Supplementary Materials:

Pontzer et al. *Daily Energy Expenditure through the Human Life Course*

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Material and Methods

1. Doubly Labeled Water Database

Data were taken from IAEA Doubly Labelled Water (DLW) Database, version 3.1,

completed April, 2020 (*16*). This version of the database comprises 6,743 measurements of total

- expenditure using the doubly labeled water method. Of these, a total of 6,421 had valid data for
- total expenditure, fat free mass, fat mass, sex, and age. These 6,421 measurements were used in
- this analysis. This dataset was augmented with published basal expenditure measurements for
- n=136 neonates and infants (*31-36*) that included fat free mass and fat mass. Malnourished or

 preterm infants were excluded. For sources that provided cohort means rather than individual subject measurements (*33, 36*) means were entered as single values into the dataset without reweighting to reflect sample size. This approach resulted in 77 measures of basal expenditure, fat free mass, and fat mass for n=136 subjects. We also added to the dataset published basal and total expenditure measurements of n=141 women before, during, and after pregnancy (*37-39*) 461 that included fat free mass and fat mass. These measurements were grouped as pre-pregnancy, $1st$ 462 trimester, $2nd$ trimester, $3rd$ trimester, and post-partum for analysis.

463 In the doubly labeled water method (*5*), subjects were administered a precisely measured 464 dose of water enriched in ${}^{2}H_{2}O$ and $H_{2}{}^{18}O$. The subject's body water pool is thus enriched in 465 deuterium $({}^{2}H)$ and ${}^{18}O$. The initial increase in body water enrichment from pre-dose values is 466 used to calculate the size of the body water pool, measured as the dilution space for deuterium (467 (N_d) and ^{18}O (N_o). These isotopes are then depleted from the body water pool over time: both isotopes are depleted *via* water loss, whereas ¹⁸ 468 O is also lost *via* carbon dioxide production. 469 Subtracting the rate (%/d) of deuterium depletion (k_d) from the rate of ¹⁸O depletion (k_o), and 470 multiplying the size of the body water pool (derived from N_d and N_o) provided the rate of carbon 471 doxide production, rCO_2 . Entries in the DLW database include the original k and N values for 472 each subject, which were then used to calculate $CO₂$ using a common equation that has been 473 validated in subjects across the lifespan (17) . The rate of $CO₂$ production, along with each 474 subject's reported food quotient, was then used to calculate energy expenditure (MJ/d) using the 475 Weir equation (*40*). We used the food quotients reported in the original studies to calculate total 476 energy expenditure from $rCO₂$ for each subject.

477 The size of the body water pool, determined from N_d and N_o , was used to establish FFM, 478 using hydration constants for fat free mass taken from empirical studies. Other anthropometric

 variables (age, height, body mass, sex) were measured using standard protocols. Fat mass was calculated as (body mass) – (fat free mass).

2. Basal Expenditure, Activity Expenditure, and Physical Activityl Level (PAL)

 A total of 2,008 subjects in the database had associated basal expenditure, measured *via* respirometry. For these subjects, we analyzed basal expenditure, activity expenditure, and "physical activity level" (PAL). Activity expenditure was calculated as [0.9(total expenditure) – (basal expenditure)] which subtracts basal expenditure and the assumed thermic effect of food [estimated at 0.1(total expenditure)] from total expenditure. The PAL ratio was calculated as (total expenditure)/(basal expenditure). As noted above, the basal expenditure dataset was augmented with measurements from neonates and infants, but these additional measures do not have associated total expenditure and could not be used to calculate activity expenditure or PAL.

3. Predictive Models for Total, Basal, and Activity Expenditures and PAL

 We used general linear models to regress measures of energy expenditure against anthropometric variables. We used the base package in R version 4.0.3 (*41*) for all analyses. General linear models were implemented using the lm function. These models were used to develop predictive equations for total expenditure for clinical and research applications, and to determine the relative contribution of different variables to total expenditure and its components. Given the marked changes in metabolic rate over the lifespan (Figure 1, Figure 2) we calculated 497 these models separately for each life history stage: infants $(0 - 1 y)$, juveniles $(1 - 20 y)$, adults $(20 - 60 \text{ y})$, and older adults $(60 + \text{ y})$. These age ranges were identified using segmented regression analysis. Results of these models are shown in Table S2.

