

Estimating energy expenditure from accelerometer data in healthy adults and patients with type 2 diabetes

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Title: Estimating energy expenditure from accelerometer data in healthy adults and patients with type 2 diabetes.

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1 ABSTRACT

2 *Objective.* The aim of this study was to develop specific prediction equations based on acceleration data measured at three body sites for estimating energy expenditure (EE) during 3 static and active conditions in middle-aged and older adults with and without type 2 diabetes 4 5 (T2D). Research methods. Forty patients with T2D (age: 40-74 yr, body mass index (BMI): 21-29.4 kg.m⁻²) and healthy participants (age: 47-79 yr, BMI: 20.2-29.8 kg.m⁻²) completed trials 6 7 in both static conditions and treadmill walking. For all trials, gas exchange was monitored using indirect calorimetry and vector magnitude was calculated from acceleration data measured 8 9 using inertial measurement units placed to the participant's center of mass (CM), hip and ankle. Stepwise multiple regression analyses were conducted to select relevant variables to include in 10 11 the three EE prediction equations, and three Monte Carlo cross-validation procedures were used to evaluate each separate equation. *Results*. Vector magnitude (p<0.0001) and personal data 12 13 (gender, diabetes status and BMI; p<0.0001) were used to develop three linear prediction 14 equations to estimate EE during static conditions and walking. Cross-validation revealed similar robust coefficients of determination (R²: 0.81 to 0.85) and small bias (mean bias: 0.008 15 to -0.005 kcal.min⁻¹) for all three equations. However, the equation based on CM acceleration 16 exhibited the lowest root mean square error (0.60 kcal.min⁻¹ vs. 0.65 and 0.69 kcal.min⁻¹ for the 17 hip and ankle equations, respectively; p<0.001). Conclusion. The three equations based on 18 19 acceleration data and participant characteristics accurately estimated EE during sedentary conditions and walking in middle-aged and older adults, with or without diabetes. 20

21

Key words: Inertial measurement unit, Exercise, Energy metabolism, Public health, diabetesmellitus.

24

25 ABBREVIATIONS

26	BMI	Body mass index
27	СМ	Center of mass
28	EE	Energy expenditure
29	EEankle	Estimated energy expenditure from ankle acceleration
30	EE _{CM}	Estimated energy expenditure from center of mass acceleration
31	EE _{hip}	Estimated energy expenditure from hip acceleration
32	IMU	Inertial measurement unit
33	RMSE	Root mean square error
34	SEE	Standard error of estimate
35	T2D	Type 2 diabetes
36	VM	Vector magnitude
37	ΫO2	Rates of oxygen consumption
38	VCO2	Rate of carbon dioxide production
39		

40 **1. INTRODUCTION**

Although physical activity is an integral part of rehabilitation program, the evaluation of 41 individual energy requirement is paramount. Aging, whether or not associated with type 2 42 diabetes (T2D) may result in metabolic alterations. These changes may lead to a decrease in 43 44 daily physical activity level (Zhao et al., 2011) due to an elevated physiological relative effort. Indeed, it has been shown that, unlike young adults, older persons (Peterson & Martin, 2010) 45 46 and T2D patients (Caron et al., 2018b; Petrovic et al., 2016) have an increased activity-related energy expenditure (EE) for a same exercise. Thus, following the exercise prescription, 47 48 patients' nutrition should be adjusted to minimize the risk of dietary imbalance (i.e. malnutrition or overfeeding) or medication error (insulin therapy). In this context, the quantification of EE 49 50 has gained important interest in recent years.

51

52 Actimetry represents a popular and objective alternative to other reference methods (i.e. doubly labelled water and indirect calorimetry) (Reilly et al., 2008). Inexpensive and unobtrusive, 53 accelerometer can be integrated into different forms of wearable devises, such as a watch, 54 waistband or chest belt. It is thus possible to measure accelerations at different body attachment 55 sites (e.g. ankle, wrist, trunk), which offers the possibility of selecting the most appropriate 56 57 placement of the sensor according to the physical activity practiced. Furthermore, this technology is able to record exhaustive data for extended periods and to estimate precise 58 minute-by-minute changes in estimated EE throughout a large number of activities. Algorithms 59 estimating the EE typically use equations developed from multiple regression analysis between 60 measured EE and accelerometer output (i.e. acceleration of each axis or vector magnitude 61 (VM)) and basic participant characteristics such as age, gender, and body weight (Bouten et al., 62 63 1994; Chen & Sun, 1997). As the output of the accelerometer is influenced by the anatomical location of the sensor, specific equations are developed depending on the body attachment site 64 65 (Kim et al., 2014).

