

1 **The physical activity implications of retirement**  
2 **across occupational activity groups**

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12 **Abstract:**

13 Retirement is an important later life transition which may represent a critical period for  
14 physical activity in older age. Past findings on the association between retirement and  
15 physical activity are inconclusive and there is some evidence that the physical activity  
16 implications of retirement may differ by occupational activity level. This study used data  
17 from waves 4–9 (June 2008–July 2019) of the English Longitudinal Study on Aging to  
18 evaluate whether there is an association between retirement and physical activity, and  
19 whether this varies across occupational activity groups.

20 Retirement was associated with a significant increase in physical activity (n=10 693;  $\beta$ :  
21 0.602 METhrs/wk [95% CI: 0.490, 0.713],  $p<0.001$ ). There were significant interactions  
22 between retirement and past occupational activity level (n= 5 109;  $X^2(3)=32.59$ ,  $p<0.001$ ),  
23 such that people retiring from sedentary or standing occupations experienced a significant  
24 increase in physical activity with retirement but retirement from an occupation involving  
25 heavy manual labour was associated with a decrease in physical activity.

26 This study quantified the importance of retirement for later life physical activity. With  
27 demographic aging, the population health importance of later life physical activity will  
28 likely become more important. These findings should inform the design of public health  
29 interventions to increase physical activity around the retirement transition.

## 30 Introduction

31 The health benefits of physical activity are broad and well documented and may be especially  
32 powerful in later life when the burden of ill-health is often most severe (1–4). Despite these  
33 benefits, inactivity remains a global problem. A Lancet review commissioned by the WHO in  
34 2017 estimated that 28% of the global population did not meet global physical activity  
35 recommendations of at least 150 minutes of moderate-intensity or 75 minutes of vigorous-  
36 intensity physical activity per week (5). Physical inactivity is particularly high among older  
37 adults; in England an estimated 56% of people aged over 65 failed to meet physical activity  
38 recommendations in 2016 (6). Reducing the prevalence of physical inactivity is a global  
39 priority. In 2018 the WHO launched a Global Action Plan on Physical Activity, which  
40 recommended that physical activity is increased across all societal sectors (1). In the UK,  
41 increasing physical activity is recognized as an explicit target in the governmental  
42 consultation document on preventative health in the 2020s and forms a critical part of the  
43 UK Tackling Obesity Strategy (7,8).

44 Retirement is an important milestone in the life-course and may represent a critical  
45 transition period for physical activity engagement in association with changes in  
46 socialisation, income, mobility and time-use (9). Past reviews on the association between  
47 retirement and physical activity have generally reported an overall increase in leisure-time  
48 PA, walking, and domestic activities, but a decline in occupational activity and active forms  
49 of transport over the retirement transition (10–15). However, changes in total physical  
50 activity are inconsistent between reviews and appear to be moderated by a number of  
51 sociodemographic and occupational factors.

52 Past occupational activity level has been found to be an important moderating factor in the  
53 association between retirement and physical activity. In a systematic review, published in  
54 2012, Barnett *et al.* reported that retiring from manual or “low-grade” occupations was  
55 associated with a decline in physical activity over the retirement transition, however this  
56 association was reversed for people retiring from sedentary or high-grade occupations (13).  
57 These findings have since been replicated in subsequent reviews (10,11,15). In general, work  
58 is continuing to shift towards more sedentary, office-based occupations, thus making the  
59 need for up-to-date data on occupational activity especially important.

60 This study used detailed survey data collected biennially from an ongoing cohort of older  
61 adults in England. This minimised the period between data collection and retirement,  
62 therefore reducing the impact of confounding factors or events. The richness of the data  
63 enables the inclusion of putative confounders for which data is not often available, thus  
64 helping minimize the distortive effect that uncontrolled confounding may have on reported  
65 associations. The large sample of older adults enabled us to assess whether there is an  
66 association between retirement and PA, and to explore whether this association differs by  
67 several individual-level characteristics, including sex and past occupational activity level.

## 68 Methodology

69 This study used data from waves 4–9 inclusive (June 2008–July 2019) of the English  
70 Longitudinal Study of Aging (ELSA) (16). The ELSA cohort was established in 2002 and  
71 consisted of over 18,000 English residents aged 50 years or older. Participants were  
72 contacted biennially for data collection, through computer-assisted personal interviews,  
73 self-completion questionnaires, and life-history interviews. Ethical approval was gained  
74 separately for each wave of ELSA, e.g., Wave 9 received ethical approval from the South  
75 Central – Berkshire Research Ethics Committee (17/SC/0588). All participants provided  
76 informed consent and data collection was performed in accordance with the Declaration of  
77 Helsinki.

