

**Physical Activity, Dietary Habits and Sleep Quality Before and During COVID-19
Lockdown: A Longitudinal Study**

Óscar Martínez-de-Quel^{1*}, David Suárez-Iglesias^{2*}, Marcos López-Flores³, and Carlos
Ayán Pérez⁴

¹ Faculty of Education, Department of teaching Languages, Arts and Physical
Education, University Complutense of Madrid, Calle Rector Royo Villanova, 1, 28040,
Madrid, Spain. odequel@edu.ucm.es

² VALFIS Research Group, Institute of Biomedicine (IBIOMED), Faculty of Physical
Activity and Sports Sciences, University of León, Campus de Vegazana, s/n, 24071,
León, Spain. dsuai@unileon.es

³ Universidad Isabel I, Calle de Fernán González, 76, 09003, Burgos, Spain.
marcos.lopez@ui1.es

⁴ Well-Move Research Group, Galicia Sur Health Research Institute (IIS Galicia Sur),
Faculty of Education and Sport Science, Department of Special Didactics, University of
Vigo, Campus a Xunqueira, s/n, 36005, Pontevedra, Spain. cayan@uvigo.es

* Both authors contributed equally to this work

Author Note

We have no conflicts of interest to disclose, nor funding to declare
Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to David Suárez-Iglesias,
Facultad de Ciencias de la Actividad Física y del Deporte, Universidad de León,
Campus de Vegazana s/n, 24071, León, Spain. Email: dsuai@unileon.es

Abstract

The COVID-19 pandemic has forced the health public authorities to impose a lockdown as an epidemiological containment strategy. This study aimed to provide information regarding the impact of the mandatory confinement on the physical activity, eating disorders risk, sleep quality and well-being on a Spanish sample. An online survey that included the Minnesota Leisure Time Physical Activity Questionnaire, the Eating Attitude Test-26, and Pittsburgh Sleep Quality Index was administered two days after the state of alarm was established in Spain and five days after such measures began to be eased. Out of the 693 people who answered the first questionnaire, 161 completed the second one. These participants spent a total of 48 days locked at home, a period during which a significant worsening in all the variables assessed except for the risk of developing eating disorders, was observed: weight (kg), 67.3 ± 14.8 vs 67.7 ± 15.1 , $p = 0.012$; physical activity (MET minutes per week), 8515.7 ± 10260.0 vs 5053.5 ± 5502.0 , $p < 0.001$; sleep problems (total score), 6.2 ± 3.5 vs 7.2 ± 3.9 , $p < 0.001$; self-perceived well-being (score), 4 (3-4) vs 3 (3-4), $p < 0.001$. The confinement had a significant differential effect on physically active participants, who experienced a significant decline ($p < 0.05$) on their physical activity levels, quality of sleep and well-being; whereas physically inactive participants did not experience significant changes. Findings from this longitudinal study indicate that a lockdown period due to COVID-19 had a negative impact on the physical activity levels, sleep quality and well-being in a group of physically active Spanish adults. Public health authorities should be aware that people who usually lead an active lifestyle, might be particularly susceptible to such disruptions.

Keywords: COVID-19; eating disorders; lockdown; physical activity, sleep.

1. INTRODUCTION

The COVID-19 pandemic has forced public health authorities to impose lockdown measures as an epidemiological containment strategy. This mandatory self-isolation may affect people's physical and mental health, and therefore have a strong negative impact on healthy lifestyle behaviors (Balanzá-Martínez et al., 2020). For instance, prolonged home stay may lead to increased sedentary behaviors due to a decrease on the amount of daily physical activity (PA) performed (Chen et al., 2020). Similarly, it has been suggested that due to this period of abruptly reduced PA, changes in eating attitudes, such as overeating, will start to emerge (Martinez-Ferran et al., 2020), putting people at risk for developing or exhibiting an eating disorder. This lack of PA due to home confinement has also been considered to be a potential risk factor that negatively affects sleep quality (Cellini et al., 2020).

Continuous surveillance of the consequences that the lockdown has on healthy habits should become a routine, as part of preparedness efforts worldwide (Huang & Zhao, 2020). However, information on the real impact of the confinement on PA is lacking, since the existing body of knowledge so far comes from opinion articles and theoretical manuscripts. Similarly, although studies regarding the effect of the lockdown on nutrition and sleep quality are starting to appear, most of them have a cross-sectional design (Huang & Zhao, 2020; Scarmozzino & Visioli, 2020; Xiao et al., 2020), and scant research has been published comparing the PA levels, prevalence of eating disorders and sleep quality reported before the confinement and also during this period. This lack of studies makes it difficult to determine the actual impact such isolation measures made on the aforementioned healthy habits.