 Figure S1. Total expenditure (TEE) increases with body size in a power-law manner. For the entire dataset (n = 6,407): **A.** the power-law regression for total body mass (*ln*TEE = 0.593 ± 0.004 *ln*Mass – 503 0.214 \pm 0.018, p < 0.001, adj. $r^2 = 0.73$, model std. err. = 0.223, df = 6419) is less predictive than the 504 regression for **B.** fat free mass (InTEE = 0.708 ± 0.004 InFFM – 0.391 ± 0.015, p < 0.001, adj. $r^2 = 0.83$, model std. err. = 0.176, df = 6419). For both body mass and fat free mass regressions, power-law regressions outperform linear models, particularly at the smallest body sizes. For all models, for both body mass and fat free mass, children have elevated total expenditure, clustering above the trend line. Children also exhibit elevated basal and activity expenditures (Figure S2). Power-law regressions have an exponent < 1.0, and linear regressions (dashed: linear regression through all data; dotted: linear regression through adults only) have a positive intercept, indicating that simple ratios of **C.** (total expenditure)/(body mass) or **D.** (total expenditure)/(fat free mass) do not adequately control for differences in body size (*18*) as smaller individuals will tend to have higher ratios. Lines in **C** and **D** are lowess with span 1/6. In body mass regressions (panel **A**, power and linear models) and the ratio of (total expenditure)/(body mass) (**C**), adult males cluster above the trend line while females cluster below due to sex differences in body composition. In contrast, males and females fit the fat free mass regressions (**B**) and ratio (**D**) equally well.

 Figure S2. Infants and children exhibit different relationships between fat free mass and expenditure and the PAL ratio. **A:** For total expenditure (TEE), regressions for infants (age <1 y, left regression line) and adults (right regression line) intersect for neonates, at the smallest body size. However, the slopes differ, with the infants' regression and 95% CI (gray region) falling outside of that for adults (age 20 – 60 y, 522 extrapolated dashed line). Juvelines (age $1 - 20$ y, middle regression line) are elevated, with a regression 523 outside the 95% CI of adults. Juvenile $(1 - 20 y)$ regressions (with 95%CI) are also elevated for basal expenditure (BEE) (**B**), activity expenditure (AEE) (**C**), and PAL (**D**) compared to adults (20 – 60 y). Sex differences in expenditure (**A-D**) are attributable to differences in fat free mass. Note that total and basal expenditures are measured directly. Activity expenditure is calculated as (0.9TEE – BEE), and PAL is calculated as (TEE/BEE); see Methods.

Figure S3. Changes in body composition over the lifespan: **A.** Body mass; **B.** Fat free mass; **C.** Fat Mass;

and **D.** Body fat percentage.