78 The primary exposure variable was self-reported retirement status. Responses were  
79 dichotomized into '*fully retired*' or '*employed*'. Participants responding as '*semi-retired*' were  
80 classified as '*employed*', and those reporting themselves as '*unemployed*', '*permanently sick*  
81 *or disabled*', '*looking after home or family*' or '*other*' were not included for that wave.  
82 Participants were classified as having retired over the study period if they transitioned from  
83 being '*employed*' to '*fully retired*' and any intermediate waves were disregarded.

84 The primary outcome was self-reported physical activity assessed via three questions about  
85 the frequency and intensity of activity undertaken by each participant. Participants were  
86 shown examples of mild, moderate, and vigorous activities (Table S1) and were asked how  
87 frequently they undertook each intensity of activity from options of '*more than once a week*',  
88 '*once a week*', '*one to three times a month*', or '*hardly ever, or never*'. The ELSA physical  
89 activity questionnaire has been validated using objective accelerometer-based measures of  
90 physical activity and has been associated with a range of outcomes, including healthy aging,  
91 cardiovascular disease and mortality (17,18).

92 A continuous measure was calculated by applying a metabolic equivalent (MET) score to  
93 each intensity of activity and multiplying by the reported frequency of activity per week  
94 (Equation S1). A MET score is the ratio of estimated metabolic rate associated with an  
95 activity to the resting metabolic rate. One MET is approximately equivalent to the energetic  
96 cost of sitting quietly. Drawing on MET ranges stated in The Compendium of Physical  
97 Activities, a MET of 9.0 was applied to vigorous activity, 4.5 to moderate activity and 2.0 to  
98 mild activity (19). This is also consistent with WHO physical activity guidelines, which equate  
99 150 minutes of vigorous activity to 300 minutes of moderate activity, i.e. a two to one  
100 conversion rate (1). To calculate METhrs/week, each activity was assumed to be 0.5 hours  
101 long (Equation S1).

102 To ensure that the assumptions used to calculate the outcome did not substantially impact  
103 the finding, we generated a second, categorical measure of physical activity. This measure  
104 combined the frequency and intensity of activity to generate an overall physical activity level  
105 with four categories: *high*, *moderate*, *low*, and *inactive* (Table S3). A similar categorization  
106 has been used previously with this dataset, demonstrating a robust dose-response  
107 association with mortality (20–23). The continuous and categorical classifications of

108 physical activity were highly correlated ( $r = 0.878$ ) indicating high correspondence between  
109 these indices.

110 To test whether the association between retirement and physical activity varies by  
111 occupational activity level, the self-reported activity level of a participants last occupation  
112 prior to retirement was determined. This variable took values of '*sedentary*', '*standing*',  
113 '*physical work*', or '*heavy manual labour*', and was derived from an ELSA question that asked  
114 participants to choose the level of physical activity of their main job from the four categories  
115 listed above.

116 Time-varying covariates were participant age (years), marital status (married or civil  
117 partnership/not married), total net (non-pension) wealth quintile, current smoking status  
118 (yes/no), alcohol consumption in the last 12 months (some/none), self-reported health  
119 (poor/fair/good/very good/excellent), and mobility (difficulty walking 100 yards: yes/no).  
120 Age and self-reported health were assumed to have a linear trend effect, which were checked  
121 using margins plots. This study focused on intra-individual change in physical activity and  
122 therefore time-invariant factors, such as sex, ethnicity and education were not included.

### 123 Statistical Analyses

124 The characteristics of participants who retired over the study period were compared to  
125 those of participants who remained employed and those who were retired throughout. To  
126 descriptively compare participants over the retirement transition, the characteristics of  
127 participants retiring were compared on their last wave before retirement and first wave  
128 after retirement. Differences were assessed with two sample t-tests, ANOVA or Pearson's  
129 chi-squared tests, as appropriate.

130 We used fixed effect regression models to investigate changes in physical activity over  
131 retirement. When physical activity was coded as a categorical variable  
132 (inactive/low/moderate/high) a fixed-effect multinomial logistic regression model was  
133 fitted to quantify the association between retirement and physical activity. When physical  
134 activity was coded as a continuous variable in METhrs/wk, a fixed effects linear regression  
135 model was fitted. Multicollinearity between covariates was tested through a correlation  
136 matrix. Missingness was generally low across all variables, so regression models were fitted  
137 by complete case analysis.

138 To explore differences in the association between retirement and physical activity by sex and  
139 occupational activity, interaction terms were fitted. Occupational activity was assessed using  
140 the last level of occupational activity prior to retirement. Likelihood ratio tests were used to  
141 compare models with and without the interaction term. Where there was evidence for effect  
142 modification, analyses were stratified by the effect modifier.