From an epidemiological point of view, it is important to identify how healthy habits are modified through a period of restrictions, and to determine the consequences of such changes on peoples' health too. For instance, it has been suggested that limiting the

possibilities of performing PA might not be an optimal approach when trying to delay or helping to stop a pandemic's spread (Amekran & El Hangouche, 2020). Thus, scientific evidence regarding the consequences of imposing a very restrictive confinement on health status should be provided to politicians and health policy makers. Making available this information would allow governments to develop more accurate public health promotion strategies (i.e., recommendations for lifestyle modifications) during the COVID-19 pandemic, as well as to anticipate major consequences derived from this situation.

Spain became a COVID-19 hotspot; therefore, in order to reduce the spread of the infections, the Spanish Government issued a state of emergency on March 24 and imposed a severe lockdown period to Spanish citizens, during which they were only allowed to leave home for buying food, seeking medical attention or going to work, excluding essential workers in hospitals, supermarkets, the Army, mass-media, etc. This situation created a context of extreme self-isolation in which it was possible to register information regarding the prevalence of healthy habits before the confinement started and right after the easing of those restrictions began. The goal of this study is to show the impact that the lockdown period had on the PA levels, eating disorders and sleep quality with respect to a sample of Spanish individuals due to COVID-19.

2. METHODS

2.1. Design

A pre and post lockdown longitudinal observational study was carried out, following the STROBE guidelines for cohort studies (von Elm et al., 2008).

2.2. Participants

We selected a convenience sample of people older than 18 years old who were either students at the four universities collaborating in this investigation or were part of the virtual networks of the authors of this study. Those participants who were living abroad during the

1
2
3
4
5
6
7 quarantine were excluded from the study. Respondents did not receive any reward for taking
8 part in the research. Written informed consent was obtained from all participants. The study
9 was conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki.
10
11

12 2.3. Procedure

13
14 Participants completed an anonymous online survey realized through Google Forms
15 web survey platform. A personal invitation e-mail including the link to the web survey was
16 sent via official channels of the involved universities. Besides, the survey was communicated
17 through the social media (Facebook, LinkedIn and Twitter) and it was also shared to personal
18 contacts of the researchers. The survey was hosted on the Google platform for a limited time
19 window twice: two days after the state of emergency was issued (allotted time to submit
20 questionnaire between March 16 and March 31, 2020), and five days after such measures
21 began to be eased (between April 30 and May 11, 2020).
22
23

24 2.4. Measures

25 2.4.1. Sociodemographic characteristics

26
27 Participants provided information regarding sex, age, height, weight, occupation,
28 marital status, as well as place of residence and number of people in the household during the
29 confinement.
30

31 2.4.2. Physical Activity Levels

32
33 The effect of the confinement on the amount of PA usually performed by the
34 participants in a typical week before the state of emergency was established and contrasted
35 with that during a usual week during the confinement, as assessed by means of the Spanish
36 version of the Minnesota Leisure Time PA Questionnaire (MLTPAQ) (Elosua et al., 1994).
37
38 The respondents' total energy expenditure was estimated in metabolic equivalents of task
39 performed in minutes per week (MET-min·wk⁻¹). For the purpose of this study, a cut-off point
40 of 2100 MET-min·wk⁻¹ was chosen to identify individuals who were either physically active
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3
4
5
6
7 or physically inactive, following previous procedures used with Spanish adult population
8
9 (Sobejano Tornos et al., 2009).

10 11 2.4.3. *Eating disorders*

12 The impact of the confinement on eating disorders was assessed by means of the
13 Spanish version of the Eating Attitude Test-26 (EAT-26) (Rivas et al., 2010). The test
14 includes 26 items related to bulimia, dieting and oral control, with a summative score ranging
15 from 0 to 78. A cut-off at 20 was used to determine eating disorder cases from no-cases.
16
17
18
19

20 2.4.4. *Sleep Quality*

21 Changes on sleep quality due to the confinement were identified through the Spanish
22 version of the 18-item Pittsburgh Sleep Quality Index (PSQI) (Royuela Rico & Macías
23 Fernández, 1997). The PSQI scores ranges from 0-21, with higher scores indicating worse
24 sleep quality. Those participants who scored above a cut-off of 5 were classified as “poor
25 sleepers”.
26
27
28
29
30

31 2.4.5. *Self-perceived well-being*

32 The participants were asked a closed question to indicate how they felt before and
33 during the confinement, to which they responded on a Likert scale from one (“Bad”) to five
34 (“Great”).
35
36
37

