelerometry (predicted METS, Freedson et al., 1998) and indirect calorimetry (measured METS) (Bland & Altman, 1986). The agreement between accelerometry predicted METS and indirect calorimetry MET values were depicted by plotting the mean difference between two measures (e.g., accelerometry estimated METS minus indirect calorimetry METS) against the mean of the two measures (e.g., accelerometry estimated METS and indirect calorimetry METS). The mean error score (solid line) and the 95% prediction intervals (dashed line) are shown graphically (Figure 1). An agreement between accelerometry estimated METS and indirect calorimetry METS are represented by data points clustered tightly around zero. Data points above zero indicate an overestimation of METS by accelerometry while data points below zero indicate an underestimation.

To examine the prediction of validity of accelerometry to accurately categorize PA (e.g., light, moderate, vigorous) during OPSP accelerometer cut-points (Chandler et al., 2016; Crouter et al., 2015; Evenson et al., 2008; Freedson et al., 2005) were applied to the data downloaded from each session (6, 12, and 30 second intervals). Average counts-per minute from each wear location (hip, dominant-wrist, non-dominant wrist) and the corresponding categorical representation of PA (light, moderate, vigorous) from each application of cut-points (Chandler et al., 2016; Crouter et al., 2015; Evenson et al., 2008; Freedson et al., 2005) are presented in Table 2.

Next, a 3 × 3 chi-square test of goodness of fit was conducted to examine categorical PA levels derived from accelerometer cut-points PA categorical PA levels derived from METS measured using indirect calorimetry for each of the OPSP sessions. All statistical procedures were conducted using IBM SPSS software (Version 23.0; IBM, Armonk, NY USA) with a significance level of $\alpha \leq .05$.

Results

The average energy expenditure for boys and girls respectively were 9.3 (± 1.4 ; vigorous PA) and 7.2 (± 1.2 ; vigorous PA) METS during the six second intervals, 7.0 (± 1.1 ; vigorous PA) and 5.6 (± 1.1 ; moderate PA) METS during 12 second intervals and 4.8 (± 0.7 ; moderate PA) and 4.1 (± 0.7 ; moderate PA) during 30 second intervals. The categorization of exercise intensity levels (e.g., light, moderate, vigorous) by indirect calorimetry (METS) and accelerometry (counts per min) is presented in Table 3. One-sample *t*-tests (Table 4) indicated a statistically significant difference between hip-worn accelerometry METS calculated from regression equations (i.e., Freedson et al., 2005) and indirect

calorimetry measured METS during OPSP. One-sample *t*-tests also indicated a statistically significant difference between dominant- wrist-worn accelerometry predicted METS (i.e., Crouter et al., 2015) and indirect calorimetry METS during OPSP. When accelerometer METS (calculated from regression equations) were placed in categorical levels of PA (moderate ≥ 4.0 METS; vigorous ≥ 7.0 METS) every interval condition (i.e., 30 s, 12 s, 6 s) were calculated as “light”. In contrast, the values indicated by indirect calorimetry were “moderate”, “moderate”, and “vigorous” during the 30 s, 12 s, and 6 second trials respectively.