143 Sensitivity analyses were conducted to evaluate the effect of the month of questionnaire  
144 completion and the wave of analysis, on the association between retirement and physical  
145 activity. Sensitivity analyses were also conducted to assess the effect of reversible retirement

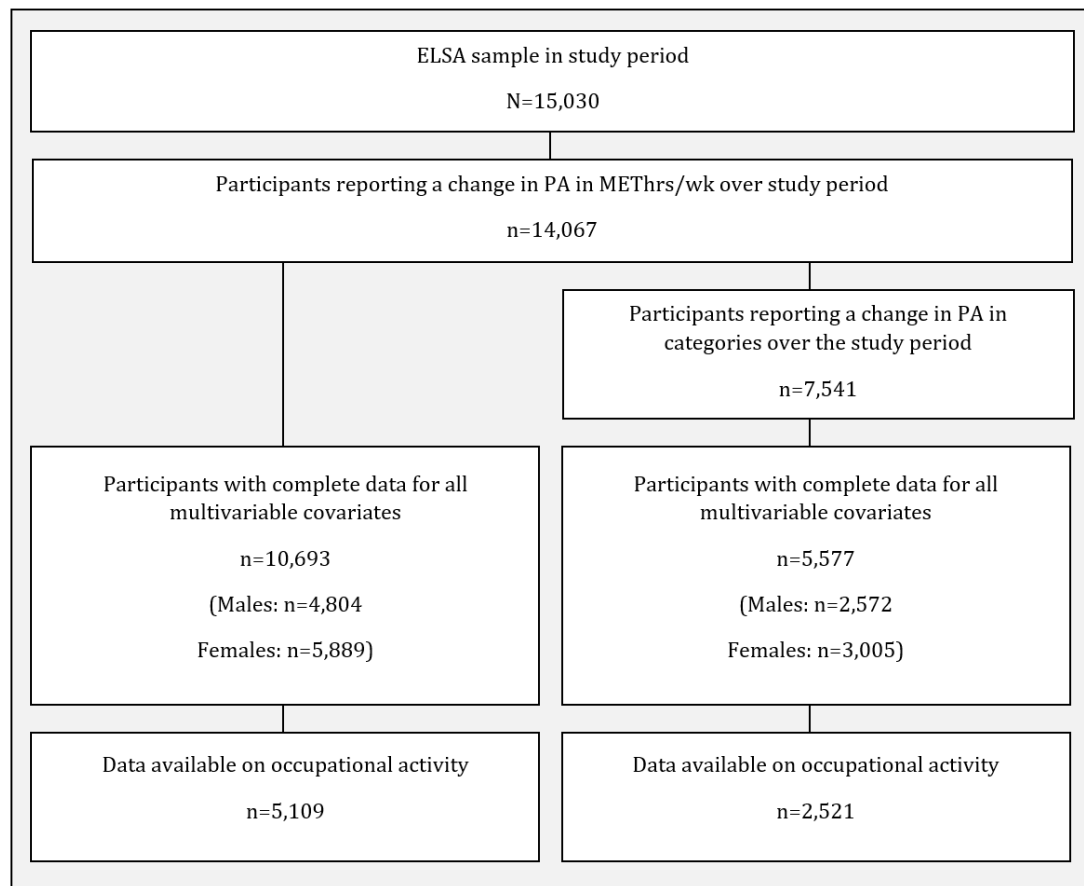
146 (participants who retired and then returned back to employment) and on the classification  
 147 of patients who self-identified as “semi-retired”.

148 All analyses were conducted in STATA SE 17. Confidence intervals were set at the 95% level  
 149 with 2-sided P-values used throughout.

150 **Results**

151 **Baseline Descriptive**

152 A total of 14,067 participants had at least two waves of data on reported a change in physical  
 153 activity in METhrs/wk over the study period, of which 10,693 (4,804 males, 5,889 females)  
 154 had complete data for all the time-varying covariates. 7,541 participants reported a change  
 155 in physical activity which lead them to be classified in another physical activity category. Of  
 156 these, 5,577 (2,572 males, 3,005 females) participants had complete data for all covariates  
 157 (Figure 1).



174

175 **Figure 1:** Flowchart of sample size for analyses.

176 The percentage and patterns of missingness for each prior listed covariate were evaluated  
 177 (Table S4). The greatest missingness was for wealth and alcohol consumption (both 15%).  
 178 Observations with missing data differed significantly from observations with complete data

179 in age, ethnicity, marital status and mobility, however the magnitude of difference was  
 180 generally small (Table S5).