66

The use of a motion sensor as EE estimation tool needs a preliminary evaluation and validation in these specific populations. To date, most published algorithms using acceleration data have been developed with small groups of healthy young adults (Bouten *et al.*, 1994; Chen & Sun, 1997). Only a few have been tested in other populations such as middle-aged adults (Caron *et al.*, 2018a) or patients with T2D (Caron *et al.*, 2019). Although the Bouten's algorithm was reliable to estimate walking-related EE in both populations, it does not take into account the age and/or physical deconditioning. This results in a tendency to underestimate EE in
comparison with indirect calorimetry, which may be a source of bias in the patients' daily
energy requirement.

76

In order to go beyond these limitations, the aim of this study was to develop specific prediction equations with user-specific algorithms based on acceleration data for estimating EE during static and active conditions in middle-aged and older adults with and without T2D. Three different equations have been developed according to each accelerometer attachment site (i.e. center of mass, hip and ankle).

82

83 2. MATERIALS & METHODS

84 **2.1 Participants**

Middle age to older participants, healthy or with T2D, were targeted to participate as volunteers in this study. All participants were fully informed beforehand about the test procedure, and gave their written informed consent. Exclusion criteria included peripheral neuropathy, uncontrolled fasting glycaemia (> $1.8 ext{ g.L}^{-1}$), history of orthopaedic lower limb surgery and any neurological or systemic disease. Moreover, participants were included if they were able to walk without assistive devices. This study was approved by the local ethics committee of the IRISSE unit research (EA 4075) and conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki.

92

93 2.2 Measurements and design

The experimental protocol was already described and previously published, for more details, 94 see Caron et al., 2018a. Briefly, a total of forty participants volunteered in this study: 20 healthy 95 (age: 47-79 yr) and 20 diabetics (age: 40-74 yr) middle-aged and older adults. Characteristics 96 of the participants are presented in Table 1. Participants were asked to complete two 6-min 97 98 periods in seated and standing positions and to perform five 6-min level walks at different speeds (0.5 to 1.50 m.s⁻¹) in a randomised order. Each period was separated by 5 min of rest. 99 Throughout each period, oxygen uptake (VO₂, in ml.min⁻¹) and carbon dioxide production 100 (VCO₂, in ml.min⁻¹) were collected using a breath-by-breath gas analyser (Ergostik, Geratherm 101 Medical AG, Geschwenda, Germany). Furthermore, three inertial measurement units (IMU) 102 103 (MTwTM, Xsens, Enschede, Netherlands) were used to measure the three-dimensional accelerations of the center of mass (CM), right hip and ankle, with a sampling frequency at 75 104 105 Hz. Metabolic data were used to determine total energy expenditure (in kcal.min⁻¹) for the last

minute of each period using the Weir formula (Weir, 1949). Acceleration data were postprocessed (low-pass and high-pass Butterworth filters with a cut-off frequency at 20 Hz and 0.2
Hz, respectively) using a custom-written program in Matlab (Matlab R2015b, MathWorks,
Natick, MAS, USA). Then, the mean VM integrating the three components of acceleration (a_x,

110 a_y and a_z) was calculated from a 30s interval for each IMU position:

111 VM =
$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \sqrt{a(i)_x^2 + a(i)_y^2 + a(i)_z^2}$$

112

113 **2.3 Statistical analysis**.

114 2.3.1 Selection of equation's variables

115 Stepwise multiple regression analyses were conducted on the entire sample to examine the relationships of VM (for each accelerometer placement) and participant's physical 116 117 characteristics to indirect calorimetry across all conditions. Personal data including age (years), gender (1=male, 0=female), diabetes status (1=adult with T2D, 0=healthy adult), BMI (in kg.m⁻ 118 ²), height (in m) and weight (in kg) were examined for inclusion in equations. Variables were 119 examined according to their influence on EE and included in the equations if they induced a 120 significant change in the proportion of variance explained (\mathbb{R}^2) based on overall \mathbb{R}^2 change from 121 122 nested equations.

