



European Journal of Sport Science

Routledge

ISSN: (Print) (Online) Journal homepage: <u>https://www.tandfonline.com/loi/tejs20</u>

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To cite this article: Emilio Villa-González, Yaira Barranco-Ruiz, Antonio García-Hermoso & Avery D. Faigenbaum (2022): Efficacy of school-based interventions for improving muscular fitness outcomes in children: A systematic review and meta-analysis, European Journal of Sport Science, DOI: <u>10.1080/17461391.2022.2029578</u>

To link to this article: <u>https://doi.org/10.1080/17461391.2022.2029578</u>



Accepted author version posted online: 13 Jan 2022.

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Publisher: Taylor & Francis & European College of Sport Science **Journal:** *European Journal of Sport Science* **DOI:** 10.1080/17461391.2022.2029578

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Efficacy of school- based interventions for improving muscular fitness outcomes in children: A systematic review and meta- analysis

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Funding information

AGH is a Miguel Servet Fellow (Instituto de Salud Carlos III-FSE - CP18/0150).

Abstract

The World Health Organization recommends that children should engage in an average of 60 minutes of moderate-to-vigorous physical activity (MVPA) per day and should perform activities that strengthen muscle and bone at least 3 days a week. Public health professionals as well as pediatric researchers have identified schools as a strategic place to promote muscular strength development. Thus, the aim of this systematic review and meta-analysis was to investigate the efficacy of school-based exercise interventions for improving muscular fitness (MF) in children. Searches were conducted in three databases. Eligible criteria were randomized and non-randomized controlled trials evaluating the effects of school-based exercise interventions on MF (i.e., muscular strength, muscular power, and local muscular endurance) in children under 13 years of age. Risk of bias by the National Institutes of Health tool was appraised, and pooled effect sizes (Hedges'g) were calculated using random-effects inverse-variance analyses.

Seventeen studies enrolling 1653 children (28% girls were analyzed). Exercise interventions, mostly combined interventions targeting selected domains of MF, were associated with significant moderate increases in local muscular endurance (g=0.65 95% CI, 0.13 to 1.17, p=0.020; I^2 =85.0%) and muscular strength and muscular power (g=0.33 95% CI, 0.16 to 0.51, p=0.001; I^2 =59.3%), with higher effects using interventions with \geq 3 sessions per week. Our findings indicate that school-based exercise that includes strength building exercises may improve MF in children and, consequently, prepare modern day youth for the demands of exercise and sport activities.

Systematic review registration: PROSPERO CRD42021237323.

Highlights

- School-based muscle and bone strengthening exercises performed at least 3 days per week may serve to support the development of muscular fitness in girls and boys
- Integrative interventions that include a variety of strength and conditioning activities seem to be a promising strategy to promote muscular fitness in school environment
- Future research should standardize MF assessment methods for use with children in the school context and should include interventions with girls
- It is of interest to a growing number of health care providers, fitness professionals and physical education teachers to encourage participation in well-designed muscle and bone strengthening exercises.

KEYWORDS

Physical activity; strength training; school context; youth

Efficacy of school- based interventions for improving muscular fitness outcomes in children: A systematic review and meta- analysis

Introduction

The 2020 update to the World Health Organization (WHO) physical activity (PA) guidelines recommend that children should engage in at least an average of 60 minutes of moderate-tovigorous physical activity (MVPA) per day and should also perform vigorous intensity aerobic activities, as well as muscle and bone strengthening exercises at least three times per week (Bull et al., 2020). In school-age youth, regular MVPA is associated with improvements in cardiometabolic health, body composition, academic achievement, and health-related quality of life (Piercy et al., 2018). Moreover, regular participation in muscle and bone strengthening exercises is associated with favorable changes in musculoskeletal health, muscular fitness (i.e., muscular strength, muscular power and local muscular endurance) and mental health (Aubert et al., 2018). Despite this evidence, the Global Matrix 3.0 Physical Activity Report Card Grades evaluating a total of 49 countries indicated that only a 34%-46% of children and youth meet the minimum recommendation of at least 60 min of MVPA per day (Aubert et al., 2018).

Since PA behaviors are developed early in life and may persist throughout childhood and adolescence (Telama et al., 1997), adequate PA level in childhood may also be important for the prevention of obesity and chronic diseases later in life (Hjorth et al., 2014). Notably, muscular fitness (MF) phenotypes tend to track from childhood to adulthood, and therefore weak children are likely to become weak adults unless strategies that target strength development are introduced early in life (Fraser et al., 2021).