181 The average age of participants across the total sample was 64.7 years. Of 10,693  
 182 participants in the study sample, just over a fifth (21%) retired over the study period; the  
 183 rest were either retired throughout (54%) or remained employed (25%) (Table 1).  
 184 Participants who retired in the study period were on average 11 years younger than  
 185 participants who were retired throughout the study period, were more likely to be in the  
 186 highest wealth quintile (27% vs 21%), report excellent health (18% vs 9%) and less likely to  
 187 have mobility difficulties (3% vs 15%). Compared to those remaining employed,  
 188 participants retiring over the period were on average 5.1 years older, were more likely to be  
 189 in the highest wealth quintile (27% vs 19%), and were more likely to be married or be in a  
 190 civil partnership (74% vs 67%). participants who were employed throughout reported  
 191 higher levels of physical activity (6.99 vs 6.78 METhrs/wk) than those who were retired  
 192 throughout- this is likely in reflection of the younger average age for employed participants  
 193 (55.0 vs 60.1 years).

194 **Table 1:** Baseline sample characteristics stratified by employment/retirement status.

	<b>Total</b> <b>n=10,693</b>	<b>Remained</b> <b>employed</b> <b>n=2,723</b>	<b>Always</b> <b>retired</b> <b>n=5,771</b>	<b>Retired over</b> <b>period</b> <b>n=2,199</b>	<b>P-value</b>
<b>METhrs/wk</b>	5.97 (3.62)	6.99 (3.49)	5.19 (3.57)	6.78 (3.43)	< 0.001
<b>Age</b>	64.74 (9.80)	54.98 (4.28)	71.10 (8.11)	60.14 (5.16)	< 0.001
<b>Male Sex</b>	4,804 (45%)	1,322 (49%)	2,374 (41%)	1,108 (50%)	< 0.001
<b>White Ethnicity</b>	10,330 (97%)	2,557 (94%)	5,638 (98%)	2,135 (97%)	< 0.001
<b>Married/Civil Partnership</b>	6,961 (65%)	1,834 (67%)	3,506 (61%)	1,621 (74%)	< 0.001
<b>Highest Education</b>					< 0.001
No Qualification	2,670 (25%)	340 (13%)	2,006 (35%)	324 (15%)	
Secondary	3,452 (33%)	1,095 (42%)	1,628 (28%)	729 (33%)	
Further	1,494 (14%)	345 (13%)	763 (13%)	386 (18%)	
Degree or equivalent	1,920 (18%)	613 (23%)	768 (13%)	539 (25%)	
Foreign/Other	1,011 (10%)	218 (8%)	583 (10%)	210 (10%)	
<b>Wealth Quintile</b>					< 0.001
1 (lowest)	1,744 (16%)	446 (16%)	1,091 (19%)	207 (9%)	
2	2,202 (21%)	685 (25%)	1,112 (19%)	405 (18%)	
3	2,151 (20%)	526 (19%)	1,181 (20%)	444 (20%)	
4	2,284 (21%)	547 (20%)	1,198 (21%)	539 (25%)	
5 (highest)	2,312 (22%)	519 (19%)	1,189 (21%)	604 (27%)	
<b>Self-reported health</b>					< 0.001
Poor	606 (6%)	54 (2%)	497 (9%)	55 (3%)	
Fair	1,868 (17%)	304 (11%)	1,328 (23%)	236 (11%)	
Good	3,489 (33%)	850 (31%)	1,941 (34%)	698 (32%)	
Very good	3,258 (30%)	954 (35%)	1,485 (26%)	819 (37%)	
Excellent	1,472 (14%)	561 (21%)	520 (9%)	391 (18%)	

<b>Mobility: difficulty walking 100 yards</b>	973 ( 9%)	38 ( 1%)	880 (15%)	55 ( 3%)	< 0.001
<b>Current smoker</b>	1,401 (13%)	440 (16%)	677 (12%)	284 (13%)	< 0.001
<b>Alcohol consumed in last 12 months</b>	9,458 (88%)	2,511 (92%)	4,888 (85%)	2,059 (94%)	< 0.001

195 Data are presented as mean (SD) for continuous measures and n (%) for categorical measures.  
196 P-values are for ANOVA for continuous measures and Pearson's chi-squared test for categorical measures.  
197

198 Of the 2,199 participants retiring over the study period, 2,001 had complete data for at least  
199 one wave before retirement and one wave after retirement. After retiring, participants were  
200 on average older (64.7 vs 63.1;  $p < 0.001$ ) and more likely to have mobility difficulties (5% vs  
201 3%;  $p = 0.014$ ) (Table 2). Physical activity (METhrs/wk) was significantly higher in the first  
202 wave after retirement compared to the last wave before retirement (7.0 vs 6.7 METhrs/wk;  
203  $p = 0.022$ ).