38 2.5. Statistical analysis

39 The hypotheses were specified before the data were collected. The analytic plan was
40 pre-specified and any data-driven analyses are clearly identified and discussed appropriately.
41
42 Descriptive statistics were used to know the sample characteristics: mean and standard
43 deviation, percentage or mean and interquartile range (IQR). The independent-samples *t*-test
44 and the Mann-Whitney *U* test were used in order to explore the dropout rates by calculating
45 the differences between non-completers (those who only answered the online survey during
46 the first time window) and completers (participants who completed the online survey during
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3
4
5
6
7 both time windows). The proportion of participants classified as physically inactive, being at
8 risk of eating disorders and poor sleepers was calculated before and during the lockdown and
9 the Wilcoxon signed-rank test (Z) was used to identify the significance of this change. The
10 evaluation of normality was performed by means of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-
11 Wilk tests and homoscedasticity by the Levenne test (Atkinson & Nevill, 1998) in order to
12 check the statistical assumptions. The paired-samples *t*-test and the Wilcoxon signed-rank test
13 for the whole sample and for physically active and physically inactive groups separately were
14 used to know the impact of lockdown within a group. The independent-samples *t*-test and the
15 Mann-Whitney *U* test were applied to calculate the differences between physically active and
16 physically inactive participants before and during lockdown. For each of the main dependent
17 variables (physical activity, eating disorder risk, sleep problems and self-perceived well-
18 being), a repeated measures ANOVA (F) with two factors: within-subjects (time: before and
19 during lockdown values for each dependent variable) and across-subjects (PA status:
20 physically active and physically inactive) was calculated to explore the differential impact of
21 lockdown in physically active and physically inactive participants. In order to estimate the
22 effect size of lockdown, partial eta squared values (η^2_p) were used (0.01, small effect size;
23 0.06, medium effect size; 0.14, large effect size) [14]. The change due to lockdown
24 (difference from before to during lockdown) related to sociodemographic characteristics was
25 explored by means of an independent-samples *t*-test for sex, Pearson correlation *r*-test for age,
26 Spearman ρ correlation for the participants at home ordinal variable and a one-way ANOVA
27 for occupation and marital status. All statistical analyses were performed using the Statistical
28 Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS Inc. Version 25.0, Chicago, IL). Significance level
29 was set at $p < 0.05$ for all the analyses.
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

3. RESULTS

3.1. Sample characteristics at baseline

Out of the 693 participants who answered the first questionnaire, 161 (age: mean 35.0 \pm 11.2, range 19-65 years old; 37% female; BMI: 23.7 ± 4) completed the second one. Participants who completed the online survey during both time windows ($n = 161$) were compared to those who only answered to the online survey during the first time window ($n = 523$) in order to analyze potential bias, and no significant differences between groups were recorded for physical activity performed ($t = 1.47$, $p = 0.142$), eating disorder risk ($t = 1.30$, $p = 0.194$), sleep problems ($t = -0.13$, $p = 0.987$), weight ($t = 1.35$, $p = 0.178$) and self-perceived well-being ($U = 42018.0$, $p = 0.594$). The study sample was mostly made up of university students (73.9%). The participants spent a total of 48 days isolated at home and the time between questionnaires responses was 29.4 ± 4.9 days. A median of three persons (IQR: 2-4) lived at home during the lockdown. The marital status was distributed as follows: 37.3% single, 25.5% married, 35.4% partnership, and 1.9% divorced.

Table 1. Effect of COVID-19 lockdown on weight, physical activity, risk of eating disorders, sleep problems and self-perceived well-being. Values before and during lockdown are shown as means \pm SD and mean (IQR).

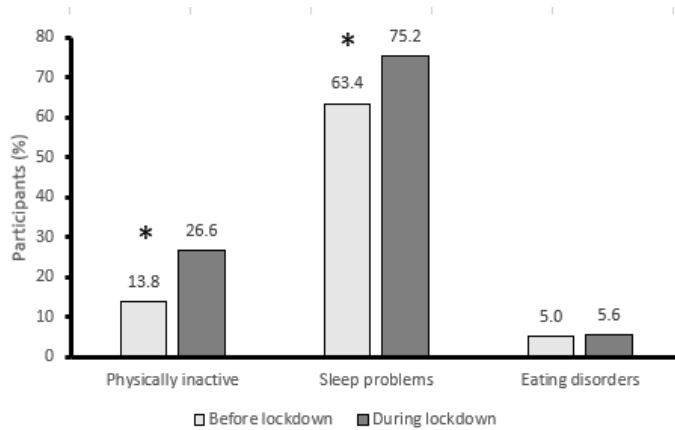
	Before lockdown	During lockdown	Student <i>t</i>	
	(<i>n</i> = 161)	(<i>n</i> = 161)	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Weight, <i>kg</i>	67.3 \pm 14.8 [†]	67.7 \pm 15.1	-2.55	0.012
Physical activity, <i>MMW</i>	8515.7 \pm 10260.0 [†]	5053.5 \pm 5502.0	4.37	<0.001
Eating disorder risk, <i>total score</i>	7.5 \pm 7.9	7.2 \pm 8.2	1.61	0.109
Sleep problems, <i>total score</i> [†]	6.2 \pm 3.5 [*]	7.2 \pm 3.9	-4.09	<0.001
Self-perceived well-being, <i>score</i>	4 (3-4) [*]	3 (3-4)	-6.53	<0.001