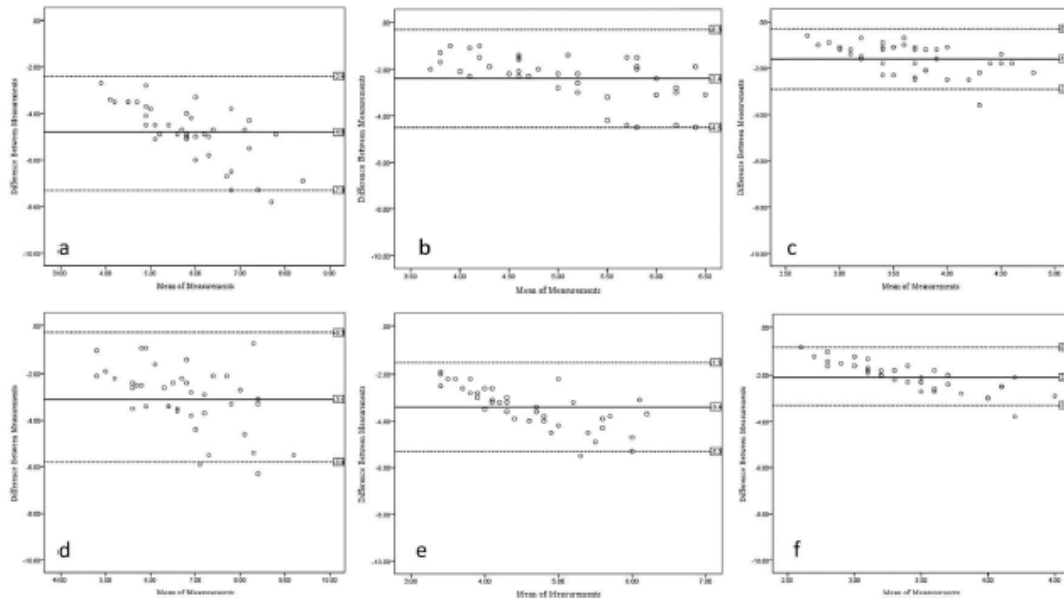


Figure 1. (Top Row) Bland-Altman plots depicting error scores of METS estimated by hip-worn accelerometers (Freedson MET equation) vs indirect calorimetry (criterion measure) during the (a) 6-second, (b) 12-second, and (c) 30-second interval sessions. (Bottom Row) Bland-Altman plots depicting error scores of METS estimated by dominant wrist-worn accelerometers (Crouter MET equation) vs indirect calorimetry (criterion measure) during the (d) 6-second, (e) 12-second, and (f) 30-second interval sessions.

Table 4. One-sample t-test difference of means, indirect calorimetry vs accelerometry.

Cut-point	Interval	N	Mean diff	Std. deviation	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Cohens d	95% Confidence interval of the difference	
									Lower	Upper
Freedson et al.	6 Second	41	5.8	1.1	34.6	40	0.001	11.0	5.5	6.2
Freedson et al.	12 Second	41	4.6	0.8	34.9	40	0.001	11.0	4.3	4.8
Freedson et al.	30 Second	41	3.4	0.5	46.7	40	0.001	15.0	3.3	3.6
Crouter et al.	6 Second	41	6.7	1.1	38.9	40	0.001	12.3	6.4	7.1
Crouter et al.	12 Second	41	5.1	0.8	38.6	40	0.001	12.2	4.8	5.3
Crouter et al.	30 Second	41	3.6	0.5	45.7	40	0.001	14.4	3.5	3.8

Note. Physical activity levels measured by indirect calorimetry and accelerometry (mean \pm SD) during nine-minute sessions of object projection skill performance (30, 12, and 6 second intervals).

Hip- and wrist-worn accelerometers, as demonstrated by Bland-Altman plots (Figure 1), underestimated EE compared to indirect calorimetry; Hip = 30 s ($P < .001$), 12 s ($P < .001$) and 6 s ($P < .001$); Wrist = 30 s ($P < .001$), 12 s ($P < .001$) and 6 s ($P < .001$). Hip-worn accelerometers underestimated METS by 1.6, 2.4, and 4.8 METS during the 30-, 12-, and 6-second interval conditions respectively. Wrist-worn accelerometers underestimated METS by 2.1, 3.4, and 3.1 METS during the 30-, 12-, and 6-second interval conditions respectively. When calculated as categorical PA levels, hip-worn accelerometers categorized movement as light in all conditions. Wrist-worn accelerometers categorized movement as light in during the 30- and 12-second interval conditions and moderate during the 6-second interval condition. Movement values predicted by accelerometry were 0.9 METS or less above resting (2.5 ± 0.4 METS) for all skill conditions. Although EE values estimated by wrist-worn accelerometry were higher (~ 1.0 MET) than by those estimated by hip-worn accelerometry, wrist-worn accelerometry still underestimated PA in all interval conditions.