Low levels of MF in children are associated with poor motor competence, functional limitations and adverse health outcomes (García-Hermoso et al., 2019; Smith et al., 2014). Recent findings indicate that selected measures of MF in modern-day youths are lower than in previous generations (Faigenbaum et al., 2019; Sandercock & Cohen, 2019; Tomkinson et al., 2021). Notably, a study from Australia found that the standing long jump performance of children and adolescents declined a 5.6% and 5.8% in boys and girls, respectively, since 2000 (Tomkinson et al., 2021), and Sandercock and Cohen reported a decline in muscular strength (assessed with the bent-arm hang, sit-ups and handgrip tests) in 10-year-old English children from 1998 to 2014 (Sandercock & Cohen, 2019). Similar secular trends in MF were reported in youth from Slovania (Đurić et al., 2021), Spain (Chulvi-Medrano et al.,

2020), New Zealand (Albon et al., 2010) and the United States (Tomkinson et al., 2021). Despite the growing body of evidence supporting the health and fitness benefits of muscle and bone strengthening exercises for school-age youth (García-Hermoso et al., 2019; Lloyd et al., 2014; Smith et al., 2019), the importance of enhancing MF early in life is often overshadowed by general recommendations to accumulate at least 60 minutes of MVPA daily (Faigenbaum et al., 2020).

Opportunities for children to be physically active have declined in many countries in recent decades due to environmental factors, technology, social media and school policies (Organization, 2010). Public health professionals as well as pediatric researchers have identified schools as a strategic place to promote PA as an ongoing lifestyle choice (Bull et al., 2020; Collins et al., 2018; Poitras et al., 2016; Tercedor et al., 2017). Since most children have the emotional maturity to begin participating in sport activities by 5 to 7 years of age, they may also be ready for some type of structured muscle and bone strengthening exercises that is consistent with their needs, abilities and interests (Stricker et al., 2020).

The benefits of muscle and bone strengthening exercises are well established, supported by position stands from leading organizations (Faigenbaum et al., 2009; Lloyd et al., 2014; Stratton et al., 2004). However, a recent systematic review and meta-analysis (Cox et al., 2020) found a significant small effect for school-based MF interventions in adolescent boys. Across the eleven studies included in the aforementioned report (Cox et al., 2020), MSBE that included strength exercises with free weights (barbells and dumbbells) and weight machines and plyometric exercises that included jumps and hops demonstrated the greatest effect when compared to other forms of RT (e.g., body weight exercises). Due to the importance of targeting strength deficits earlier in life with structured programs as well as the observable health and fitness benefits of muscle and bone strengthening exercises on young girls (Faigenbaum et al., 2020; Stricker et al., 2020) , the aim of this systematic review and meta-analysis was to investigate the efficacy of school-based exercise interventions for improving MF in girls and boys under 13 years old.

Materials and methods

This systematic review and meta-analysis were registered in the PROSPERO International Prospective Register of Systematic Reviews on 22th March, 2021 (Registration number: CRD42021237323). We followed the recommendations of preferred reporting items for systematic reviews and meta-analyses (The PRISMA 2020 statement) (Page et al., 2021). The PRISMA (main and abstract) checklist can be found in supplementary materials. *Eligibility Criteria* The study selection protocol was adapted from Cox et al. (Cox et al., 2020). Studies were eligible if they contained an intervention where the main purpose was to promote PA in the school environment, with the primary outcome of increasing objectively measured MF, i.e., those interventions that included muscle and bone strengthening exercises. Included studies investigated healthy girls and boys <13 years old (i.e., mostly in primary school). Reports that involved youth ≥ 13 years of age were excluded. The selection of this age-based cut-off is mainly since this age criterion is recommended by the International Consensus on Youth Resistance Training (Lloyd et al., 2014). In this consensus, it is clarified that childhood represents the developmental period of life from the end of childhood to the beginning of adolescence (generally up to the age of 11 and 13, respectively for boys and girls) who have not developed secondary sexual characteristics. Studies must have been conducted in a school setting on weekdays (including morning and afternoon hours) during the academic year. All studies included MF measures taken at baseline and at the end of the intervention period. Youth with diagnosed pathologies (e.g., autism, cerebral palsy, Down Syndrome), health-related concerns (e.g., obesity), or young athletes were excluded. Studies could be randomized controlled trials (RCT) or non-randomized (i.e., quasi-experimental and prepost design). Community-based interventions, unpublished thesis/dissertations and research studies not published in English were excluded.