123

124 2.3.2 Cross-validation

Following these multiple regression analyses, a Monte Carlo cross-validation procedure was 125 used to develop EE prediction equations across the three placements (Shao, 1993). This method 126 randomly divides the participants into two subgroups (60% in a calibration group and 40% in a 127 validation group) with equal rates of adults with and without T2D. Multiple linear regression 128 analysis was conducted on the calibration group (n=24) to develop an equation for the 129 prediction of EE that was then tested in the validation group (n=16). This procedure (sample 130 division, regression analysis and validation test) was repeated 500 times for each sensor 131 placement. The final equation represents the average across the 500 replications. At each 132 repetition, standard error of estimate (SEE), coefficients of determination (R²), mean bias and 133 mean relative bias between measured and predicted values, and root mean square error (RMSE) 134 were calculated to evaluate the accuracy of predicted EE using the three equations (three sensor 135 placements) in comparison with indirect calorimetry. One-way, repeated measures ANOVAs 136

on RMSE and bias were used to compare the accuracy of EE obtained between the threeequations (CM, hip and ankle).

139

All statistical analyses were performed using SPSS version 21.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA).
Results are presented as means (± standard deviations) and statistical significance was set at
P<0.05.

143

3. RESULTS

All healthy participants completed the entire protocol, however one participant's mechanical data set at 1.25 m.s⁻¹ was lost due to a technical failure. During the treadmill protocol, two participants with T2D did not complete the active trials at 1.25 and 1.50 m.s⁻¹ due to physical deconditioning. Unpaired t-tests were conducted on personal characteristics and no significant difference was found between subgroups (p>0.05).

150

151 **3.1 Selection of equation's variables**

The results of multiple linear stepwise regressions to predict EE from VM and personal data 152 153 (gender, age, diabetes status and BMI) for the three attachment sites are presented in Table 2. Weight and height were excluded as potential predictors because of their collinearity with BMI. 154 Age was also removed from the three equations because it proved insignificant with regards to 155 EE variance (0.01 to 0.1 %; p>0.05). Vector magnitude of acceleration accounted for 79.6, 77.8 156 157 and 77.1 % of EE variation (p<0.0001) and BMI contributed to increasing the percentage of explained variance for the CM, hip and ankle equations by 3.8, 3.6, 3.3 % (p<0.0001), 158 respectively. Moreover, even if both were significant (p<0.0001), gender and diabetes status 159 explained a small additional percentage of the variance (1.6 to 2.1% for gender and 0.5 to 0.8% 160 for diabetes status). 161

162

163 3.2 Cross-validation

Results of the Monte Carlo cross-validation are shown in Table 3. The three predicted equations [1-3] showed comparable mean R^2 and SEE ($R^2 = 0.86$, 0.85, 0.83 and SEE = 0.56, 0.60 and 0.63 kcal.min⁻¹ for the CM, hip and ankle equations, respectively).

167

168 $EE_{CM} = -0.818 + 0.53 \times VM + 0.066 \times BMI + 0.299 \times Status + 0.455 \times Gender$ (Eq.1)

169 $EE_{hip} = -0.763 + 0.491 \times VM + 0.063 \times BMI + 0.282 \times Status + 0.47 \times Gender$ (Eq.2)

6

170 $EE_{ankle} = -0.683 + 0.216 \times VM + 0.063 \times BMI + 0.232 \times Status + 0.42 \times Gender$ (*Eq.3*) 171

- where, *VM* (m.s⁻²) represents the mean vector magnitude calculated from a 30s interval, *BMI*(kg.m⁻²) the body mass index, *Status* the diabetic condition with 1 for patients T2D and 0 for
 healthy person and *Gender* is 1 for man and 0 for woman.
- 175

During cross-validation, the three equations presented strong coefficients of determination (\mathbb{R}^2 = 0.85 for CM equation, 0.83 for hip equation and 0.81 for ankle equation). Results showed that the CM equation slightly overestimated EE in comparison with indirect calorimetry (mean bias = 0.008 kcal.min⁻¹; 4.3 %), while the hip and ankle equations tended to underestimate it (mean bias = -0.005 kcal.min⁻¹; -4 % for the hip equation and -0.009 kcal.min⁻¹; - 4.1% for the ankle equation). RMSE were 0.60, 0.65 and 0.69 kcal.min⁻¹ for the CM, hip and ankle equations, respectively.

183

When comparing all three equations, ANOVA presented no significant effect on mean difference (p=0.16), but did show significant differences in RMSE (p<0.001). The CM equation presented a RMSE significantly lower than hip (mean difference = -0.05 kcal.min⁻¹ (95%CI: -0.06 to -0.04 kcal.min⁻¹) and ankle equations (mean difference = -0.085 kcal.min⁻¹ (95%CI: -0.09 to -0.07 kcal.min⁻¹). RMSE obtained with hip and ankle equations were significantly different with a mean difference of -0.037 kcal.min⁻¹ (95%CI: -0.05 to -0.03 kcal.min⁻¹).