**Table 2:** Comparison of participants on their last wave before and first wave after retirement.

	<b>Last Wave Before Retirement n=2,001</b>	<b>First Wave After Retirement n=2,001</b>	<b>P-value</b>
<b>Male Sex</b>	1,000 (50%)	1,000 (50%)	n/a
<b>White Ethnicity</b>	1,949 (97%)	1,949 (97%)	n/a
<b>Highest Education</b>			n/a
No Qualification	284 (14%)	284 (14%)	
Secondary	659 (33%)	652 (33%)	
Further	330 (16%)	328 (16%)	
Degree or equivalent	471 (24%)	482 (24%)	
Foreign/Other	257 (13%)	255 (13%)	
<b>METhrs/wk</b>	6.72 (3.42)	6.96 (3.47)	0.022
<b>Age</b>	63.08 (5.22)	64.71 (4.64)	<0.001
<b>Married/Civil Partnership</b>	1,471 (74%)	1,464 (73%)	0.800
<b>Wealth Quintile</b>			0.070
1 (lowest)	167 ( 8%)	180 ( 9%)	
2	346 (17%)	301 (15%)	
3	422 (21%)	378 (19%)	
4	511 (26%)	546 (27%)	
5 (highest)	555 (28%)	596 (30%)	
<b>Self-reported health</b>			0.600
Poor	61 ( 3%)	64 ( 3%)	
Fair	230 (11%)	262 (13%)	
Good	672 (34%)	656 (33%)	
Very good	704 (35%)	701 (35%)	
Excellent	334 (17%)	318 (16%)	
<b>Mobility: difficulty walking 100 yards</b>	63 ( 3%)	93 ( 5%)	0.014
<b>Current smoker</b>	215 (11%)	193 (10%)	0.250
<b>Alcohol consumed in last 12 months</b>	1,863 (93%)	1,843 (92%)	0.230

205 Data are presented as mean (SD) for continuous measures, and n (%) for categorical measures.  
 206 P-values are for two sample t-tests for continuous measures and Pearson's chi-squared test for categorical  
 207 measures. Where 'n/a' is stated, the samples were identical.

208 The association between retirement and PA

209 There was no evidence to suggest that the association between retirement and physical  
210 activity differed significantly by sex ( $\chi^2(1)=0.710$ ,  $p=0.399$ ) so subsequent analyses were not  
211 stratified by sex.

212 In the maximally adjusted model, there was evidence that retirement was associated with a  
213 significant increase in METhrs per week of physical activity completed ( $n=10\ 693$ ;  $\beta$ : 0.602  
214 [95% CI: 0.490, 0.713],  $p<0.001$ ) (Model 5 - Table 3).

215 Age was an important confounder in the association between retirement and physical  
216 activity. As expected, increasing age was associated with a significant increase in the  
217 likelihood of retirement ( $\beta$  [95% CI], 0.657 [0.545, 0.770]) and a decrease in physical activity  
218 independent of retirement ( $\beta$  [95% CI], -0.122 [-0.131, -0.113]) (Table 3). Further  
219 adjustment for wealth, health and mobility and behavioural characteristics led to a slight  
220 attenuation in the association between physical activity and retirement ( $\beta$  [95% CI], 0.602  
221 [0.490, 0.713]). The association between retirement and physical activity was consistent for  
222 the continuous and categorical measures of physical activity (Table S7).

223 **Table 3:** Linear fixed effect regression with group level adjustment for the association between retirement and  
 224 physical activity (METhrs/wk) (n = 10,693).

	<b>Model 1:</b>	<b>Model 2:</b>	<b>Model 3:</b>	<b>Model 4:</b>	<b>Model 5:</b>	
	<b>Univariate</b>	<b>Model 1 + Age</b>	<b>Model 2 + Wealth</b>	<b>Model 3 + Health variables (SRH and Mobility)</b>	<b>Model 4 + Behavioural variables (Smoking &amp; Alcohol consumption)</b>	
METhrs/wk	Unadjusted $\beta$ (95% CI)	$\beta$ (95% CI)	$\beta$ (95% CI)	$\beta$ (95% CI)	$\beta$ (95% CI)	P-value
<b>Retirement</b>	0.036 (-0.069, 0.142)	0.657 (0.545, 0.770)	0.641 (0.528, 0.754)	0.606 (0.494, 0.717)	0.602 (0.490, 0.713)	<0.001
<b>Age</b>		-0.122 (-0.131, - 0.113)	-0.121 (-0.129, - 0.112)	-0.099 (-0.108, -0.090)	-0.097 (-0.106, - 0.088)	<0.001
<b>Wealth</b>			0.132 (0.078, 0.187)	0.119 (0.065, 0.173)	0.119 (0.065, 0.173)	<0.001
<b>Self-reported health</b>				0.371 (0.328, 0.413)	0.369 (0.327, 0.412)	<0.001
<b>Mobility</b>				-1.069 (-1.204, -0.933)	-1.060 (-1.196, - 0.924)	<0.001
<b>Smoking</b>					-0.013 (-0.226, 0.200)	0.905
<b>Alcohol Consumption</b>					0.300 (0.147, 0.453)	<0.001
<b>_cons</b>	5.925 (5.849, 6.001)	13.837 (13.273, 14.401)	13.332 (12.731, 13.933)	10.803 (10.163, 11.442)	10.401 (9.724, 11.078)	

225 Data are given for the Beta coefficient associated with retirement with 95% confidence interval. P-values  
 226 from a Wald test are given for the maximally adjusted model. All models include the same sample of  
 227 participants. \_cons is the constant term in the regression model that equates to the METhrs/wk when the  
 228 covariates are equal to zero.

