

1 **Title:** Associations between Affect, Physical Activity, and Anxiety Among US Children During  
2 COVID-19  
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23

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35

36 **Abbreviations:**

37 COVID-19: coronavirus disease 2019

38 STAIC: State-Trait Anxiety Inventory for Children

39 PANAS-C: Positive and Negative Affect Schedule for Children

40 MET: metabolic equivalent

41 MVPA: moderate-to-vigorous physical activity

42 VPA: vigorous physical activity

43 BMI: body mass index

44 NHANES: National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey  
45

46 **Contributors' Statement:**

47 Dr. Alves performed statistical analyses, drafted the initial manuscript, and reviewed and revised  
48 the manuscript. Ms. Yunker collected and organized data, drafted the initial manuscript, and  
49 reviewed and revised the manuscript. Ms. DeFendis collected and organized data. Dr. Xiang  
50 contributed to study concept and design, obtained funding and provided study supervision,  
51 performed statistical analyses, drafted the initial manuscript, and reviewed and revised the  
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54 authors critically reviewed the manuscript for important intellectual content, approved the final  
55 manuscript as submitted, and agree to be accountable for all aspects of the work.

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92 **Abstract**

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94 We investigated how emotional responses (positive and negative affect), physical activity (PA),  
95 and sedentary behaviors related to anxiety among US children during the COVID-19 pandemic.  
96 Sixty-four typically-developing children (63% girls) age 9-15 years old completed two virtual  
97 visits during height of “stay-at-home” measures between April 22 – July 29, 2020. Children  
98 completed 24-hour PA recalls, state portion of State-Trait Anxiety Inventory for Children  
99 (STAIC), and the shortened 10-item Positive and Negative Affect Schedule for Children  
100 (PANAS-C). Children reported state anxiety scores that were more than 5 standard deviations  
101 greater than values from healthy pediatric populations prior to the pandemic. Children with  
102 higher positive affect and who reported more time in PA reported less state anxiety. Sedentary  
103 and leisure screen time were positively correlated with negative affect. Our findings suggest that  
104 maintaining positive affect, engaging in PA, and limiting leisure screen time may be important  
105 for child mental health during stressful periods.

106  
107 **Key words:** COVID-19, Affect, State Anxiety, Physical Activity, Leisure Screen Time, US  
108 children.

109  
110 **Statement of Relevance**

111  
112 There is increasing concern regarding how the COVID-19 pandemic may impact the  
113 psychological and physical health of children. To date, studies on mental health during the  
114 pandemic in children are limited. We investigated links between activity levels and  
115 psychological outcomes in children during the height of the “stay-at-home” measures. We found  
116 that children had anxiety scores that were more than 5 standard deviations greater than normative  
117 values from healthy pediatric populations prior to the pandemic, and 94% of children exceeded  
118 the American Academy of Pediatrics recommendations on leisure screen time. Positive affect  
119 and physical activity were associated with reduced anxiety levels in children during the  
120 pandemic. These findings highlight the important mental health benefits of maintaining positive  
121 affect, engaging in physical activity, and limiting leisure screen time for children, especially  
122 during stressful periods.

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134 **Introduction**

135           The coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) was declared a national public health  
136 emergency in the United States in March 2020. In order to prevent the spread of the virus, US  
137 state and local governments implemented unprecedented “stay-at-home” orders starting in mid-  
138 March, 2020, including closures of primary and secondary schools across the nation  
139 (<https://plus.google.com/+UNESCO>, 2020). Consequently, children’s access to social support  
140 resources and opportunities for physical activity may have been limited during home  
141 confinement.

142           In addition to the high COVID-19 death toll, which surpassed 200,000 in the U.S. by the  
143 end of September 2020 (“Mortality Analyses”), there is increasing concern regarding the  
144 potential collateral damage to physical and mental health during the COVID-19 pandemic. Over  
145 one-third of American adults reported that the pandemic is having a serious impact on their  
146 mental health (“New Poll: COVID-19 Impacting Mental Well-Being: Americans Feeling  
147 Anxious, Especially for Loved Ones; Older Adults Are Less Anxious,”), and a recent study  
148 among US adults demonstrated that the prevalence of symptoms of psychological distress were  
149 significantly higher during the pandemic compared to two years earlier (McGinty,  
150 Presskreischer, Han, & Barry, 2020). While little is known about the impact of the pandemic on  
151 the mental health of US children, school-aged children in China reported experiencing  
152 depressive symptoms during their nationwide lockdown (Xie et al., 2020). Furthermore, other  
153 recent studies in China, Italy, and the United States have also shown that children are engaging  
154 in less physical activity and increased sedentary behavior and screen time during the pandemic  
155 (Dunton, Do, & Wang, 2020; Pietrobelli et al., 2020; M. Xiang, Zhang, & Kuwahara, 2020).  
156 Notably, poor mental health outcomes have been identified as independent risk factors for