Note. MMW, MET minutes per week. * significant values favouring before lockdown versus during lockdown. † a higher score indicates a poorer sleep quality.

1
2
3
4
5
6
7 **3.2. COVID-19 lockdown impact on healthy habits**
8

9 The impact of the lockdown on the participants' healthy habits are shown in Table 1.
10 All the variables assessed showed significant worsening, except for the risk of developing
11 eating disorders.
12

13
14 The proportion of participants classified as physically inactive, as well as those
15 suffering from eating and sleep disorders before and during lockdown can be seen in Figure 1.
16 At baseline, a considerable proportion of participants in the sample were active and had sleep
17 problems, while the prevalence of eating disorders was very low. The number of participants
18 considered physically inactive and presenting sleep problems increased from baseline into the
19 lockdown (Table 2).
20
21
22
23
24



25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41 * significant change in proportions from before to during lockdown.

42 **Figure 1.** Proportion of participants that were considered to be physically inactive, present
43 sleep problems, or have eating disorders before and during lockdown.
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

Table 2. Number of participants that were considered to be physically inactive versus physically active, having versus not having eating disorders, presenting versus not presenting sleep problems. Values before and during lockdown are shown as *n* of total sample.

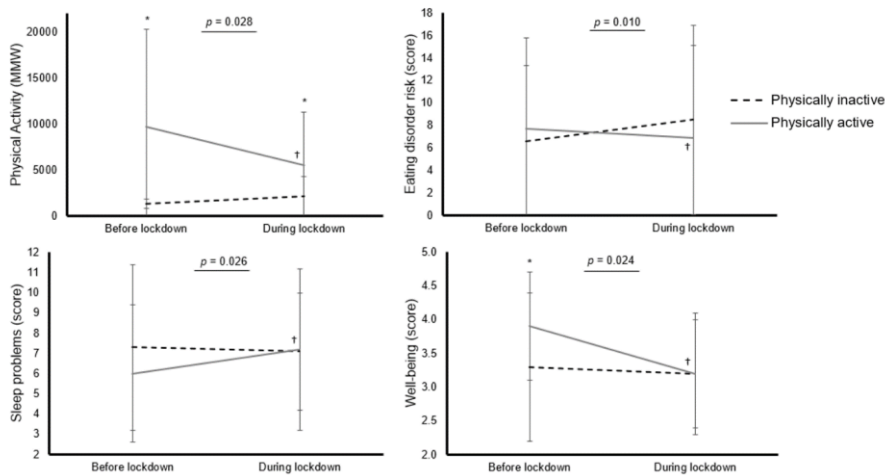
	Before lockdown	During lockdown	Wilcoxon signed-rank test	
	(<i>n</i> = 161)	(<i>n</i> = 161)	Z	<i>p</i>
Physically inactive / active, <i>n</i>	23 / 138*	43 / 118	-3.420	0.001
Eating disorder risk / not, <i>n</i>	8 / 153	9 / 152	-0.557	0.564
Sleep problems / not, <i>n</i>	102 / 59*	121 / 40	-3.413	0.001

Note. * significant values favouring before lockdown versus during lockdown.

3.3. Differential effects of lockdown among physically active and inactive participants

The confinement had a significant differential effect on physically active and physically inactive participants. Before lockdown, significant differences regarding PA and self-perceived well-being were observed in favour of those classified as physically active. The comparison with lockdown values showed significant worsening on both variables as well as on the participants' sleep quality. Those included in the physically inactive group did not experience any significant change in the assessed variables. In the physically active group, a significant reduction for developing eating disorders was found, while PA performed, sleep problems and self-perceived well-being exhibited a significant worsening. Changes in healthy habits taking into account PA levels can be seen in Figure 2. Repeated measures ANOVA showed a main effect for time (before and during lockdown) in self-perceived well-being ($F = 12.90, p < 0.001$), and for PA status (physically active and physically inactive) in physical activity ($F = 16.78, p < 0.001$). Significant interactions were found between PA status before lockdown and the change in physical activity ($F = 4.92, p = 0.028, \eta^2_p = 0.031$), eating disorder risk ($F = 6.83, p = 0.010, \eta^2_p = 0.041$), sleep problems ($F = 4.21, p = 0.042, \eta^2_p = 0.026$) and self-perceived well-being ($F = 5.23, p = 0.024, \eta^2_p = 0.032$). All the reported partial eta squared values (η^2_p) were classified between small and medium effect sizes.