4. Adjusted Expenditures

532 We used general linear models with fat free mass and fat mass in adults $(20 - 60 \text{ y})$ to 533 calculate adjusted total expenditure and adjusted basal expenditure. The $20 - 60$ y age range was used as the basis for analyses because segmented regression analysis consistently identified this period as stable with respect to size-adjusted total expenditure (see below). 536 We used models 2 and 5 in Table S2, which have the form $ln(Expenditure)~ln(FFM) +$ *ln*(Fat Mass) and were implemented using the lm function in base R version 4.0.3 (*41*). We used *ln*-transformed variables due to the inherent power-law relationship between body size and both total and basal expenditure (ref. *2*; see Figure 1, Figure S1). Predicted values for each subject, given their fat free mass and fat mass, were calculated from the model using the pred() function; these *ln*-transformed values were converted back into MJ as exp(Predicted). Residuals for each subject were calculated as (Observed – Predicted) expenditure, and were then used to calculate adjusted expenditures as: 544 Adjusted Expenditure $= 1 +$ Residual / Predicted [1] The advantage of expressing residuals as a percentage of the predicted value is that it allows us to compare residuals across the range of age and body size in the dataset. Raw residuals (MJ) do not permit direct comparison because the relationship between size and expenditure is heteroscedastic; the magnitude of residuals increases with size (see Figure S1). Ln-transformed residuals (*ln*MJ) avoid this problem but are more difficult to interpret. Adjusted expenditures, used here, provide an easily interpretable measure of deviation from expected values. An adjusted expenditure value of 100% indicates that a subject's observed total or basal expenditure matches the value predicted for their fat free mass and fat mass, based on the general linear model derived for adults. An adjusted expenditure of 120% indicates an observed total or basal

 expenditure value that exceeds the predicted value for their fat free mass and fat mass by 20%. Similarly, an adjusted expenditure of 80% means the subject's measured expenditure was 20% lower than predicted for their fat free mass and fat mass using the adult model. Adjusted total expenditure and adjusted basal expenditure values for each age-sex cohort are given in Table S3. Within each metabolic life history stage we used general linear models (lm function in R) to investigate the effects of sex and age on adjusted total and basal expenditure.

 This same approach was used to calculate adjusted basal expenditure as a proportion of 561 total expenditure (Figure 2D), hereafter termed adjusted BEE_{TEE} . Residual_{BEE-TEE}, the deviation of observed basal expenditure from the adult total expenditure regression (eq. 2 in Table S2), was calculated as (Observed Basal Expenditure – Predicted Total Expenditure) and then used to 564 calculate adjusted BEE_{TER} as

565 Adjusted BEE_{TEE} = 1 + Residual_{BEE-TEE} / Predicted Total Expenditure [2] 566 When adjusted $BEE_{TEE} = 80\%$, observed basal expenditure is equal to 80% of predicted total 567 expenditure given the subject's fat free mass and fat mass. Adjusted BEE_{TEE} is equivalent to adjusted basal expenditure (Figure S4) but provides some analytical advantages. The derivation 569 of adjusted BEE_{TEE} approach applies identical manipulations to observed total expenditure and observed basal expenditure and therefore maintains them in directly comparable units. The ratio of (adjusted total expenditure)/(adjusted basal expenditure) is identical to the PAL ratio of (total expenditure)/(basal expenditure), and the difference (0.9adjusted total expenditure– adjusted basal expenditure) is proportional to activity expenditure (Figure S4). Plotting adjusted total 574 expenditure and adjusted BEE_{TEE} over the lifespan (Figure 2D) therefore shows both the relative magnitudes of total and basal expenditure and their relationship to one another in comparable units.

578 **Figure S4.** Left: Adjusted BEE_{TEE} corresponds strongly to adjusted basal expenditure (Adj. BEE). Center: 579 The ratio of adjusted total expenditure (adj. TEE) to adjusted BEE_{TEE} is identical to the PAL ratio. Right: 580 The difference (0.9adjusted total expenditure – adjusted BEE_{TEE}) is proportional to activity energy 581 expenditure (AEE). Gray lines: center panel: $y = x$, right panel: $y = 10x$.

5. Segmented Regression Analysis

 We used segmented regression analysis to determine the change points in the relationship between adjusted expenditure and age. We used the Segmented (version 1.1-0) package in R (*42*). For adjusted total expenditure, we examined a range of models with 0 to 5 change points, using the npsi= term in the segmented() function. This approach does not specify the location or value of change points, only the number of them. Each increase in the number of 588 change points from 0 to 3 improved the model adj. R^2 and standard error considerably. Increasing the number of change points further to 4 or 5 did not improve the model, and the additional change points identifed by the segmented() function fell near the change points for the 3-change point model. We therefore selected the 3-change point model as the best fit for adjusted total expenditure in this dataset. Segmented regression results are shown in Table S4. A similar 3-change point segmented regression approach was conducted for adjusted basal 594 expenditure (Figure S4) and adjusted BEE_{TEE} (Figure 2D). We note that the decline in adjusted 595 basal expenditure and adjusted BEE_{TEE} in older adults begins earlier (as identified by segmented