157 several chronic conditions such as obesity, diabetes, and cardiometabolic disease (Golden et al.,  
158 2008; Rudisch & Nemeroff, 2003); additionally, low physical activity levels, heightened screen  
159 time, and increased sedentary behavior are also associated with these conditions (Byun, Dowda,  
160 & Pate, 2012; Shrestha & Copenhaver, 2015). Given that health behavior trajectories in  
161 childhood are likely to endure through adulthood (see review by Shrestha and Copenhaver  
162 (2015)), these findings raise alarming public health implications.

163 Correspondingly, studies conducted prior to the pandemic demonstrated a clear link  
164 between psychological well-being and lifestyle behaviors. Prior studies have shown that positive  
165 affect, defined as the tendency of an individual to experience positive emotions, such as  
166 enthusiasm and joy (*Positive Emotion*, 2014), is associated with increased engagement in  
167 exercise (Pasco et al., 2011; Peterson et al., 2012). Positive affect is negatively correlated with  
168 symptoms and diagnoses of anxiety and depression (Peterson et al., 2012; Watson, Clark, &  
169 Carey, 1988), and multiple reports have established that physical activity reduces symptoms of  
170 anxiety among children (Kiluk, Weden, & Culotta, 2009; Parfitt & Eston, 2005). Conversely,  
171 studies have shown that during childhood and adolescence, both sedentary behavior and screen  
172 time are associated with increased risk for depressive symptoms and negative affect, which refers  
173 to the tendency to experience more intense negative emotions (García-Hermoso, Hormazábal-  
174 Aguayo, Fernández-Vergara, Olivares, & Oriol-Granado, 2020; Sund, Larsson, & Wichstrøm,  
175 2011).

176 While COVID-19 restrictions may impact both the psychological and physical health of  
177 children, to our knowledge, no study to date has examined how children's positive and negative  
178 affect, physical activity and sedentary behaviors relate to their anxiety levels. The aim of the  
179 current study was to assess children's positive and negative affect and activity levels during the

180 COVID-19 “stay-at-home” order, and to examine relationships between affect, anxiety, physical  
181 activity and sedentary behaviors in children.

182

## 183 **Methods**

### 184 *Participants*

185 Participants in this study were recruited from the existing BrainChild study, an observational  
186 study that includes healthy, typically developing children who were recruited at ages 7 to 11  
187 years old during years 2014-2018 for entry into the study and followed with annual visits. The  
188 studies reported here were completed between one and four years after initial entry into the  
189 study. Children in the BrainChild cohort were born at a Kaiser Permanente Southern California  
190 (KPSC) Hospital and had no history of psychiatric, neurological, or other significant medical  
191 disorders.

192       Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, participants were unable to complete in-person consents  
193 to participate in this sub-study. Therefore, an amendment to the original Institutional Review  
194 Board (IRB) protocol was sent to the IRBs at the University of Southern California (#HS-15-  
195 00540) and KPSC (#10282) for virtual follow-up visits. Both USC and KPSC IRBs approved  
196 this sub-study if participants had a recent in-person follow-up visit that occurred within a year.  
197 During the prior in-person follow-up visit, participants’ parents gave written informed consent,  
198 and children provided written informed assent to participate in longitudinal studies. Additionally,  
199 participants gave verbal informed consent prior to participating in the phone or video interviews.  
200 Of the 162 participants enrolled in the larger BrainChild Study, 82 participants had recent 1-year  
201 follow-up visits and, therefore, were eligible to participate in this ancillary study. During in-  
202 person visits that had occurred within one year of the virtual visits, height (cm) to the nearest 0.1

203 cm was collected using a stadiometer and weight (kg) was collected using a calibrated digital  
204 scale. BMI was calculated using the standard formula, weight (kg) divided by height (m<sup>2</sup>). BMI  
205 z-scores and BMI percentiles (age and sex-specific standard deviation scores) were determined  
206 based on Center for Disease Control (CDC) standards (*About Child & Teen BMI | Healthy*  
207 *Weight | CDC*, 2018).

208

### 209 *Exposure*

210 All of the children were residents of California, which was under a statewide “stay-at-home”  
211 lockdown starting March 19, 2020. Data collection took place during Phase 1/Phase 2 of the  
212 order from April 22<sup>th</sup>-July 29<sup>th</sup>, 2020, wherein all schools were closed for in-person instruction  
213 from April 22 – May 29, 2020.