229 Stepwise adjustment of single variables is shown in Table S6.

230

231 The effect of past occupational activity level

232 Data on the occupational activity level of a participant's last job were only available for  
 233 participants who were employed for at least one wave. For the linear regression model,  
 234 5,109 participants had available data on occupational activity. When physical activity was  
 235 coded as a categorical variable, 2,521 participants had available data on occupational  
 236 activity.

237 Most participants had a sedentary last occupation (36%) and only 7% of participants  
 238 reported that their last occupation involved heavy manual labour (Table 4). Compared to the  
 239 total sample, participants retiring from heavy manual labour were more likely to be male  
 240 (85% vs 49%), be a current smoker (23% vs 15%), be in the lowest wealth quintile (19% vs  
 241 13%) and have no educational qualifications (25% vs 14%).

242 **Table 4:** Baseline comparison of participants by most recent occupational activity level.

	<b>Total n=5,109</b>	<b>Sedentary Occupation n=1,837</b>	<b>Standing Occupation n=1,418</b>	<b>Physical Work n=1,477</b>	<b>Heavy Manual Labour n=377</b>	<b>P- value</b>
<b>METhrs/wk</b>	6.91 (3.45)	6.95 (3.47)	6.85 (3.35)	6.68 (3.44)	7.85 (3.62)	< 0.001
<b>Age in years</b>	57.67 (5.69)	57.49 (5.78)	57.95 (5.67)	57.85 (5.78)	56.80 (4.80)	0.001
<b>Male Sex</b>	2,511 (49%)	848 (46%)	530 (37%)	814 (55%)	319 (85%)	< 0.001
<b>White Ethnicity</b>	4,874 (95%)	1,750 (95%)	1,339 (94%)	1,416 (96%)	369 (98%)	0.030
<b>Married/Civil Partnership</b>	3,588 (70%)	1,317 (72%)	998 (70%)	1,005 (68%)	268 (71%)	0.140
<b>Highest Education</b>						< 0.001
No Qualification	677 (14%)	114 ( 6%)	183 (13%)	289 (20%)	91 (25%)	
Secondary	1,889 (38%)	671 (38%)	470 (34%)	588 (41%)	160 (43%)	
Further	757 (15%)	217 (12%)	217 (16%)	262 (18%)	61 (17%)	
Degree or equivalent	1,214 (24%)	632 (36%)	380 (27%)	178 (12%)	24 ( 7%)	
Foreign/Other	449 ( 9%)	144 ( 8%)	140 (10%)	133 ( 9%)	32 ( 9%)	
<b>Wealth Quintile</b>						< 0.001
1 (lowest)	667 (13%)	138 ( 8%)	170 (12%)	287 (19%)	72 (19%)	
2	1,107 (22%)	308 (17%)	313 (22%)	378 (26%)	108 (29%)	

3	1,009 (20%)	344 (19%)	290 (20%)	289 (20%)	86 (23%)	
4	1,132 (22%)	467 (25%)	332 (23%)	283 (19%)	50 (13%)	
5 (highest)	1,194 (23%)	580 (32%)	313 (22%)	240 (16%)	61 (16%)	
<b>Self-reported health</b>						< 0.001
Poor	104 (2%)	37 (2%)	29 (2%)	31 (2%)	7 (2%)	
Fair	560 (11%)	180 (10%)	141 (10%)	191 (13%)	48 (13%)	
Good	1,604 (31%)	535 (29%)	431 (30%)	502 (34%)	136 (36%)	
Very good	1,855 (36%)	676 (37%)	537 (38%)	524 (35%)	118 (31%)	
Excellent	986 (19%)	409 (22%)	280 (20%)	229 (16%)	68 (18%)	
<b>Mobility: difficulty walking 100 yards</b>	95 (2%)	35 (2%)	28 (2%)	29 (2%)	3 (1%)	0.470
<b>Current smoker</b>	742 (15%)	198 (11%)	163 (11%)	294 (20%)	87 (23%)	<0.001
<b>Alcohol consumed in last 12 months</b>	4,750 (93%)	1,741 (95%)	1,300 (92%)	1,371 (93%)	338 (90%)	< 0.001

243 Data are presented as mean (SD) for continuous measures, and n (%) for categorical measures.  
244 P-values are for ANOVA for continuous measures and Pearson's chi-squared test for categorical measures.  
245