Commented [O1]: Si queremos poner también lo no significativo sería y los tamaños del efecto, sería así.
 main effects of time (before and during lockdown) in self-perceived well-being ($F = 12.90, p < 0.001, \eta^2_p = 0.075$) but not in physical activity ($F = 2.14, p = 0.145, \eta^2_p = 0.14$), eating disorder risk ($F = 0.61, p = 0.437, \eta^2_p = 0.004$) and sleep problems ($F = 1.71, p = 0.193, \eta^2_p = 0.11$) and main effect of PA status in physical activity ($F = 16.78, p < 0.001, \eta^2_p = 0.10$) but not in eating disorder risk ($F = 0.000, p = 0.998, \eta^2_p = 0.000$), sleep problems ($F = 0.62, p = 0.433, \eta^2_p = 0.004$) and self-perceived well-being ($F = 5.03, p = 0.26, \eta^2_p = 0.031$)



$p =$ differential impact of lockdown in physically active and inactive groups; * between group differences favouring the physically active group for before and during lockdown values. † within-group (physically active) change over time.

Figure 2. Changes due to COVID-19 lockdown in physical activity (MMW, MET minutes per week), eating disorder risk, sleep problems and self-perceived well-being among active ($n = 138$) and inactive ($n = 23$) participants.

Sociodemographic characteristics did not seem to have an effect on the observed impact of the COVID-19 lockdown, except for the variable referring to the number of people in the household during the confinement. The statistical analysis showed that the greater the number of people in the participants' household during confinement, the greater the weight gain was ($p = 0.217$, $p = 0.006$); additionally, a larger decline in self-perceived well-being was attested for participants in more populated households ($p = -0,183$, $p = 0.020$).

4. DISCUSSION

To the authors' knowledge, this is the first longitudinal study that provides information regarding the impact of the COVID-19 lockdown on weight, PA, dietary habits,

1
2
3
4
5
6
7 sleep quality and self-perceived well-being on a confined population. The results shown here
8 could be helpful for anticipating lifestyle changes during rapid outbreaks of highly infectious
9 diseases which will force the imposition of strict confinement.
10

11
12 Our sample was predominantly active, sleep problems were frequently present and the
13 risk of developing eating disorders was low. These results could be due to the characteristics
14 of the sample, mostly made up of university students. Indeed, other studies carried out in
15 Spanish university students have reported a remarkable prevalence of sleep disfunctions
16 (around 50%) (Núñez et al., 2019) and a low prevalence (around 6%) of eating disorders
17 (Lameiras Fernández et al., 2002). Regarding PA levels, we also found participants who
18 showed a sedentary lifestyle, confirming previous results indicating that university students
19 may be both highly active or highly sedentary (Peterson et al., 2018).
20
21

22 The findings from the online survey confirmed that the lockdown had a negative
23 impact on almost all the assessed variables, as it was initially expected. Being confined at
24 home imposed a structural barrier to maintaining a physically active lifestyle, as previously
25 hypothesized (Heffernan & Young Jae, 2020), while the combination of anxiety and stress
26 triggered by the COVID-19 pandemic could be responsible for the observed reduction on
27 sleep quality (Xiao et al., 2020). Self-perceived well-being could have been negatively
28 affected by both factors.
29
30

31 No increased risk of developing eating disorders was found in the present study,
32 probably due to their low prevalence, since it has been speculated that those who already
33 showed eating disorders beforehand are the ones that are particularly at risk of being affected
34 by the lockdown (Touyz et al., 2020). Nevertheless, we observed a significant albeit small,
35 increase in the participants' body weight, which could be due to reductions in PA levels or
36 even to modifications on dietary habits. In this regard, it is worth mentioning. The lack of
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3
4
5
6
7 research on the impact of the pandemic on lifestyle changes, especially regarding PA and
8 dietary habits, limits the possibility to elaborate a more comparative discussion.