214

### 215 *Phone Visit*

216 Trained staff members contacted participants’ parents from the existing BrainChild cohort. The  
217 study included two phone or video call visits with both the participant and a parent present. Each  
218 visit occurred on average 34 days apart ranging from 27 to 73 days, interquartile range 30 – 35  
219 days. Visit one occurred from April 22<sup>nd</sup> to June 26<sup>th</sup>, 2020. Visit two occurred from May 22<sup>nd</sup> to  
220 July 29<sup>th</sup>, 2020. All questionnaires were read aloud to each participant by the trained staff  
221 member, and then the participant gave their answers verbally.

222

### 223 *Physical Activity Assessment*

224 At each phone call visit, physical activity was assessed using a 24-h physical activity recall  
225 (PAR) (Ainsworth et al., 2011; Weston, Petosa, & Pate, 1997). A trained staff member asked

226 participants, with a parent present to offer input, to recall all of their activities from 7:00am to  
227 12:00am in 30-minute blocks for the day prior. The activities were recorded and classified based  
228 on a 73-item reference list. The participant was also asked to rate the intensity of each activity as  
229 either “Light” (slow breathing, little/no movement), “Moderate” (normal breathing and some  
230 movement), “Hard” (increased breathing and moderate movement), or “Very Hard” (hard  
231 breathing and quick movement). Each activity was then categorized as either sedentary,  
232 moderate-to-vigorous physical activity (MVPA), or vigorous physical activity (VPA), with their  
233 associated metabolic equivalent (MET) values obtained from the Compendium of Physical  
234 Activities (Ainsworth et al., 2011). Activities with MET values  $>1$  and  $\leq 1.5$  were classified as  
235 sedentary, METs  $\geq 3$  as MVPA, and METs  $\geq 6$  as VPA. Sleep blocks were classified as  
236 METs=1.0. Examples of physical activity classifications include: walking (MVPA) or swimming  
237 laps (VPA). Examples of sedentary activities include, reading a book, sitting in class and as well  
238 as any sedentary screen time activities. In addition, leisure screen time (MET=1.5 per 30-minute  
239 block) was obtained by adding time spent in the following leisure activities: watching TV or  
240 movies, playing video games, and surfing the internet while sedentary.

241

#### 242 *State-Trait Anxiety Inventory for Children*

243 At each phone call visit, state anxiety was assessed via the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory for  
244 Children (STAIC). Only items for the state-anxiety (S-Anxiety) scale were completed, given that  
245 the research question was concerned with how children were acutely responding to the  
246 pandemic, and by design, S-Anxiety scores are influenced by the child’s immediate environment  
247 (Spielberger & Edwards, 1973). The STAIC S-Anxiety scale is composed of 20 statements, and  
248 children are instructed to base their answers on how they feel *at that particular moment*. Each



249 STAIC S-Anxiety item is a 3-point rating scale with a stem of “I feel”; half of the items are  
250 reflective of the presence of anxiety (i.e. nervous, worried), while the other half are indicative of  
251 the absence of anxiety (i.e. calm, pleasant) (Spielberger & Edwards, 1973). Values of 1, 2, or 3  
252 are assigned for each of the three answer choices, and scores range from 20-60, with higher  
253 scores representing higher state anxiety.

254

### 255 *Positive and Negative Affect Schedule for Children*

256 At each phone call visit, both positive and negative affect were assessed using the Positive and  
257 Negative Affect Schedule for Children (PANAS-C). The current study utilized the shortened 10-  
258 item PANAS-C, which includes a 5-item positive affect scale (*joyful, cheerful, happy, lively,*  
259 *proud*) and a 5-item negative affect scale (*miserable, mad, afraid, scared, sad*), with a 5-point  
260 Likert scale ranging from 1 (“very slightly or not at all) to 5 (“extremely”) (Ebesutani et al.,  
261 2012). The participants were instructed to answer each item reflecting to what extent they have  
262 felt this way *during the past few* weeks in order to capture a wider temporal range of affect  
263 during the pandemic. Scores range from 5-25 for each affect subscale, with higher scores  
264 representing higher affect.