246 There was a significant interaction between retirement and past occupational activity level  
247 ( $\chi^2(3)=32.59$ ,  $p<0.001$ ). After adjusting for putative confounders, retiring from a sedentary  
248 or standing occupation was associated with an increase in physical activity ( $\beta$ : 0.580 [95%  
249 CI: 0.375, 0.785],  $p<0.001$ ;  $\beta$ : 0.330 [95% CI: 0.095, 0.565],  $p = 0.006$ ) (Table 5). However,  
250 retiring from an occupation involving heavy manual labour was associated with a decrease  
251 in physical activity levels ( $\beta$ : -0.823 [95% CI: -1.440, -0.206],  $p = 0.009$ ). Consistent results  
252 were obtained from fixed-effect multinomial regression with physical activity coded as a  
253 categorical variable (Table S8). These findings are consistent with changes in the  
254 proportion of participants meeting UK physical activity recommendations (11  
255 METhrs/week): the proportion of sedentary workers meeting these recommendations rose  
256 from 46% before retirement to 54% after, and a comparable decrease (from 57% to 43%)  
257 was observed for those retiring from heavy manual labour (Table S9).

258 **Table 5:** Fixed effect linear regression stratified by most recent level of occupational activity (n = 5,109).

METhrs/wk	Unadjusted $\beta$ (95% CI)	P-value	Adjusted $\beta$ (95% CI)	P-value
<b>Sedentary Occupation</b> (n = 1,837)	0.275 (0.105, 0.444)	0.002	0.580 (0.375, 0.785)	<0.001
<b>Standing Occupation</b> (n = 1,418)	0.134 (-0.061, 0.329)	0.177	0.330 (0.095, 0.565)	0.006
<b>Physical Work</b> (n = 1,477)	-0.230 (-0.441, -0.019)	0.033	0.115 (-0.131, 0.362)	0.359
<b>Heavy Manual Labour</b> (n = 377)	-0.803 (-1.346, -0.260)	0.004	-0.823 (-1.440, -0.206)	0.009

259 Data is given for the Beta coefficient associated with retirement, 95% confidence interval and P-value for a for  
260 a Wald test

261 \*Adjusted for participant age, wealth quintile, self-reported health, self-reported mobility,  
262 current smoking status and alcohol consumption in the last 12 months

## 263 Sensitivity Analyses

264 Neither the month of questionnaire completion nor wave number significantly affected the  
265 magnitude or direction of the association between retirement and physical activity (Tables  
266 S10, S11).

267 277 participants retired and then returned to employment, however these participants did  
268 not differ (for the majority of sociodemographic variables considered) from participants  
269 who remained retired (Table S12). Excluding these participants did not substantially affect  
270 the findings (Table S13).

271 Semi-retired participants fell between employed and retired people for the majority of the  
272 sociodemographic variables considered, but were generally more similar to employed  
273 individuals than retired individuals (Table S14). Analyses excluding semi-retired  
274 participants were consistent with our main analyses. (Table S15).

## 275 Discussion

### 276 Principal findings

277 After adjusting for putative confounders, retirement was associated with an increase of 0.6  
278 METhrs/wk. The association between retirement and physical activity differed by past  
279 occupational activity level. Retirement from a sedentary or standing occupation was  
280 associated with a significant increase in physical activity however retirement from a manual  
281 occupation was associated with a significant decrease in activity. We found no differences  
282 between men and women. This is an interesting finding given consistent findings of higher  
283 physical inactivity in females than males (5) and gender differences in occupation types (24).

284 The increase in physical activity reported in this study is consistent with previous findings  
285 for leisure time PA, however literature on the effect of retirement on total physical activity  
286 has previously been inconsistent (10,11,14,15,25). Under the assumptions made in this  
287 study, an increase of 0.6 METhrs/wk corresponds to approximately 18 minutes more mild  
288 activity (2 METS, e.g. walking around the house) or 8 minutes more moderate activity (4.5  
289 METS e.g. leisurely bicycling) per week. As absolute levels of physical activity are generally  
290 low in older adults, a small absolute increase in activity could represent an important  
291 relative increase in activity. Furthermore, the dose-response relationship between physical  
292 activity and health means even a small increase in physical activity can have a substantial  
293 impact on health, particularly in those with low baseline levels of activity (26). Given the  
294 aging population in the UK, and the forthcoming retirement of the 'baby boom' generation,  
295 the aggregate health impacts of increasing physical activity with retirement are likely to be  
296 substantial.