 regression analysis) than does the decline in adjusted total expenditure among older adults. However, this difference may reflect the relative paucity of basal expenditure measurements for 598 subjects $40 - 60$ y. Additional measurements are needed to determine whether the decline in basal expenditure does in fact begin earlier than the decline in total expedinture. Here, we view the timing as essentially coincident and interpret the change point in adjusted total expenditure (~60 y), which is determined with a greater number of measurements, as more accurate and reliable.

 Having established that 3 break points provided the best fit for this dataset, we examined whether changes in the age range used to calculate adjusted total energy expenditure affected the age break-points identified by segmented regression. When the age range used to calculate 606 adjusted expenditure was set at $20 - 60$ y, the set of break point (95% CI) was: 0.69 (0.61-0.76), 607 20.46 (19.77-21.15), 62.99 (60.14-65.85). When the age range was expanded to $15 - 70$ y, break 608 points determined through segmented regression were effectively unchanged: 0.69 ($0.62 - 0.76$), 21.40 (20.60-22.19), 61.32 (58.60-64.03). Break points were also unchanged when the initial age range for adjusted expenditure was limited to 30 – 50 y: 0.69 (0.62-0.77), 20.56 (19.84-21.27), 62.85 (59.97-65.74).

 Figure S5. Segmented regression analysis of adjusted TEE (**A**) and adjusted BEE (**B**). In both panels, the black line and gray shaded confidence region depicts the 3 change-point regression. For adjusted TEE, segmented regressions are also shown for 2 change points (red), 4 change points (yellow), and 5 change points (green). Segmented regression statistics are given in Table S4.

6. Organ Size and Basal Expenditure

 Measuring the metabolic rate of individual organs is notoriously challenging, and the available data come from only a small number of studies. The available data indicate that organs 621 differ markedly in their mass-specific metabolic rates at rest (43). The heart (1848 kJ kg⁻¹ d⁻¹), 622 liver (840 kJ kg⁻¹ d⁻¹), brain (1008 kJ kg⁻¹ d⁻¹), and kidneys (1848 kJ kg⁻¹ d⁻¹) have much greater mass-specific metabolic rates at rest than do muscle (55 kJ kg⁻¹ d⁻¹), other lean tissue (50 kJ kg⁻¹) d⁻¹), and fat (19 kJ kg⁻¹ d⁻¹). Consequently, the heart, liver, brain, and kidneys combined account for ~60% of basal expenditure in adults (*21, 22, 44, 45*). In infants and children, these metabolically active organs constitute a larger proportion of body mass. The whole body mass- specific basal expenditure [i.e., (basal expenditure)/(body mass), or (basal expenditure)/(fat free mass)] for infants and children is therefore expected to be greater than adults' due to the greater proportion of metabolically active organs early in life adults (*21, 22, 44, 45*). Similarly, reduced organ sizes in elderly subjects may result in declining basal expenditure (*21*). To examine this effect of organ size on basal expenditure in our dataset, we used published references for organ size to determine the mass of the metabolically active organs 633 (heart, liver, brain, and kidneys) as a percentage of body mass or fat free mass for subjects $0 - 12$ y (*22, 44-46*), 15 to 60 y (*21, 22*), and 60 to 100 y (*21, 47*). We used these relationships to estimate the combined mass of the metabolically active organs (heart, liver, brain, kidneys) for each subject in our dataset. We then subtracted the mass of the metabolically active organs from measured fat free mass to calculate the mass of "other fat free mass". These two measures, along with measured fat mass, provided a three-compartment model for each subject: metabolically active organs, other fat free mass, and fat (Figure S6A).