265

### 266 Statistical Analysis

267 To minimize data reporting errors, measures taken from each of the two visits were averaged and  
268 used for all analyses. Descriptive statistics including mean $\pm$ SD, median (IQR), ranges and  
269 frequencies were reported. Correlations and linear regression models were used to test  
270 associations between emotional regulatory processes (positive affect and negative affect),  
271 physical activity (MVPA and VPA) and sedentary behaviors (leisure screen time, sedentary

272 time) with state anxiety. We assessed whether emotional regulatory processes and physical  
273 activity were independently associated with state anxiety by including both in the same model.  
274 Covariates included in each linear regression model were child age, sex, socioeconomic status  
275 (SES) and BMI z-score because these are factors known to influence mental health and physical  
276 activity levels (Belcher et al., 2010; Fakhouri, Hughes, Brody, Kit, & Ogden, 2013; Mason et al.,  
277 2019; Nader, Bradley, Houts, McRitchie, & O'Brien, 2008; Topçu, Orhon, Tayfun, Uçaktürk, &  
278 Demirel, 2016; Zhu et al., 2019). SES was assessed using household income at birth, estimated  
279 based on census tract of residence and expressed as a continuous variable, and maternal  
280 education at birth, extracted from birth certificates in the electronic medical record as a  
281 categorical variable with the following categories: “high-school or some high-school”, “some  
282 college” and “college and post-education” (A. H. Xiang et al., 2015). Time spent in MVPA and  
283 VPA were not normally distributed, and a square-root transformation was applied to normalize  
284 the distribution prior to regression analyses. P-values <0.05 were interpreted as statistically  
285 significant. SAS 9.4 statistical software (SAS Institute, Cary, NC USA) was used for all data  
286 analyses.

287

## 288 **Results**

289 Of the 82 participants from the BrainChild study who had completed at least one  
290 longitudinal follow-up visit, 65 participants completed one phone-call or video visits during the  
291 state mandated “stay-at-home” order, and 64 of these participants completed a second phone-call  
292 or video visit approximately one month later. Child age ranged from 9 to 15 years and the mean  
293  $\pm$ SD age was  $11.84 \pm 1.28$  years, 63% of participants were female, and 53% were of a healthy-  
294 weight defined as a BMI percentile less than 85. Children’s mean  $\pm$ SD positive affect scores

295 were  $16.16 \pm 4.10$ , negative affect scores were  $8.27 \pm 3.15$ , and STAIC S-Anxiety scores were  
296  $47.37 \pm 3.15$  (**Table 1**). Mean  $\pm$ SD scores for other healthy pediatric samples of a similar age  
297 range are as follows: positive affect ( $17.34 \pm 3.07$ ) (Bauer et al., 2019; Zink et al., 2020),  
298 negative affect ( $7.20 \pm 2.44$ ) (Bauer et al., 2019; Zink et al., 2020), state anxiety ( $29.78 \pm 1.17$ )  
299 (Mestre et al., 2019; Spielberger & Edwards, 1973; Zink et al., 2020). Thus, compared to healthy  
300 pediatric studies conducted prior to the pandemic, state anxiety in our cohort was five standard  
301 deviations greater. Mean  $\pm$ SD BMI z-score was  $0.87 \pm 1.15$ , the mean sedentary time was  
302  $677.81 \pm 110.06$  (min/day), mean leisure screen time was  $376.64 \pm 171.70$  (min/day), median  
303 (IQR) MVPA was 45 (67.5) (min/day), and median VPA was 0 (15) (min/day). Forty-seven  
304 children (73%) did not engage in any VPA. Additionally, 94% (60/64) of children reported more  
305 than 2 hours of leisure screen time per a day, exceeding the American Academy of Pediatrics  
306 recommended 2 hour limit for screen time (Fakhouri et al., 2013). The mean sedentary time  
307 reported by the US National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey for similarly aged  
308 children was  $498.20 \pm 162.20$  (min/day), screen time was  $264.80 \pm 152.90$  (min/day), MVPA  
309 was  $40.40 \pm 26.50$  (min/day) and VPA was  $7.60 \pm 10.02$  (min/day) (Belcher et al., 2010; Hunt et  
310 al., 2019).

311 For the relationship between emotional regulatory and anxiety measures (**Table 2**),  
312 positive affect was associated with lower state anxiety in unadjusted models (correlation  
313 coefficient  $r=-0.50$ ,  $p<0.001$ ; regression  $\beta=-0.38$ , 95% CI: -0.55,-0.22,  $p<0.001$ ) and after  
314 adjusting for child age, sex, SES, and BMI z-score ( $\beta=-0.40$ , 95% CI: -0.57, -0.22,  $p<0.001$ ).  
315 However, negative affect was not associated with state anxiety in unadjusted models ( $r=-0.03$ ,  
316  $p=0.78$ ;  $\beta=-0.04$ , 95% CI: -0.31, 0.23,  $p=0.79$ ) or in models adjusted for child age, sex, SES and  
317 BMI z-score ( $\beta=-0.004$ , 95% CI: -0.28, 0.28,  $p=0.98$ ).