297 There are a number of plausible pathways through which retirement could be associated  
298 with an increase in physical activity. With the cessation of formal work, retirees frequently  
299 have more free time which could be invested in physically active pursuits including exercise,  
300 gardening, volunteering or childcare. Retirement may also be associated with an increase in  
301 household physical activities, such as cleaning or chores, which, may offer substantial health  
302 benefits (25,27). Retirement could also be associated with a shift to more active forms of  
303 transportation, as time constraints associated with travel may be less severe. In England,  
304 adults become eligible for a free bus pass when they reach state pension age, which may  
305 incentivize greater public transport use in older adults (28–30). Public transport use has  
306 been found to be an effective way to incorporate physical activity into daily life and thus  
307 movements away from private, passive forms of transportation over retirement could  
308 represent a key pathway through which physical activity could increase with retirement  
309 (31).

310 The association between retirement and physical activity differed in magnitude and  
311 direction by the activity level of a participant's past occupation. These differences persisted  
312 even after adjusting for wealth and education, thus suggesting that it is the activity level  
313 rather than socioeconomic factors associated with the occupation which drive these  
314 differences. The present study was unable to distinguish between domains of PA, such as  
315 leisure and travel as participants did not provide this information. However, previous  
316 reviews have found that the decrease in physical activity in participants retiring from heavy  
317 manual labour may be due to a decline in occupational activity that is incompletely  
318 compensated for by increases in other activity domains (13).

319 Participants retiring from sedentary occupations reported the highest magnitude of increase  
320 in physical activity. This may be of great public health significance given the transition  
321 towards more sedentary, office-based occupations in many service-based economies (32).  
322 This study highlights the potential importance of public health interventions targeted at the  
323 retirement period, but the existing volume of evidence for such interventions is modest,  
324 particularly for workplace-based interventions (33). Interventions to encourage active

325 habits or to increase leisure-time activity in workers engaged in heavy manual labour prior  
326 to retirement could help compensate for the decline in occupational activity associated with  
327 retirement in this group. Interventions to minimise work-related injury, such as training in  
328 lifting techniques, worker exercise programmes to improve strength and flexibility and job  
329 redesign could also be effective in improving the capacity of retirees to participate in  
330 physical activity in later life (34).

### 331 Study Strengths and Limitations

332 The ELSA cohort is broadly representative of the English population, except for limited  
333 ethnic diversity (35). Between-wave comparisons have highlighted that participants lost to  
334 follow-up are on average older, less affluent, less educated, more likely to be from a non-  
335 managerial occupation and more likely to suffer from a chronic illness than those with  
336 complete follow-up (35). However, unrepresentative participant drop-out is commonly  
337 reported in nationwide surveys (36).

338 Residential environmental factors could have moderated or mediated the association  
339 observed in this study. However, in a study of intra-individual changes in physical activity  
340 we would have expected any such impacts to be concentrated among participants who  
341 moved home over the retirement transition, and no information about residential location  
342 or moving home was available in this dataset (37).

343 Using self-reported retirement status allows for subjectivity in how retirement is defined,  
344 which is valuable given the increasingly individualised nature of retirement as a late-life  
345 transition. However, ceasing work, drawing a pension and reaching state pension age are not  
346 necessarily coincident and thus self-reported retirement status comes at the detriment to  
347 inter-individual comparability. This makes it difficult to infer about the forces driving the  
348 associations observed, as there may be few definitive elements characterising retirement.

349 This study assumed that each bout of physical activity was 30 minutes long based on  
350 evidence indicating that older adults often accumulate activity in relatively short bouts (38–  
351 40). In reality one might expect that ‘mild’ activities may be sustained for longer durations  
352 than vigorous activities, thus introducing error that is differential upon activity intensity.  
353 However, there is no reason to believe that the duration of physical activity would differ  
354 systematically by retirement status or occupational activity level and thus, whilst the  
355 assumption of constant activity duration may reduce the accuracy of the magnitude of  
356 change in METhrs/wk, it is unlikely to lead to differential bias in the evaluation of the  
357 physical activity implications of retirement. The agreement between the categorical and  
358 continuous measures of physical activity further supports the conclusion of a relative  
359 increase in physical activity with retirement.

360 Physical activity was self-reported and thus outcome ascertainment is likely to be affected  
361 by recall and social desirability bias (41). It is plausible that participants may recall physical  
362 activity more accurately after retirement, as with more free-time, physical activity may form



363 a more important and memorable, part of one's day. This could lead to an over-estimation of  
364 the association between retirement and physical activity.

### 365 Conclusion

366 This study found retirement to be associated with a significant increase in total physical  
367 activity. Retirement from an occupation involving heavy manual labour is associated with a  
368 significant decrease in physical activity, whereas retirement from a sedentary or standing  
369 occupation was found to be associated with a significant increase in activity.

370 The findings of this study highlight the potential importance of public health interventions  
371 targeted at this transitional period, to induce sustainable change in physical activity  
372 behaviours (42).

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380

381 **Competing Interest Declaration:**

382 The authors report no competing interests.

383

384 **Ethical Approval Statement:**

385

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