9
10 One interesting finding of the present study is the fact that the lockdown had a
11 significantly greater impact on those participants who were leading an active lifestyle before
12 the confinement. When comparing data obtained at baseline and once the restrictions began to
13 be eased, physically active participants experienced significant reductions not only in the
14 amount of PA performed, but also on their sleep quality and their self-perceived well-being.
15
16 On the other hand, no significant changes were observed in the physically inactive group. It is
17 widely known that performing PA has a positive impact on both sleep quality and general
18 well-being (Wunsch et al., 2017). Additionally, our results indicate that extreme and sudden
19 reductions on the amount of PA performed have a negative impact on both factors.
20
21 Nevertheless, it should be pointed out that active participants managed to significantly reduce
22 the risk of developing an eating disorder. It could be hypothesised that they could have taken
23 more care of their dietary habits as a strategy to avoid excessive weight gain, resulting from
24 the decrease in the amount of PA they performed. Altogether, our data suggest that home
25 confinement has a more severe impact on physically active participants and stress the idea
26 that PA levels should be maintained in times of high stress, in order to prevent negative
27 effects on sleep quality and self-perceived well-being. This interesting finding should be
28 interpreted with caution, due to the reduced number of participants classified as physically
29 inactive. Thus, there is a need for further research to confirm these results.
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43

44 According to our analysis, the number of people in the household during the
45 confinement also played an important role on weight control and self-perceived well-being.
46 We found that the more people living together, the greater the weight gain and the greater the
47 impact of confinement on self-perceived well-being. These unexpected lockdown
48 consequences are worth mentioning, since it is generally assumed that people who eat alone
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3
4
5
6
7 are more likely to be overweight (Boles & Gunnarsdottir, 2015; Rah et al., 2019), and that
8
9 living alone leads to a worse sense of well-being.

10
11 The main strength of this investigation lies on its novel findings, obtained through a
12 longitudinal design. In spite of this, it should be noted that we obtained a very low response
13 rate when the online survey was administered for the second time, which considerably
14 reduced the final sample size of the present research. Several reasons could help to explain
15 this high dropout rate. To begin with, the first online survey was sent very quickly, just after
16 the state of emergency was issued and no study of this kind had been conducted yet.
17 However, a number of investigations using similar online surveys and targeting the same
18 population began to show up two or three weeks later in our country. Thus, it could be
19 hypothesised that participants in our study received a fair number of online surveys and
20 refused to answer the same questions again. Additionally, it should also be considered that the
21 first online survey was sent when people were confined; therefore, they had plenty of time to
22 fulfil it. On the contrary, when they were asked to answer the online survey for the second
23 time, the first relief measures in response to the lockdown situation had been established, so it
24 is plausible to think that most of the participants devoted their increasing free time to other
25 activities. Furthermore, we informed participants that our intention was to compare baseline
26 data with the same information collected during lockdown, but we did not specifically remind
27 them that they would be asked to fulfil the online survey twice. Moreover, we did not
28 precontact them before sending the online survey for the second time, a fact that could
29 contribute to the low response rate (Liu & Wronski, 2018). Finally, it is worth mentioning that
30 the online survey was long and exhaustive and some of the questions were not easy to answer,
31 specifically those related to the amount of PA performed that appeared at the beginning of the
32 online survey, which might have negatively affected the response rate (Van der Lei et al.,
33 2007). Indeed, a negative relationship between completion rate and survey length as well as
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3
4
5
6
7 question difficulty has been observed in previous studies using online surveys (Liu Liu &
8 Wronski, 2018). There are also a number of methodological weaknesses that should be
9 acknowledged. First of all, the sample was small, as it has been previously mentioned, and
10 mostly made up of university students, which limits the generalization of the results.
11 Secondly, the data were obtained by means of a web-based survey. Although participants
12 responded within a few days of being surveyed, the existence of a recall bias cannot be ruled
13 out. Furthermore, we used a repeated measures ANOVA to assess the time (before-during) x
14 group (active-inactive) interaction on the self-perceived wellbeing (ordinal variable), which is
15 a 5-point Likert scale that diverges from normality. In any case, we calculated intra- and
16 between-group differences of this outcome measure in the study groups by means of non-
17 parametric tests. Finally, body weight was self-assessed and self-perceived well-being data
18 were gathered by means of an *ad hoc* questionnaire. Thus, information related to both
19 variables should be interpreted with caution.

30 5. CONCLUSION

31 Findings from this longitudinal study indicate that a lockdown period due to COVID-
32 19 had a negative impact on the physical activity levels and sleep quality on a group of
33 Spanish adults, while body weight and self-perceived well-being were also adversely affected.
34 Our findings indicate that people who usually lead an active lifestyle, are particularly
35 susceptible to such disruptions. Public health authorities should be aware that reducing the
36 possibilities or performing PA during a quarantine might have negative consequences on the
37 health status of the population.