318 For the relationship between physical activity and anxiety measures (**Table 3**), MVPA  
319 was associated with less state anxiety in both the unadjusted model ( $r=-0.34$ ,  $p=0.007$ ;  $\beta=-0.27$ ,  
320 95% CI: -0.47, -0.08,  $p=0.007$ ), and after adjusting for child age, sex, SES and BMI z-score ( $\beta=-$   
321 0.27, 95% CI: -0.47,-0.06,  $p=0.01$ ). VPA was not associated with lower state anxiety in either the  
322 unadjusted ( $r=-0.08$ ,  $p=0.52$ ;  $\beta=-0.11$ , 95% CI: -0.46, 0.23,  $p=0.52$ ) or adjusted models ( $\beta=-0.07$ ,  
323 95% CI: -0.42, 0.29,  $p=0.72$ ). Sedentary time was also not associated with state anxiety before  
324 ( $r=0.06$ ,  $p=0.63$ ;  $\beta=0.002$ , 95% CI: -0.01, 0.01,  $p=0.63$ ) and after adjusting for covariates  
325 ( $\beta=0.003$ , 95% CI: -0.004, 0.01,  $p=0.44$ ) (**Table 3**). Leisure screen time was not associated with  
326 state anxiety in the unadjusted ( $r=0.10$ ,  $p=0.42$ ;  $\beta=0.002$ , 95% CI: -0.003, 0.01,  $p=0.42$ ) and  
327 adjusted models ( $\beta=0.003$ , 95% CI: -0.002, 0.01,  $p=0.24$ ) (**Table 3**).

328 Analyses assessing the independent associations between affect score and physical  
329 activity with state anxiety showed that both remained associated with state anxiety when  
330 adjusting for each other. Positive affect remained associated with lower state anxiety after  
331 adjusting for MVPA ( $\beta$  changed from -0.40 to -0.36, 95% CI: -0.54, -0.18,  $p<0.001$ , **Table 2**).  
332 MVPA also remained associated with lower state anxiety after further adjusting for positive  
333 affect ( $\beta$  changed from -0.27 to -0.20, 95% CI: -0.38, -0.01,  $p=0.04$ , **Table 3**).

334 When examining relationships between emotional regulatory responses (i.e., positive and  
335 negative affect) and physical activity measures, we found that negative affect was correlated with  
336 sedentary time ( $r=0.28$ ,  $p=0.02$ ) and leisure screen time ( $r=0.40$ ,  $p=0.001$ ) (**Table 4**). After  
337 adjusting for child age, sex, SES and BMI z-score, negative affect remained correlated with  
338 leisure screen time ( $r=0.40$ ,  $p=0.002$ ) and sedentary time ( $r=0.28$ ,  $p=0.03$ ) (**Table 5**). Positive  
339 affect was not related to any of the physical activity measures (**Tables 5 and 6**).

340

341 **Discussion**

342 We provide the first results from the United States that examined how emotional  
343 regulatory responses, measured from positive and negative affect scores, related to anxiety levels  
344 and physical activity levels of children during the pandemic. In California, the “stay-at-home”  
345 orders began in late March and were lifted at the end of May. During this time, we collected  
346 questionnaires on affect, state anxiety, physical activity and sedentary behaviors during the peak  
347 of the “stay-at-home” order to infer not only how anxiety levels were impacted, but also the role  
348 of positive and negative affect and physical activity levels on anxiety levels in children. We  
349 found that state anxiety levels of children in our cohort during the “stay-at-home” order were  
350 more than five standard deviations greater than the mean reported by other healthy pediatric  
351 populations prior to the pandemic (Mestre et al., 2019; Spielberger & Edwards, 1973; Zink et al.,  
352 2020). Additionally, children reported greater screen and sedentary time than similarly aged  
353 children from the NHANES (Belcher et al., 2010; Hunt et al., 2019). Interestingly, we found that  
354 positive affect, negative affect and child physical activity levels in our cohort were similar to  
355 those reported by other pediatric studies conducted prior to the pandemic (Bauer et al., 2019;  
356 Belcher et al., 2010; Hunt et al., 2019; Zink et al., 2020).