Information sources

A systematic search was conducted in December 2020 using three main electronic databases (Web of Science, SPORT Discus and PubMed). A grey literature search of Google Scholar was also conducted to minimize publication bias (Haddaway et al., 2015). Journal articles published in English until the 31th December of 2020 were considered for review. *Search strategy*

The specific electronic search for each database and terms included are shown in supplementary materials. PICOS approach was used for framing the research question and the evidence search (Klinker et al., 2015).

Selection process

First, the primary investigator (EVG) screened all titles and abstracts for obvious irrelevance and 10% of these titles and abstracts were also checked by another author (YBR). The 10% screening figure is a recognized validation and agreement threshold for systematic reviews (If et al., 2015). Second, the full text of eligible studies was then located and reviewed by two authors (EVG and YBR). Discrepancies were resolved by consensus between the authors. When there was no consensus, a third author (ADF) acted as mediator. Duplicates, nonintervention studies, non-English language, and studies without analysis of our primary outcomes or target population were eliminated.

Data collection process and data items

Data extraction was independently performed by two researchers (EVG and YBR); discrepancies were resolved by agreement between the two authors. Study data were extracted by EVG.

Study risk of bias assessment

We assessed quality by two different tools: (1) quality assessment of controlled intervention studies (i.e., RCTs and non-randomized studies) and (2) quality assessment tool for beforeafter (pre-post) studies with no control group (non-randomized studies) (Heart & Lung, 2016). These instruments were created to evaluate the internal validity of a trial, the extent to which the reported effects can strictly be attributed to the intervention applied, and the potential flaws in methodology or implementation. Each tool contained specific questions to assess bias, confounders, power, and strength of association between intervention and outcomes. The answer to each question could be "yes," "no," "cannot determine," "not reported," or "not applicable". A numeric scoring system was not used. The evaluator had to consider the potential risk of bias in the study design for each "no" answer selected. Overall quality ratings were scored as "good" (low risk of bias, valid results), "fair" (some risk of bias, does not invalidate results), or "poor" (significant risk for bias, may invalidate results). Critical appraisal involves considering the risk of potential for allocation bias, measurement bias, or confounding (the mixture of exposures that one cannot tease out from each other). Examples of confounding include co-interventions, differences at baseline in patient characteristics, etc. If a study had a "fatal flaw" then the risk of bias was significant and the study was of poor quality (i.e., high dropout rates, high differential dropout rates, intention to treat analysis, or inappropriate statistical analyses). Thus, a study was considered "poor" when it included at least one fatal flaw, "fair" when it did not include any fatal flaw but included some limitation or confounding factor. Finally, "good" studies were those that did not include any fatal flaws or limitations in the study design. All studies were independently screened by one author (EVG) and subsequently 50% of the studies (n = 9) were double checked for accuracy by one additional reviewer (YBR).

Effect measures

Effect size was expressed as Hedges' g to correct for possible small sample bias (Higgins, 2008).

Synthesis methods

All analyses were carried out with the STATA software (v16.1; StataCorp, College Station, TX, USA) and conducted using the random-effects inverse-variance model with the Hartung-Knapp-Sidik-Jonkman adjustment according to muscular tests used (muscular strength and power or local muscular endurance). Changes in outcomes for studies were calculated by subtracting change differences between the exercise and control groups (RCT or non-randomized studies), using the pooled standard deviation (SD) of change in both groups. Regarding pre and post-test intervention, mean differences (baseline vs. postintervention) and mean standard errors were pooled for each outcome. If change scores SD were not available, they were calculated from 95% confidence intervals (CI) for either change outcome or exercise training effect differences as well as pre-SD and post-SD values (Follmann et al., 1992). However, we also determined mean differences (MD) in each muscular test. It is important to clarify the following aspects relating to our statistical analyses: (1) meta-analyses were only performed for outcomes that were included in three or more studies; (2) when different cohorts, interventions or sexes were included in studies, their data were analyzed as independent samples; and (3) when two or more tests for measuring the same variable were included in a study, we calculated the average Hedge's g. Heterogeneity across studies was calculated using the inconsistency index (I^2) , derived from the Cochran Q statistic (Higgins et al., 2003). Larger values for I^2 suggest a larger degree of inconsistency. Small-study effects and publication biases were examined using the Doi plot and Luis Furuya-Kanamori (LFK) index. Both test have been shown to be superior to the traditional funnel plot and Egger's regression intercept test (Furuya-Kanamori et al., 2018). No asymmetry, minor asymmetry or major asymmetry was considered with values of -1, between -1 and -2, and >-2, respectively (Furuya-Kanamori et al., 2018). Subgroup analysis was conducted according to design of the study (i.e., RCT or nonrandomized design), frequency of sessions per week (<3 or \geq 3 sessions per week) (Bull et al., 2020), length of the intervention (≤ 8 or >8 weeks), and duration of the session (<30 min or \geq 30 min per session).