45 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

46 The authors would like to acknowledge the linguistic help provided by Imanol Suárez-
47 Palma, PhD (Assistant Professor of Spanish Linguistics in the Department of Spanish and
48 Portuguese Studies at the University of Florida).

1
2
3
4
5
6
7 **FUNDING**

8
9 No funding to declare.

10
11 **CREDIT AUTHORSHIP CONTRIBUTION STATEMENT**

12
13 **Óscar Martínez-de-Quel** Conceptualization, Data curation, Formal analysis,
14 Investigation, Methodology, Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing. **David**
15 **Suárez-Iglesias:** Conceptualization, Data curation, Formal analysis, Investigation,
16 Methodology, Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing. **Marcos López-Flores:**
17 Conceptualization, Data curation, Formal analysis, Investigation, Methodology, Writing -
18 review & editing. **Carlos Ayán Pérez:** Conceptualization, Data curation, Formal analysis,
19 Investigation, Methodology, Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing.

20
21 **DECLARATION OF COMPETING INTEREST**

22
23 The authors also declare that they have no known competing financial interests or
24 personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

25
26 **REFERENCES**

27
28 **Ame Kran, Y., & El Hangouche, A. J. (2020). Coronavirus disease (COVID-19) and the need**
29 **to maintain regular physical activity. *Journal of Sports Medicine and Physical Fitness,***
30 **10.23736/S0022-4707.20.11524-X. <https://doi.org/10.23736/S0022-4707.20.11524-X>**

31
32 Atkinson, G., & Nevill, A. M. (1998). Statistical methods for assessing measurement error
33 (reliability) in variables relevant to sports medicine. *Sports Medicine*, 26, 217–238.
34 <https://doi.org/10.2165/00007256-199826040-00002>

35
36 Balanzá-Martínez, V., Atienza-Carbonell, B., Kapczinski, F., & De Boni, R. B. (2020).
37 Lifestyle behaviours during the COVID-19 – time to connect. *Acta Psychiatrica*
38 *Scandinavica*, 141, 399–400. <https://doi.org/10.1111/acps.13177>

1
2
3
4
5
6
7 Boles, R. E., & Gunnarsdottir, T. (2015). Family meals protect against obesity: exploring the
8 mechanisms. *Journal of Pediatrics*, *166*, 220–221.

9
10 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jpeds.2014.10.034>

11
12
13 Cellini, N., Canale, N., Mioni, G., & Costa, S. (2020). Changes in sleep pattern, sense of time
14 and digital media use during COVID- 19 lockdown in Italy. *Journal of Sleep Research*.

15
16 <https://doi.org/10.1111/jsr.13074>

17
18
19 Chen, P., Mao, L., Nassis, G. P., Harmer, P., Ainsworth, B. E., & Li, F. (2020). Coronavirus
20 disease (COVID-19): the need to maintain regular physical activity while taking

21 precautions. *Journal of Sport and Health Science*, *9*, 103–104.

22
23 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jshs.2020.02.001>

24
25
26
27 Elosua, R., Marrugat, J., Molina, L., Pons, S., & Pujol, E. (1994). Validation of the Minnesota

28 Leisure Time Physical Activity Questionnaire in Spanish men. The MARATHOM

29 investigators . *American Journal of Epidemiology*, *139*, 1197–1209.

30
31 <https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordjournals.aje.a116966>

32
33
34
35 Heffernan, K. S., & Young Jae, S. (2020). Exercise as medicine for COVID-19: an ACE in

36 the hole? *Medical Hypotheses*, *142*, 109835. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mehy.2020.109835>

37
38
39 Huang, Y., & Zhao, N. (2020). Generalized anxiety disorder, depressive symptoms and sleep
40 quality during COVID-19 outbreak in China: a web-based cross-sectional survey.

41
42 *Psychiatry Research*, *288*, 112954. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.psychres.2020.112954>

43
44
45 Lameiras Fernández, M., Calado Otero, M., Rodríguez Castro, Y., & Fernández Prieto, M.

46
47 (2002). Los trastornos de la conducta alimentaria en estudiantes universitarios Españoles.

48
49 *Actas Espanolas de Psiquiatria*, *30*, 343–349.

50
51 **Liu, M., & Wronski, L. (2018). Examining completion rates in web surveys via over 25,000**

52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3
4
5
6
7 real-world surveys. *Social Science Computer Review*, 36, 116-124.

8
9 <https://doi.org/10.1177/0894439317695581>

10
11 Martinez-Ferran, M., de la Guía-Galipienso, F., Sanchis-Gomar, F., & Pareja-Galeano, H.