357 Prior studies in countries first struck by the pandemic noted an increase in symptoms of  
358 depression and anxiety in both children and adults (Cao et al., 2020; Xie et al., 2020; Zhang,  
359 Wang, Rauch, & Wei, 2020). However, none of these studies have investigated relationships  
360 between affect and mental health during the pandemic. Our study showed that positive affect was  
361 related to lower state anxiety levels in children, independent of age, sex, socioeconomic status,  
362 physical activity, and BMI. These findings are in keeping with larger cross-sectional studies  
363 suggesting that positive affect is protective against anxiety during stressful times (O’Hara,

364 Armeli, Boynton, & Tennen, 2014; Sewart et al., 2019). Therefore, promoting methods to  
365 maintain positive affect, such as educational interventions that encourage practicing gratitude  
366 (Froh et al., 2014) and mindfulness (Kang et al., 2018), may be beneficial to children during  
367 times of heightened stress, such as the COVID-19 pandemic. However, future studies are needed  
368 to test this possibility.

369 While anxiety levels have been documented to be increased in adult populations during  
370 the pandemic (Cao et al., 2020; McGinty et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2020), the impact of COVID-  
371 19 restrictions on child mental health is sparse (Xie et al., 2020). Similar to the one study  
372 published in children during the COVID-19 lockdown in China (Xie et al., 2020), we found that  
373 children during the “stay-at-home” order reported greater state anxiety compared to other  
374 pediatric samples prior to the pandemic (Mestre et al., 2019; Spielberger & Edwards, 1973; Zink  
375 et al., 2020). In addition to higher anxiety symptoms, Xie et al. found that school-aged children  
376 in China reported higher depression symptoms (Xie et al., 2020). The authors hypothesized that a  
377 reduction in outdoor activities and social interactions may have contributed to increased  
378 depression and anxiety symptoms. Correspondingly, several studies have found that engaging in  
379 physical activity is beneficial for mental health (Crews, Lochbaum, & Landers, 2004; Parfitt &  
380 Eston, 2005; Parfitt, Pavey, & Rowlands, 2009). Interestingly, we found that children who  
381 engaged in more physical activity had less reported state anxiety, independent of age, sex,  
382 socioeconomic status, positive affect, and BMI. Taken together, these findings support a critical  
383 role for physical activity in promoting the health and well-being of children. Engagement in  
384 physical activity may be particularly important for children to help reduce anxiety during  
385 stressful periods.

386 Similar to other studies in children during the “stay-at-home” order, we found an increase  
387 in both sedentary and leisure screen time compared to nationally representative pediatric samples  
388 before the “stay-at-home” order (Dunton et al., 2020; Fakhouri et al., 2013; Pietrobelli et al.,  
389 2020; M. Xiang et al., 2020). Prior to the pandemic, the American Academy of Pediatrics  
390 recommended that children engage in less than 2 hours a day of leisure screen time (Fakhouri et  
391 al., 2013). However, children in our cohort reported an average of 6 hours a day of leisure screen  
392 time. Additionally, children reported spending 11 hours a day being sedentary and in leisure  
393 screen time. Importantly, prior studies in youth have shown that excessive screen and sedentary  
394 time is associated with increased depressive symptoms and negative affect (García-Hermoso et  
395 al., 2020; Sund et al., 2011). Correspondingly, we found that increased leisure screen time was  
396 associated with negative affect in children, independent of age, sex, socioeconomic status, and  
397 BMI. Similarly, more time spent sedentary was also associated with negative affect. While our  
398 study design does not allow us to determine the directionality of the relationship between leisure  
399 screen time and negative affect, our findings are in concert with previous large cross-sectional  
400 studies demonstrating a dose-dependent relationship between screen-based activities and  
401 depressive symptomatology such as negative affect in children (García-Hermoso et al., 2020;  
402 Yang, Helgason, Sigfusdottir, & Kristjansson, 2013). Therefore, future studies should consider  
403 investigating if limiting excessive leisure screen time could reduce the risk for negative affect  
404 among children.

405 Our study was able to collect repeated measures of affect, anxiety and behavioral health  
406 questionnaires in children over two months during the peak of the “stay-at-home” orders, but we  
407 did not have baseline measures of affect or anxiety in this cohort prior to the pandemic to  
408 compare to the measures collected during the pandemic. While we did compare affect, anxiety,

409 and activity levels in our cohort to other healthy pediatric populations prior to the pandemic, it is  
410 worth noting that the normative comparisons that we used for anxiety were either limited in  
411 sample size (Mestre et al., 2019; Zink et al., 2020) or not recent (Spielberger & Edwards, 1973).  
412 However, to the best of our knowledge, there are no recent and large sample size normative  
413 STAIC state-anxiety comparisons available in US children and/or adolescents. Moreover, we  
414 assessed a limited number of behavioral factors that predicted levels of anxiety among children  
415 during COVID-19 restrictions. Future pandemic-related studies should consider assessing other  
416 potential environmental and psychosocial risk and protective factors for anxiety in children, such  
417 as sleep (Alfano, Ginsburg, & Kingery, 2007) and social support (Sandler, Miller, Short, &  
418 Wolchik, 1989). Additionally, we used a self-reported physical activity recall which is subject to  
419 participant bias. However, self-report recalls provided pertinent information about specific  
420 physical activities engaged in during the “stay-at-home” order. Finally, our small sample size  
421 may limit the generalizability of our findings.