Results

Study selection

The PRISMA 2020 flow diagram detailing the procedure can be found in **Figure 1**. In the first stage of the search strategy, a total of (n = 1052) articles were identified. In the second stage, following the removal of duplicates (n = 157), a total of (n = 987) articles were screened by title/abstract. Then, 929 potentially relevant articles were excluded with reasons.

In the third stage, 58 full-text articles were reviewed in depth and (n = 41) studies were excluded with reasons (details summarized in Figure 1). Finally, a total of 17 studies based on PA interventions met the inclusion and exclusion criteria and were included in the final analysis.

Study characteristics

The characteristics of the 17 included studies are presented in **Table 1**. The included studies were conducted in different continents including "the Americas" (Annesi et al., 2005; Faigenbaum et al., 2013, 2015; Faigenbaum, Myer, Farrell, et al., 2014; Siegel et al., 1989), Europe (Alves et al., 2016; Arabatzi, 2018; Engel et al., 2019a, 2019b; Grainger et al., 2020; Granacher, Goesele, et al., 2011; Granacher, Muehlbauer, et al., 2011; Larsen et al., 2016; Lucertini et al., 2013; Marta et al., 2019; Viciana et al., 2013), and Asia (Qi et al., 2019; Sadres et al., 2001). The included studies involved a total of 1653 participants (n =1264 "exercise group" participants and 28% girls), ranging from a sample size of 32 (Granacher, Goesele, et al., 2011; Granacher, Muehlbauer, et al., 2011) to 570 (Annesi et al., 2005) participants. Regarding the study design, most of the studies (n=16) were experimental (i.e., RCT) and one report was a non-randomized study (Annesi et al., 2005). Finally, 6 studies took place in public schools (Alves et al., 2016; Annesi et al., 2005; Faigenbaum et al., 2013, 2015; Faigenbaum, Myer, Cscs, et al., 2014; Marta et al., 2019) whereas the specific type of school was not described in other reports.

Analysis of the MF Intervention and its effects

MF Intervention

All interventions focused on improving MF whereby the main purpose was to promote PA in the school environment with the primary outcome of increasing objectively measured MF. Interventions were categorized following guidelines from Cox et al. (Cox et al., 2020). Most MF interventions included combined activities that targeted the development of muscular strength and muscular power (n=12). Other interventions were carried out using traditional MF methods, i.e., free weights and weight machines (n=2)(Granacher, Goesele, et al., 2011; Viciana et al., 2013), plyometrics (n=1)(Arabatzi, 2018), body weight training (n=1) (Engel et al., 2019a), and focused on lower body activities, i.e., balance training (n=1)(Granacher, Muehlbauer, et al., 2011). Regarding the duration of the intervention periods, 6 of 17 studies lasted eight weeks with a study duration range of 4 weeks (Arabatzi, 2018; Engel et al., 2019a; Grainger et al., 2020; Granacher, Muehlbauer, et al., 2011) to 10 months (Larsen et al., 2016). Regarding school context, most of studies were carried out during physical education (PE) classes (10/17). Concerning frequency (d/wks) and session duration (min),

most studies included two sessions per week (12/17), whereas the session duration varied across studies with a range between 15- and 90-min. MF training intensity across the interventions varied due to different methods used to prescribe the training load, e.g., percent of 1 repetition maximum (Granacher, Goesele, et al., 2011; Qi et al., 2019; Sadres et al., 2001), and ratings of perceived exertion (Engel et al., 2019a). In 6 studies the training intensity was not reported. Finally, the training volume varied across interventions due to differences in the number of exercises, sets, repetitions and load throughout the study period.