Accelerometer counts were applied to cut-points for each respective wear location to yield categorical levels of PA (i.e., light, moderate, vigorous) for comparison. Chi-square analysis of categorical PA levels derived by accelerometry underestimated the PA levels derived from the criterion measure of indirect calorimetry and accelerometers from all wear locations during the 6 second and 30 second interval sessions. Furthermore, Evenson et al. (2008; hip) cut-points underestimated PA levels of OPSP during all three interval conditions (i.e., 6, 12, and 30 seconds). Chi-square analysis from the remaining 12 second interval sessions (Chandler et al., 2016; Crouter et al., 2015; Freedson et al., 2005) indicated the following statistically significant predictive qualities of accelerometry: 1) categorical PA derived from Freedson et al., hip-worn cut-points for the total sample $\chi^2(2, N = 42) = 9.46, p < .01$ and for the boys $\chi^2(2, N = 22) = 12.36, p < .01$, 2) categorical PA derived from Crouter et al., dominant-wrist-worn cut-points for the total sample $\chi^2(2, N = 42) = 20.77, p < .01$ and for both boys $\chi^2(2, N = 22) = 19.00, p < .01$ and girls $\chi^2(2, N = 20) = 9.82, p < .01$, 3) and for categorical PA derived from Chandler et al., non-dominant-wrist-worn cut-points for boys $\chi^2(2, N = 22) = 5.45, p < .05$.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to compare energy expenditure (EE) levels during object projection skill performance (OPSP) as assessed by indirect calorimetry and hip- and wrist-worn accelerometry in children. Overall, accelerometry failed to accurately predict METS, as assessed by indirect calorimetry, during all object projection skill intervals. Recent insight into the EE of specific intervals of OPSP in children and adults (Sacko, Brazendale, et al., 2018; Sacko et al., 2019) challenges the validity of accelerometry in its ability to accurately predict PA intensity levels of OPSP. Comparisons between indirect calorimetry and accelerometry derived PA intensity levels in this study illustrate the consistent underestimation of PA intensity levels by accelerometers worn on the hip, dominant wrist, and the non-dominant wrist, during OPSP at varying practice intervals. Each of the accelerometer cut-points analyzed for the purposes of this study (Chandler et al., 2016; Crouter et al., 2015; Evenson et al., 2008; Freedson

et al., 2005) are commonly used in the analysis of movement. Accelerometers used in this study measured what they were designed to measure, movement accelerations. However, raw accelerometer data is not commonly used in the evaluation of PA levels. Instead, researchers and practitioners apply raw accelerometer data to cut-points to provide an understanding of PA levels during a given event. Data from this study illustrates that MET levels predicted from both hip- and wrist-worn accelerometry were drastically underestimated compared to METS derived from indirect calorimetry (criterion measure) during all three OPSP interval conditions (i.e. 6, 12, 30 sec). Specifically, the discrepancy in mean differences in predicted MET levels between hip- and dominant-wrist-worn accelerometry and indirect calorimetry increased as the performance trial interval time decreased (i.e., $30\text{ s} < 12 < 6\text{ s}$) (see Table 2). Further examination of Bland-Altman plots, illustrates the underestimation of hip- and wrist-worn accelerometry when compared to indirect calorimetry in predicting activity intensity levels (i.e., moderate < 4 METS and vigorous < 7 METS) (See Figures 1 & 2). While dominant-wrist-worn accelerometers predicted a higher value of METS over that of hip-worn accelerometry, the EE values expressed in METS still did not surpass the thresholds of 4 and 7 METS needed to accurately predict PA levels as determined by the criterion measure of indirect calorimetry.