 Following previous studies (*21-25*), we assigned mass-specific metabolic rates to each compartment and estimated basal expenditure for each subject. We used reported mass-specific metabolic rates for the heart, liver, brain, and kidneys (see above; (*43*)) and age-related changes 643 in the proportions of these organs for subjects $0 - 12$ y (22, 46), 15 to 60 y (21-25), and 60 to 100 y (*21, 23, 25, 47*) to calculate an age-based weighted mass-specific metabolic rate for the metabolically active organ compartment. We averaged the mass-specific metabolic rates of resting muscle and other lean tissue (see above; $(21, 22)$) and assigned a value of 52.5 kJ kg⁻¹ d⁻¹ 647 to "other fat free mass", and we used a mass-specific metabolic rate of 19 kJ kg⁻¹ d⁻¹ for fat. Results are shown in Figure S6. Due to the greater proportion of metabolically active organs in early life, the estimated basal expenditure from the three-compartment model follows a 650 power-law relationship with FFM (using age cohort means, BEE= 0.38 FFM^{0.75}; Figure S6B) that is similar to that calculated from observed basal expenditure in our dataset (see Table S2 and *7. Modeling the Effects of Physical Activity and Tissue Specific Metabolism*, below). Estimated BEE from the three-compartment model produced mass-specific metabolic rates that are considerably higher for infants and children than for adults and roughly consistent with observed age-related changes in (basal expenditure)/(fat free mass) (Figure S6C). Thus, changes in organ size can account for much of the variation in basal expenditure across the lifespan observed in our dataset.

 Nonetheless, observed basal expenditure was ~30% greater early in life, and ~20% lower in older adults, than estimated basal expenditure from the three-compartment model (Figure S6D). The departures from estimated basal expenditure suggest that the mass-specific metabolic rates of one or more organ compartments are considerably higher early in life, and lower late in life, than they are in middle-aged adults, consistent with previous assessments (*21-25*). It is

 notable, in this context, that observed basal expenditure for neonates is nearly identical to basal expenditure estimated from the three-comparment model, which assumes adult-like tissue metabolic rates (Figure S6B,C,D). Observed basal expenditure for neonates is thus consistent with the hypothesis that the mass-specific metabolic rates of their organs are similar to those of other adults, specifically the mother.

 Figure S6. Organ sizes and BEE. A. The relative proportions of metabolically active organs (heart, brain, liver, kidneys), other fat free mass (FFM), and fat changes over the life course. Age cohort means are shown. **B.** Consequently, estimated basal expenditure (BEE) from the three-compartment model increases with fat free mass (FFM) in a manner similar to observed basal expenditure, with **C.** greater whole body mass-specific basal expenditure (BEE/FFM) early in life. **D.** Observed basal expenditure is ~30% greater early in life, and ~20% lower after age 60 y, than estimated basal expenditure from the three-compartment model (shown as the ratio of BEE/est.BEE). In panels **B**, **C**, and **D**, age-cohort means for observed (black) and estimated (magenta) basal expenditure are shown.

7. Modeling the Effects of Physical Activity and Tissue Specific Metabolism

 We constructed two simple models to examine the contributions of physical activity and variation in tissue metabolic rate to total and basal expenditure. In the simplest version, we used 680 the observed relationship between basal expenditure and tat free mass for all adults $20 - 60$ y determined from linear regression of *ln*(basal expenditure) and *ln*(fat free mass) (untransformed 682 regression equation: basal expenditure = 0.32 (fat free mass)^{0.75}, adj. r^2 = 0.60, df = 1684, p < 0.0001) to model basal expenditure as 684 Basal expenditure = 0.32 TM_{age} (fat free mass)^{0.75} [3] 685 The TM_{age} term is tissue metabolic rate, a multiplier between 0 and 2 reflecting a relative 686 increase (TM_{age} > 1.0) or decrease (TM_{age} < 1.0) in organ metabolic rate relative that expected 687 from the power-law regression for adults. Note that, even when $TM_{age} = 1.0$, smaller individuals are expected to exhibit greater mass-specific basal expenditure (that is, a greater basal expenditure per kg body weight) due to the power-law relationship between basal expenditure and fat free mass. Further, we note that the power-law relationship between basal expenditure and fat free mass for adults is similar to that produced when estimating basal expenditure from organ sizes (see *Organ Size and Basal Expenditure*, above). Thus, variation in TMage reflects modeled changes in tissue metabolic rate *in addition* to power-law scaling effects, and also, in effect, in addition to changes in basal expenditure due to age-related changes in organ size and 695 proportion. To model variation in organ activity over the lifespan, we either 1) maintained TM_{age} 696 at adult levels (TM_{age} = 1.0) over the entire lifespan, or 2) had TM_{age} follow the trajectory of adjusted basal expenditure with age (Figure S8).