12 (2020). Metabolic impacts of confinement during the COVID-19 pandemic due to
13 modified diet and physical activity habits. *Nutrients*, 12, 1549.

14
15 <https://doi.org/10.3390/nu12061549>

16
17
18
19 Núñez, P., Perillan, C., Arguelles, J., & Diaz, E. (2019). Comparison of sleep and chronotype

20 between senior and undergraduate university students. *Chronobiology International*, 36,
21 1626–1637. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07420528.2019.1660359>

22
23
24
25 Peterson, N. E., Sirard, J. R., Kulbok, P. A., DeBoer, M. D., & Erickson, J. M. (2018).

26 Sedentary behavior and physical activity of young adult university students. *Research in*
27 *Nursing & Health*, 41, 30–38. <https://doi.org/10.1002/nur.21845>

28
29
30 Rah, W., So, J., Park, E. C., Lee, S. A., & Jang, S. I. (2019). Association between family

31 dinner and BMI in adults: data from the 2013 to 2015 Korean National Health and
32 Nutrition Examination Survey. *Public Health Nutrition*, 22, 681–688.

33
34
35
36 <https://doi.org/10.1017/S1368980018002446>

37
38
39 Rivas, T., Bersabé, R., Jiménez, M., & Berrocal, C. (2010). The eating attitudes test (EAT-

40 26): reliability and validity in Spanish female samples. *Spanish Journal of Psychology*,
41 13, 1044–1056. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S1138741600002687>

42
43
44
45 Royuela Rico, A., & Macías Fernández, J. A. (1997). Propiedades clinimétricas de la versión

46 castellana del cuestionario de Pittsburgh. *Vigilia-Sueño*, 9, 81–94.

47
48
49 Scarmozzino, F., & Visioli, F. (2020). Covid-19 and the subsequent lockdown modified

50 dietary habits of almost half the population in an Italian sample. *Foods*, 9, 675.

51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3
4
5
6
7 <https://doi.org/10.3390/foods9050675>

8
9 Sobejano Tornos, I., Moreno Iribas, C., Viñes Rueda, J. J., Grijalba Uche, A. M., Amézqueta

10
11 Goñi, C., & Serrano Martínez, M. (2009). Estudio poblacional de actividad física en
12 tiempo libre. *Gaceta Sanitaria*, 23, 127–132.

13
14 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gaceta.2008.04.007>

15
16
17 Touyz, S., Lacey, H., & Hay, P. (2020). Eating disorders in the time of COVID-19. *Journal of*

18
19 *Eating Disorders*, 8, 19. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40337-020-00295-3>

20
21
22 Van der Lei, J., Sturkenboom, M., Ekman, A., & Litton, J. E. (2007). Optimizing the design
23 of web-based questionnaires: experience from a population-based study among 50,000
24 women. *European Journal of Epidemiology*, 22, 293–300.

25
26 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10654-006-9091-0>.

27
28
29 von Elm, E., Altman, D. G., Egger, M., Pocock, S. J., Gøtzsche, P. C., Vandenbroucke, J. P.,

30
31 & STROBE Initiative. (2008). The Strengthening the Reporting of Observational Studies
32 in Epidemiology (STROBE) statement: guidelines for reporting observational studies.

33
34 *Journal of Clinical Epidemiology*, 61, 344–349.

35
36 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclinepi.2007.11.008>

37
38
39 Wunsch, K., Kasten, N., & Fuchs, R. (2017). The effect of physical activity on sleep quality,

40
41 well-being, and affect in academic stress periods. *Nature and Science of Sleep*, 9, 117–

42
43 126. <https://doi.org/10.2147/NSS.S132078>

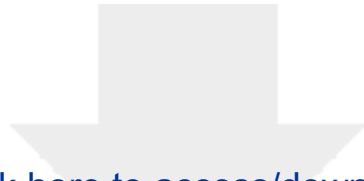
44
45 Xiao, H., Zhang, Y., Kong, D., Li, S., & Yang, N. (2020). Social capital and sleep quality in

46
47 individuals who self-isolated for 14 days during the coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-

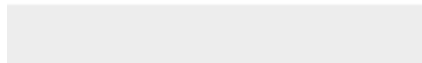
48
49 19) outbreak in January 2020 in China. *Medical Science Monitor*, 26, e923921.

50
51 <https://doi.org/10.12659/MSM.923921>

52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65



Click here to access/download
RDM Data Profile XML
DataProfile_5509584.xml



Ethical statement

This article originates from researchers of four Spanish universities. The study followed all the research standards required by all institutions. The study was conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki. The informed consent was obtained from all individual participants included in the study, and data confidentiality was guaranteed.