EE measured by indirect calorimetry indicated OPSP yielded “vigorous” levels of PA during the 6 second sessions and “moderate” during the 12 s and 30 s intervals sessions; however, hip worn cut-points based on Evenson et al. (2008) predicted only “light” activity levels during all interval conditions. Underestimating PA levels during OPSP may lead to the exclusion of ballistic skills when planning movement interventions or physical education lessons. Furthermore, all PA intensity levels categorized by cut-points (Chandler et al., 2016; Crouter et al., 2015; Evenson et al., 2008; Freedson et al., 2005) during OPSP and by wear location variations (hip, dominant-wrist, and non-dominant-wrist) underestimated actual PA levels during the 6 second (i.e., highest intensity EE condition) and the 30 second (i.e., lowest intensity EE condition) interval sessions. Thus, illustrating that the underestimation of PA intensity levels is present throughout all accelerometer testing conditions evaluated for the purposes of this study. Interestingly, chi-square analysis demonstrated categorical agreement between Freedson et al. (2005) hip-worn accelerometry and indirect calorimetry, as well as between Crouter et al. (2015) dominant wrist-worn accelerometry and indirect calorimetry, for the total sample during the 12 second interval sessions. The agreement of the Freedson et al. (2005) and Crouter et al. (2015) cut-points during the 12 second interval may simply be a construct of timing (5 performance events per minute) and intensity (i.e., moderate). The accumulation of wrist and hip movements during the 12 second interval represented a value high enough to cross the threshold for moderate categorization, however, this occurred in the two cut-points with the lowest values for moderate PA. Thresholds for Freedson et al. (2005) cut-points (see Table 2) for moderate PA (>500 counts per minute—cpm) are lower than those of Evenson et al. (2008) (>2296 cpm), thus, it is not surprising that Evenson et al. (2008) cut-points failed to accurately categorize PA levels against indirect calorimetry METS during the 12 second interval condition where children averaged just 681 cpm. Surprisingly, thresholds for dominant-wrist (Crouter et al., 2015) cut-points for moderate PA (> 4321 cpm) are lower than those of non-dominant-wrist worn (Chandler et al., 2016) cut-points for moderate PA (> 6349 cpm). Intuitively, one would assume that the dominant wrist would yield higher movement values than the non-dominant wrist movement during OPSP as it relates to play, as the dominant wrist is primarily responsible for actions such as throwing, grasping, or carrying. Results from this study (see Table 3) demonstrate that average counts per minute for the dominant wrist were higher than the non-dominant wrist in all conditions. These data speak to the high degree in variability in accelerometer cut points while also demonstrating that accelerometers underestimate PA levels during OPSP. Dominant wrist cut-points may appear to provide a more valid location for the prediction of PA levels during OPSP; however, these data suggest that their use during OPSP is not reliable for the measurement of PA intensity levels. Due to the limited use of the non-dominant wrist in children with lower skill levels, non-dominant wrist cut-points should not be considered for use in the measurement of PA levels during OPSP.

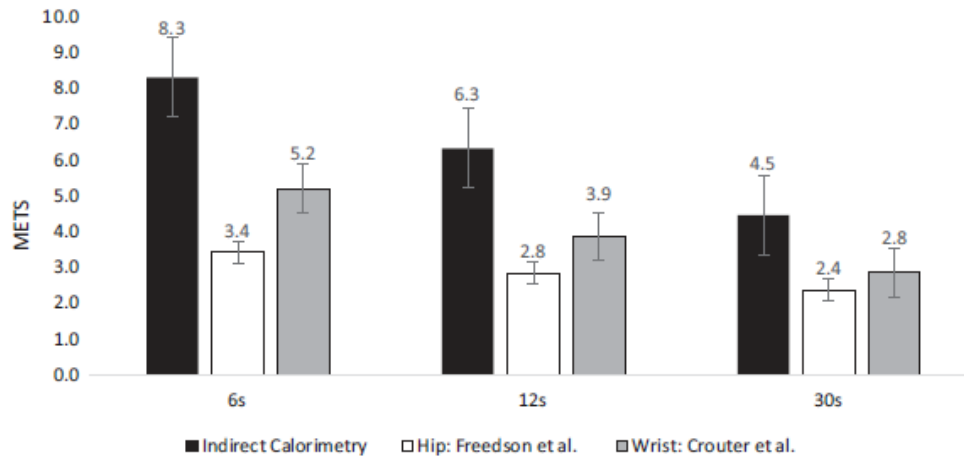


Figure 2. Indirect calorimetry (criterion measure) estimated METS (metabolic equivalent of task), Hip-worn accelerometer (Freedson et al.), and Dominant wrist-worn (Crouter et al.) accelerometer estimated METS during a nine-minute bout of running at a self-selected pace and object projection skill performance intervals (kicking, throwing, and striking) of one repetition every 6, 12, and 30 seconds.