 To incorporate effects of fat mass into the model, we constructed a second version of the model in which basal expenditure was modeled following the observed relationship with FFM 700 and fat mass for adults $20 - 60$ y,

701 Basal expenditure = 0.32 TM_{age} (fat free mass)^{0.7544} (fat mass)^{0.0003} [4] 702 As with the fat free mass model (eq. 3), we either maintained TM_{age} at 1.0 over the life span or modeled it using the trajectory of adjusted basal expenditure. Activity expenditure was modeled as a function of physical activity and body mass assuming larger indivduals expend more energy during activity. We began with activity expenditure, calculated as [0.9(total expenditure) – (basal expenditure)] as described above. The 707 observed ratio of (activity expenditure)/(fat free mass) for adults $20 - 60$ y was 0.07 MJ d⁻¹ kg⁻¹. We therefore modeled activity expenditure as 709 Activity expenditure = 0.07 PA_{age} (fat free mass) [5]

 To incorporate effects of fat mass, we constructed a second version using the ratio of (activity 711 expenditure)/(body weight) for adults $20 - 60y$.

$$
711 \quad \text{Exponential} \times \text{[000]} \text{ weight} \text{ for a units } 20 \quad \text{00} \text{y},
$$

712 Activity expenditure =
$$
0.04
$$
 PA_{age} (body weight) [6]

 In both equations, PAage represents the level of physical activity relative to the mean value for 20 714 – 60 y adults. PA_{age} could either remain constant at adult levels (PA_{age}=1.0) over the lifespan or follow the trajectory of physical activity measured *via* accelerometry, which peaks between 5 – 716 10 y, declines rapidly through adolescence, and then declines more slowly beginning at \sim 40 y (*11-13, 26, 27, 48-51*). Different measures of physical activity (*e.g*., moderate and vigorous PA, mean counts per min., total accelerometry counts) exhibit somewhat different trajectories over the lifespan, but the patterns are strongly correlated; all measures show the greatest activity at 5- 10 y and declining activity in older adults (Figure S7). We chose total accelerometry counts (*11,*

 26), which sum all movement per 24-hour period, to model age-related changes in PAage. We chose total counts because activity energy expenditure should reflect the summed cost of all activity, not only activity at moderate and vigorous intensities. Further, the amplitude of change in moderate and vigorous activity over the lifespan is considerably larger than the observed changes in adjusted total expenditure or adjusted activity expenditure (Figure S10). Determining the relative contributions of different measures of physical activity to total expenditure is beyond the scope of the simple modeling approach here and remains an important task for future

research.

 Figure S7. Modeling physical activity across the lifespan. **A.** Across studies and countries, accelerometer-measured physical activity rises through infancy and early childhood, peaking between 5 and 10y before declining to adult levels in the teenage years (*11-13, 26, 27, 48-51*). Physical activity declines again, more slowly, in older adults. The onset of decline in older adults varies somewhat across studies, beginning between ~40 y and ~60 y. Here, physical activity is shown as minutes/day of moderate and vigorous physical activity. Other measures (*e.g*., total accelerometer counts; mean counts/min, vector magnitude) follow a similar pattern of physical activity over the life span (*11, 26*). **B.** The increase in 738 physical activity from 0 to ~10 y is mirrored by the steady decline in total daily sleep duration during this period (*52-55*).