190

191 **4. DISCUSSION**

Regular physical exercise is positively associated with health benefits in middle-aged adults, regardless of health status (Nordstoga *et al.*, 2019; Emerenziani *et al.*, 2015). Motion sensor (i.e. accelerometer) may be an objective tool allowing patients to accurately quantify and estimate their daily physical activity in terms of EE, and to promote a healthy lifestyle. The aim of this study was to develop equations from accelerometer data and personal characteristics to estimate EE during static conditions and walking specifically in middle-aged and older adults with and without type 2 diabetes.

199

Results of the regression calculation support the association between body acceleration and energy expenditure (Bouten *et al.*, 1994; Brandes *et al.*, 2012; Chen & Sun, 1997), with VM of acceleration explaining a major proportion of EE variance (77.1 to 79.6% vs. \approx 3.5, 2 and 1% for BMI, gender and status, respectively). Our results are consistent with past literature

concerning a positive impact of BMI on the walking related EE (Browning et al., 2006; Peyrot 204 et al., 2012), with a 3.5% of explained variance of EE. Gender was also added as an independent 205 variable in multiple regression equations despite no consensus in past literature regarding 206 differences in walking activity EE between gender (Abadi et al., 2010). While there would not 207 208 appear to be a difference in walking EE among women and men at self-selected speeds, women have a greater walking EE than men at a fixed speed, presumably because of higher step 209 frequency (Wu, 2007). In contrast, our results demonstrated a greater EE in men than in women 210 as observed in Waters & Mulroy (1999). However, gender slightly influenced explained 211 variance ($\approx 2\%$) and predictive precision (≈ -0.01 kcal·min⁻¹ on SEE) (Table 2). Regarding the 212 effect of age on EE, results also differ between studies (Abadi et al., 2010). In the current study, 213 age was not a significant factor in EE variance and it was therefore removed from equations. 214 The specific age group used (middle-aged and older) in the study, which is not broad enough 215 216 to induce age-related differences in EE may explain this result. Finally, our results were consistent with studies showing a higher metabolic cost for walking in patients with T2D as 217 218 compared with healthy people (Caron et al., 2018b; Petrovic et al., 2016). Indeed, even if minimal, diabetes status was a significant factor explaining the variation in EE in all three 219 220 equations (Table 2).

221

222 Some previous studies relied on other activity monitors than those used in the current study to predict EE or activity-related EE. Previous studies conducted in our laboratory focused on the 223 224 validity of Bouten's algorithm in these particular populations to estimate activity EE during walking. Despite a slight underestimation (bias ranging from -0.08 to -0.28 kcal.min⁻¹ in healthy 225 226 middle-aged adults and patients with T2D), no significant difference was found between activity EE estimated by Bouten's algorithm and activity EE measured using indirect 227 calorimetry during walking, (Caron et al., 2018a; Caron et al., 2019). In the current study, EE 228 229 was underestimated only in the hip and ankle equations even though observed mean bias was negligible (-0.005 and -0.009 kcal·min⁻¹ for the hip and ankle equations, respectively). Finally, 230 the study conducted by Machac et al., 2013 was interested in comparing EE assessed using 231 SenseWearTM Armband Pro3 and Omron in patients with T2D. These findings revealed that 232 during level walking these two sensors have a tendency to overestimate EE (>70%). 233 Comparatively, relative bias observed in the current study ranged from -4.1 to 4.3% for level 234 walking. 235

236

Our results present clinical relevance for exercise prescription or rehabilitation program. 237 238 Currently, general guidelines recommend accumulating 30-min of physical activity at moderate intensity, five days per week (Pate, et al., 1995). However, energy requirement cannot be 239 adjusted based on these standardized exercise recommendations because the related EE may be 240 different between two patients. However, a more widespread use of the EE as a prescription 241 criterion for physical activity could allow practitioners to optimise beneficial effect of exercise 242 by precisely regulating the patients' daily energy balance. In this purpose, we developed 243 specific prediction equations for estimating EE in middle-aged healthy adults and patients with 244 245 T2D. These equations can be used mainly for walking which remains one of the most 246 recommended physical activity in both populations.