Global findings, illustrated within these data, emphasize the lack of influence that gender has on the comparisons between indirect calorimetry-based and accelerometry-based assessment of EE and PA intensity levels reported by Sacko, Brazendale, et al. (2018). Indirect calorimetry indicated that 38 of the 42 participants achieved the 7.0 METS needed to obtain a “vigorous” level of PA which demonstrates a high level of consistency in EE required by children to perform object projection skills at 6 second intervals. In contrast, hip- and wrist-worn accelerometers consistently underestimated OPSP PA intensity levels during the 6-second interval using MET prediction extrapolations and cut-points. This same underestimation occurred throughout the 30 second OPSP where indirect calorimetry indicated that 38 of 42 participants achieved the > 4 METS required for classification of moderate PA, yet, hip- or wrist-worn accelerometry failed to classify any participant above a “light” PA intensity level.

It is important to note that the development of Freedson et al. (2005), Evenson et al. (2008) Crouter et al. (2015) and Chandler et al. (2016) cut-points for children were all developed without using any activities that included any variation of OPSP during calibration. An important reason for the consistent and drastic under-estimation of PA intensity levels (i.e., 4.0–7.0 METS) by accelerometry during OPSP is that the volume of accelerations associated with intermittent performances of object projection skills is far smaller than the volume of accelerations associated with a continuous activity (e.g., brisk walking, running) during an equivalent amount of time (i.e., nine-minutes). In essence, oscillations of the hips and wrists occur continuously during the locomotor activities (e.g., running), thus producing a high and consistent accumulation of counts that are captured by accelerometers. In contrast, oscillations of the hip and wrists produced during the OPSP is limited by the total number of repetitions that occur during a given time period (e.g., 1 OPSP every 30 seconds = 2 performances per minute); However, high effort OPSP requires high total body neuromuscular demand (high intensity) and thus, necessitates high levels of acute EE. It is therefore not surprising that the lower volume of accelerometer counts worn at both the hip and wrists does not demonstrate MVPA. These data also suggest that the neuromuscular demands associated with OPSP are substantially higher than repetitive cardiorespiratory activities of moderate intensity (e.g., brisk walking or running; Girard et al., 2005) and “activities of daily living” that were used during the Freedson et al. (2005), Evenson et al. (2008), Crouter et al. (2015) and Chandler et al. (2016) cut-point validation studies. Accelerometers used in this study did not fail to measure what they are intended to measure (i.e., number of movement accelerations at different intensities during nine-minute trials), rather, they failed to capture the metabolic EE associated with the neuromuscular demand of OPSP. The high neuromuscular demand facilitated during repetitive OPSP is promoted via the demand for high segmental velocities produced by

concentric and eccentric neuromuscular mechanisms through the kinetic chain (Campbell, Stodden, & Nixon, 2010; Croix & Korff, 2013; Girard et al., 2005; Langendorfer et al., 2011; MacWilliams et al., 1998; Rodacki, Fowler, & Bennett, 2002; Stodden, Langendorfer, Fleisig, & Andrews, 2006). Thus, the importance of promoting activities that involve OPSP are beneficial to impact acute levels of health-enhancing PA in children and adolescence.

The use of wrist-worn accelerometers has been promoted over those of hip-worn accelerometers for the measurement of PA levels in children (Evenson et al., 2008; Freedson et al., 2005) due to the wrists association with upper body movement (Chandler et al., 2016). For example, the cut-points associated with MVPA for wrist-worn accelerometers (moderate ≥ 6360 counts min^{-1} ; Chandler et al., 2016) are significantly higher than those of hip-worn accelerometers (moderate ≥ 2296 counts min^{-1} ; Evenson et al., 2008) in children. Furthermore, the cut-points associated with MVPA for non-dominant-wrist-worn accelerometers (moderate ≥ 6360 counts min^{-1} ; Chandler et al., 2016) are significantly higher than those of the dominant-wrist-worn (i.e., more active limb during OPSP) accelerometers (moderate ≥ 4321 counts min^{-1} ; Crouter et al., 2015) in children. Thus, the lack of validity in the measurement of EE or intensity levels during OPSP by accelerometers, as indicated by this study's findings, again is a result of the neuromuscular demands of OPSP and lack of OPSP specific cut-points rather than a result of the wear location.