741 **Figure S8.** Results of the fat free mass model. Observed expenditures exhibit a marked age effect on the 742 relationship between expenditure and fat free mass that is evident in both absolute (Figure 1C) and 743 adjusted (Figure 2D) measures. **A.** If physical activity (PA) and cellular metabolism (TM) remain constant 744 at adult levels, age effects do not emerge from the model. **B.** When only TM varies, age effects emerge 745 for total expenditure (TEE) and basal expenditure (BEE), but not activity expenditure (AEE; gray arrow). 746 **C.** Conversely, if only physical activity varies age effects emerge for AEE and TEE but not BEE (black 747 arrows). Adjusted TEE also peaks later in childhood and declines earlier in adulthood (red arrows) than 748 observed. **D.** Varying both PA and TM gives model outputs similar to observed expenditures.

750 **Figure S9.** Results of the fat free mass and fat mass model. Model outputs are similar to those of the fat 751 free mass model (Figure S8). The scenario that best matches the observed relationships between fat free 752 mass, age, and expenditure is D, in which AEE is influenced by age-related variation in both physical 753 activity and cellular metabolism. Abbreviations as in Fig S8.

8. Physical Activity, Activity Expenditure and PAL

 To further interrogate our simple model of expenditure and the contribution of physical activity, we examined the agreement between accelerometery-measured physical activity, adjusted activity expenditure, and modeled PAL over the lifespan. First, as noted in our discussion of the simple expenditure model (see above; Figures 3, S8, S9), moderate and vigorous physical activity and total accelerometry counts show a similar shape profile when plotted against age, but moderate and vigorous physical activity shows a greater amplitude of 761 change over the lifespan (Figure S10). Moderate and vigorous physical activity reach a peak ~4-762 times greater than the mean values observed for $20 - 30$ y men and women, far greater than the amplitude of change in adjusted total expenditure.

 We used adjusted total and basal expenditures to model activity expenditure and PAL over the lifespan for comparison with published accelerometry measures of physical activity. Modeling activity expenditure and PAL was preferable because our dataset has no subjects less than 3 y with measures of both total and basal expenditure, and only 4 subjects under the age of 6 y with both measures (Table S1). Using values of adjusted total expenditure and adjusted BEETEE (basal expenditure expressed as a percentage of total expenditure) for age cohorts from Table S3 enabled us to model activity expenditure and PAL for this critical early period of development, in which both physical activity and expenditure change substantially. We modeled 772 adjusted activity expenditure as [(adjusted total expenditure) – (adjusted BEE_{TEE})] and PAL as 773 [(adjusted total expenditure) / (adjusted BEE_{TE})], which as we show in Figure S4 corelate strongly with unadjusted measures of activity expenditure and PAL, respectively. Modeled adjusted activity expenditure and PAL showed a somewhat different pattern of change over the lifecoure than either total counts or moderate and vigorous activity measured via

 Figure S10. A. Physical activity measured via accelerometry from published analyses (*11-13, 26, 27,* 896 48-51) and **B.** modeled activity expenditure and PAL calculated from cohort means for adjusted total
897 expenditure and adjusted BEE_{TEE} in Table S3. Accelerometry measures and modeled activity expend 897 expenditure and adjusted BEE_{TEE} in Table S3. Accelerometry measures and modeled activity expenditure 898 are normalized to mean values for 20 – 30 y subjects. are normalized to mean values for $20 - 30$ y subjects.

Table S3. Adjusted total expenditure (TEE), Adjusted basal expenditure (BEE), and Adjusted BEE_{TEE}. *Infant data from the literature, males and females pooled. N values for infant BEE (0 to 2 years) indicate number of entries and (number of individuals).

902 **Table S4.** Segmented Regression Analyses