247

In the current study, our population was characterised by a wider, more specific age range 248 249 (representative of middle-aged to older people, i.e. 40-79 yr) and included both normal-weight and overweight participants (BMI, 20.2–29.8 kg.m⁻²). The large diversity of personal 250 251 characteristics contributed to improving the accuracy of equations in this age-BMI group but presents limitations for use with younger persons with a better physical condition. The three 252 253 equations being developed from data obtained during standardised activities (that may differ from free-living conditions), its use is limited to similar activities; e.g. to estimate the EE during 254 an aerobic exercise on treadmill. Nevertheless, because these equations can be implemented in 255 any device measuring acceleration using the International System of Units, they offer an 256 attractive method for EE estimation in both healthy middle-aged individuals as well as those 257 258 with T2D.

259

Three regression equations based on accelerometer data (according to three sensor bodyplacements) and personal data were derived to predict EE during static conditions and walking in a heterogeneous sample of healthy and diabetic middle-aged and older adults. All three equations showed comparable strong correlation and great agreement between estimated and measured EE. Nonetheless, for free-living activities, further studies are needed to validate these equations using a reference method as doubly labelled water to measure related EE.

266

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- 328

Table 1: Characteristics of the participants.

Parameters	T2D (n = 20)	Healthy $(n = 20)$	All participants (n = 40)
Female/Male	12/8	12/8	24/16
Age, years	57.5 ± 8.0	57.3 ± 6.7	57.4 ± 7.4
Weight, kg	70.9 ± 12.3	68.1 ± 13.4	69.5 ± 12.8
Height, m	1.63 ± 0.1	1.65 ± 0.1	1.64 ± 0.1
BMI, kg.m ⁻²	25.8 ± 2.7	25.1 ± 2.9	25.4 ± 2.8
FBG, g.L-1	$1.47 \pm 0.16^*$	0.89 ± 0.12	1.20 ± 0.30
Diabetes duration, yr	10.6 (6.1)	/	/

Values are means \pm standard deviation. T2D, type 2 diabetes; BMI, body mass index; FBG, fasting blood glucose. *: Significant group difference with P < 0.05.

Equation	Parameter	R ² adjusted	R^2 adjusted % of variation	SEE (kcal.min ⁻¹)	p-value
СМ	VM	.796	79.6	0.692	p<0.0001
	BMI	.834	3.8	0.624	p<0.0001
	Gender	.854	2.0	0.568	p<0.0001
	Status	.862	0.8	0.609	p<0.0005
	Age	.863	0.01	0.568	0.22
Hip	VM	.778	77.8	0.722	p<0.0001
	BMI	.814	3.6	0.608	p<0.0001
	Gender	.835	2.1	0.662	p<0.0001
	Status	.842	0.7	0.649	p<0.001
	Age	.845	0.1	0.603	0.20
Ankle	VM	.771	77.1	0.733	p<0.0001
	BMI	.804	3.3	0.679	p<0.0001
	Gender	.820	1.6	0.642	p<0.0001
	Status	.825	0.5	0.671	p<0.008
	Age	.826	0.1	0.638	0.061

Table 2 - Results of stepwise multiple regression analyses to predict EE from VM, BMI, diabetes status, gender and age for each sensor placement.

VM, Vector magnitude (m.s⁻²); BMI, Body mass index (kg.m⁻²).

Status, T2D = 1 and healthy = 0; Gender, M = 1 and F = 0.

Parameter	CM Equation		Hip Equation		Ankle Equation	
i di di lictor	Coefficients (95% CI)	SEE	Coefficients (95% CI)	SEE	Coefficients (95% CI)	SEE
Intercept	-0.818 (-1.61 to -0.02)	0.437	-0.763 (-1.61 to 0.08)	0.337	-0.683 (-1.58 to 0.22)	0.126
VM	0.530 (0.50 to 0.56)	0.014	0.491 (0.46 to 0.53)	0.014	0.216 (0.20 to 0.23)	0.005
BMI	0.066 (0.03 to 0.10)	0.013	0.063 (0.03 to 0.10)	0.014	0.063 (0.03 to 0.10)	0.005
Status	0.299 (0.11 to 0.49)	0.075	0.282 (0.08 to 0.48)	0.080	0.232 (0.02 to 0.44)	0.030
Gender	0.455 (0.26 to 0.65)	0.076	0.470 (0.26 to 0.68)	0.082	0.420 (0.20 to 0.64)	0.030

Table 3 -Regression coefficients for estimating EE with each sensor placement.

VM, Vector magnitude (m.s⁻²); BMI, Body mass index (kg.m⁻²); Status, T2D = 1 and Healthy = 0; Gender, M = 1 and F = 0.