422

## 423 **Conclusions**

424 Overall, this study found that children reported heightened anxiety during the COVID-19  
425 “stay-at-home” orders when compared to normative values from pediatric populations prior to  
426 the pandemic. Importantly, we found that children who reported greater positive affect reported  
427 lower anxiety symptoms. We also found that children who engaged in more physical activity  
428 reported lower anxiety symptoms and this relationship was independent of positive affect.  
429 Additionally, negative affect was positively correlated with both sedentary time and leisure  
430 screen time. These study findings highlight the important mental health benefits of maintaining



431 positive affect, engaging in physical activity, and limiting leisure screen time, especially during  
432 stressful periods.

433

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438

439

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**Table 1. Participant Demographics (N=64).**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>N (%) or Mean±SD or Median (IQR)</b>	<b>Range</b>
<b>Age (years)</b>	11.84±1.28	9.36 to 15.42
<b>Sex</b>	Girls: 40 (63%) Boys: 24 (37%)	
<b>BMI z-score</b>	0.87±1.15	-1.44 to 2.65
<b>Child BMI Percentile Category</b>	Healthy-weight: 34 (53%) Overweight: 10 (16%) Obese: 20 (31%)	
<b>STAIC-State Anxiety</b>	47.37±3.15	40.50 to 52
<b>PANAS for children-Positive</b>	16.16±4.10	7 to 25.00
<b>PANAS for children-Negative</b>	8.27±2.93	5 to 19.50
<b>Sedentary time (min)</b>	677.81±110.06	390 to 900.00
<b>Screen time (min)</b>	376.64±171.70	105 to 750.00
<b>Time in MVPA (min)</b>	45 (67.5)	0 to 240.00
<b>Time in VPA (min)</b>	0 (15)	0 to 150.00
<b>Children who engaged in VPA</b>	VPA: 17 (27%) No VPA: 47 (73%)	
<b>Maternal Education</b>	<=High school: 6 (9%) Some college: 19 (30%) College and post: 39 (61%)	
<b><sup>a</sup>Household Income</b>	0<=income <30 000: 5 (8%) 30000<=income <50 000: 20 (31%) 50000<=income <70 000: 23 (36%) 70000<=income <90 000: 8 (13%) 90000>=income: 8 (13%)	

<sup>a</sup>Some percentages may not be equal to 100% due to rounding.

Abbreviations: BMI, body mass index. MVPA, moderate-to-vigorous physical activity. VPA, vigorous physical activity. STAIC, State-Trait Anxiety Inventory for Children (state anxiety). PANAS, Positive and Negative Affect Schedule for Children (positive and negative affect).

**Table 2. Association between Affect and State Anxiety.**

<b>Predictor Variables</b>	<b>Beta (95% CI)</b>	<b>p-value</b>	<b>Covariates</b>
<b>Positive Affect</b>	-0.38 (-0.55, -0.22)	<0.001***	Unadjusted
	-0.40 (-0.57, -0.22)	<0.001***	Age, sex, SES and BMI z-score
	-0.36 (-0.53, -0.18)	<0.001***	Age, sex, SES, BMI z-score and MVPA
<b>Negative Affect</b>	-0.04 (-0.31, 0.23)	0.79	Unadjusted
	-0.004 (-0.28, 0.28)	0.98	Age, sex, SES and BMI z-score
	-0.05 (-0.32, 0.22)	0.72	Age, sex, SES, BMI z-score and MVPA

\*\*\*p-value<0.001

Abbreviations: SES, socioeconomic status (family income and maternal education). MVPA, moderate-vigorous physical activity.