The current study evaluated the ability of accelerometers placed on common wear locations (hip, dominant- and non-dominant wrists) and corresponding cut-points to predict EE. Recently, research by Crouter, Oody, and Bassett (2018) and Duncan, Roscoe, Faghy, Tallis, and Eyre (2019) have suggested that the wear placement of an accelerometer on the ankle may be favorable to both hip or wrist accelerometer placements during unstructured PA, instep passing, or a toss and catch activity and warrants future research. In addition, the commonly used cut-points evaluated for the purposes of this study did not include repetitive OPSP during their respective validation studies, thus, it was not surprising that these cut-points failed to account for the intermittent nature of OPSP performance. As previously suggested, the evaluation of raw accelerometer data may provide the predictive validity needed to produce a wearable technology that can be used by researchers and practitioners for more valid PA assessment.

The early childhood years are a critical time for the development of health-enhancing PA habits and the development of motor skills as they provide a foundation for future PA (Clark & Metcalfe, 2002; Stodden et al., 2008). Sacko et al. (2019) demonstrated that repetitive OPSP (performed during play or practice) provide an alternative to continuous activities (brisk walking or running) to assist in accumulating recommended doses of MVPA associated with health-enhancing benefits. As illustrated by the data contained within this study, the repetitive practice of OPSP in physical education, sports, and PA intervention settings may be drastically undervalued in its usefulness to attain not only recommended daily levels of MVPA, but also promote long-term positive PA trajectories (Jaakkola, Yli-Piipari, Huotari, Watt, & Liukkonen, 2016; Lima et al., 2017; Robinson et al., 2015). Optimizing moderate to vigorous PA may be accomplished if play and practice environments can facilitate trial intervals demonstrated in this study (i.e., one repetition of kicking, throwing, or striking with high effort every 6–30 seconds). Practice environments where trials are on the order of 2–5 trials per minute also allow for inter-trial instruction and feedback, which can further facilitate the learning of the skills. As recommendations for time spent in moderate to vigorous PA during K-12 physical education in the United States is a minimum of 50% of the class period (Wiecha, Hall, & Barnes, 2014), maximizing time spent in health-enhancing levels of PA may be as simple as encouraging consistent high-intensity ballistic movements at regular intervals during physical education lessons. Furthermore, combining OPSP in activities with continuous locomotor activities would provide even greater levels of health-enhancing PA.

This study is not without limitations. A contributing factor that may influence MET values is an individual's effort during performance. Although participants were queued to execute movements

“with maximal effort” throughout each interval session, each participants interpretation of the instruction is relative to each performer. Over 90% (38 of 42) of participants measured for the purposes of this study exhibited EE equivalent to moderate or vigorous PA during all interval conditions (8.3 ± 1.6 , 6.3 ± 1.3 , 4.5 ± 0.8 at 6-, 12-, and 30-sec interval conditions respectively). Finally, as EE and counts were assessed via the combination of all three skills, the relative contribution of each skill to EE and counts were not addressed. However, as kicking, throwing, and striking all are multi-joint ballistic skills that have similar gross neuromuscular involvement via similar kinetic chain mechanisms to produce force; individual skill performance contributions relative to EE during each skill movement should be similar (Langendorfer et al., 2011).

What does this article add?

This is one of the first studies to evaluate the ability of hip- and wrist-worn accelerometry to predict PA levels during object projection skill performance (OPSP) at different intensity intervals in children. Results demonstrated that, when compared to indirect calorimetry, hip- and wrist-worn accelerometry dramatically underestimate EE and thus, PA intensity (assessed by both METS and counts) during higher effort OPSP. The large disparity between indirect calorimetry MET levels and predicted MET levels from both hip and wrist accelerometers during OPSP suggests that accelerometry can grossly underestimate actual exercise intensity levels during many activities in which children routinely engage during physical education, recess, sports, and leisure play. This underestimation occurs even at a rate of only two performance events per minute. Thus, the potential impact of these data on measurement of children’s PA should not be underestimated nor undervalued in terms of both acute PA levels and lifetime PA behaviors. As the development of motor competence is linked to positive trajectories of PA, health-related physical fitness and body weight status across childhood and adolescence (Cattuzzo et al., 2016; Lima et al., 2017) it seems logical to emphasize the acquisition and development of OPSP as well as locomotor skill competence in PA settings such as physical education, recess, and youth sports.

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