**Table 3. Association between Activity Levels and State Anxiety.**

<b>Predictor Variables</b>	<b>Beta (95% CI)</b>	<b>p-value</b>	<b>Covariates</b>
<b>Moderate-to-Vigorous Physical Activity</b>	-0.27 (-0.47, -0.08)	0.007**	Unadjusted
	-0.27 (-0.47, -0.06)	0.01*	Age, sex, SES and BMI z-score
	-0.20 (-0.38, -0.01)	0.04*	Age, sex, SES, BMI z-score and positive affect
<b>Vigorous Physical Activity</b>	-0.11 (-0.46, 0.23)	0.52	Unadjusted
	-0.07 (-0.42, -0.29)	0.72	Age, sex, SES and BMI z-score
	-0.04 (-0.35, 0.28)	0.83	Age, sex, SES, BMI z-score and positive affect
<b>Sedentary Time</b>	0.002 (-0.005, 0.01)	0.63	Unadjusted
	0.003 (-0.004, 0.01)	0.44	Age, sex, SES and BMI z-score
	0.001 (-0.01, 0.01)	0.73	Age, sex, SES, BMI z-score and positive affect
<b>Screen Time</b>	0.002 (-0.003, 0.01)	0.42	Unadjusted
	0.003 (-0.002, 0.01)	0.24	Age, sex, SES and BMI z-score
	0.001 (-0.003, 0.01)	0.54	Age, sex, SES, BMI z-score and positive affect

\*\*p-value<0.01

\*p-value<0.05

Abbreviations: SES, socioeconomic status (family income and maternal education)

**Table 4.** Pearson R correlations between emotional regulatory responses (positive and negative affect), state anxiety, physical activity (MVPA and VPA), screen time, sedentary behavior and child adiposity in unadjusted model.

	<b>Positive Affect</b>	<b>Negative Affect</b>	<b>State Anxiety</b>	<b>MVPA</b>	<b>VPA</b>	<b>Screen Time</b>	<b>Sedentary Time</b>	<b>BMI z-score</b>
<b>Positive Affect</b>	1	-0.16	<b>-0.50**</b>	0.10	0.07	-0.11	-0.17	-0.03
<b>Negative Affect</b>	-0.16	1	-0.03	-0.08	-0.19	<b>0.40**</b>	<b>0.28*</b>	0.05
<b>State Anxiety</b>	<b>-0.50**</b>	-0.03	1	<b>-0.34*</b>	-0.08	0.10	0.06	-0.09
<b>MVPA</b>	0.10	-0.07	<b>-0.34*</b>	1	<b>0.48**</b>	-0.16	<b>-0.41**</b>	-0.06
<b>VPA</b>	0.07	-0.19	-0.08	<b>0.48**</b>	1	-0.13	-0.13	-0.01
<b>Screen Time</b>	-0.17	<b>0.40**</b>	0.10	-0.16	-0.13	1	<b>0.59**</b>	0.05
<b>Sedentary Time</b>	-0.11	<b>0.28*</b>	0.06	<b>-0.41**</b>	-0.13	<b>0.59**</b>	1	-0.08
<b>BMI z-score</b>	-0.03	0.05	-0.09	-0.06	-0.01	0.05	-0.08	1

\*Denotes p-value<0.05.

\*\*Denotes p-value<0.01.

MVPA=moderate-to-vigorous physical activity. VPA=vigorous physical activity. MVPA and VPA square-root transformed.

**Table 5.** Pearson R correlations between emotional regulatory states (positive and negative affect), state Anxiety, physical activity (MVPA and VPA), screen time, sedentary behavior, and child adiposity in adjusted models.

	<b>Positive Affect</b>	<b>Negative Affect</b>	<b>State Anxiety</b>	<b>MVPA</b>	<b>VPA</b>	<b>Screen Time</b>	<b>Sedentary Time</b>	<b>BMI z-score</b>
<b>Positive Affect</b>	1	-0.16	<b>-0.48**</b>	0.16	0.03	-0.17	-0.13	-0.09
<b>Negative Affect</b>	-0.16	1	-0.01	-0.12	-0.18	<b>0.40**</b>	<b>0.28*</b>	0.05
<b>State Anxiety</b>	<b>-0.48**</b>	-0.01	1	<b>-0.33*</b>	-0.05	0.16	0.10	-0.04
<b>MVPA</b>	0.16	-0.12	<b>-0.33*</b>	1	<b>0.50**</b>	<b>-0.26*</b>	<b>-0.50**</b>	0.05
<b>VPA</b>	0.03	-0.18	-0.05	<b>0.50**</b>	1	-0.16	-0.16	-0.04
<b>Screen Time</b>	-0.17	<b>0.40*</b>	0.16	<b>-0.26*</b>	-0.16	1	<b>0.58**</b>	0.03
<b>Sedentary Time</b>	-0.13	<b>0.28*</b>	0.10	<b>-0.50**</b>	-0.16	<b>0.58**</b>	1	-0.10
<b>BMI z-score</b>	-0.09	0.05	-0.04	0.05	-0.04	0.03	-0.10	1

Models adjusted for child age, sex and socioeconomic status and BMI z-score.

\*Denotes p-value<0.05.

\*\*Denotes p-value<0.01.

MVPA=moderate-to-vigorous physical activity. VPA=vigorous physical activity. MVPA and VPA square-root transformed.