Results of individual studies

Regarding the effect of the interventions on MF outcomes, there were significant positive results in fifteen out of seventeen of the studies (88%). In the study by Granacher et al., (Granacher, Muehlbauer, et al., 2011), the effects of the intervention on grip strength were inconclusive with the exception of right grip strength in which a decrease in strength was observed in the fundamental movement skills group. In addition, Grainger et al., (Grainger et al., 2020) found non-significant positive results with slight increases in countermovement jump height in the EG following MF training. Methods of assessing local muscular endurance included the sit-up and push-up tests (Annesi et al., 2005; Engel et al., 2013; Siegel et al., 1989; Viciana et al., 2013). With respect to muscular strength and muscular power, most of studies included lower limbs assessments including the standing long jump, single-leg hop tests, countermovement jump, vertical jump, drop jump and knee extension-flexion or upper body assessments including the 1-kg and 3-kg medicine ball toss, hand-grip, pinch-strength, biceps curl test, cable flexion, cable extension, flexed arm hang and pull-ups. *Risk of bias in studies*

In summary, six studies were rated as "good", two as "fair", and nine as "poor" in their quality assessment (supplementary materials). We assessed sixteen studies with this tool. Most studies (8/16) identified as controlled studies included a "fatal flaw" resulting in a "poor" rating, whereas six studies (35%) did not reported any "fatal flaw" (Faigenbaum et al., 2013, 2015; Faigenbaum, Myer, Farrell, et al., 2014; Granacher, Goesele, et al., 2011; Granacher, Muehlbauer, et al., 2011; Viciana et al., 2013). Only four studies described the randomization process (Alves et al., 2016; Grainger et al., 2020; Larsen et al., 2016; Marta et al., 2019) identifying the randomization sequence. The "blinding/shielding" components (item n.4) was inapplicable because it is virtually impossible to blind participants receiving an intervention in the school context, in this case an MF intervention. However, item n.5

was considered, since this blinding criterion (*"Were the people blinded to the participant's group assignment?*") could have been met in the exercise intervention studies. Most of the controlled intervention studies (12/16) had similar groups at baseline on important characteristics that could affect the outcome of the study. The overall dropout rates from all the studies were less than 20%, as well as there were no substantial differences in the dropout rate (15% or higher) between arms, i.e., intervention and control groups. Adherence to the intervention program was high (>75%) in most groups (13/16), where three studies did not reported attendance data (Marta et al., 2019; Qi et al., 2019; Siegel et al., 1989). The application of other interventions was not described in any cases. Furthermore, although none of the seventeen studies (58%) considered clustering effects in their statistical analysis, reducing the bias associated with a low sample of participants. Finally, in all studies, all randomized participants were analyzed in the group to which they were originally assigned (per protocol analysis).

Concerning the quality assessment for before–after studies (Pre–Post) with no control group, we assessed only one study with this tool (i.e., non-random studies without a control group). The study of Annesi et al., (Annesi et al., 2005) included some "fatal flaws", resulting in a "poor" rating.

Results of synthesis

Local Muscular Endurance. Compared with the control group, exercise interventions were associated with significant moderate increases in local muscular endurance (Hedge's g=0.65 95% CI, 0.13 to 1.17, p=0.020; l^2 =85.0%) (**Figure 2**). Cochran's Q statistic for statistical heterogeneity was 53.40 (p<0.001). Concerning to test used, exercise interventions favor an increase of number of repetitions in push-ups of 1.37 (95% CI 0.91 to 1.83, p=0.001; Q=3.97; l^2 =0%). However, significant effects disappeared when we used only RCTs (Hedge's g=0.29 95% CI, -0.12 to 0.70, p=0.120; l^2 =22.0%) or combined activities (Hedge's g=0.66 95% CI, -0.06 to 1.38, p=0.065; l^2 =88.4%).

Subgroup analysis shows that interventions with \geq 3 sessions per week (Hedge's g=0.98 95% CI, 0.04 to 1.93, p=0.033; Q=28.86; I²=86.1%) favored larger increases of local muscular endurance compared to interventions with <3 sessions per week (Hedge's g=0.27 95% CI, -0.22 to 0.76, p=0.001; Q=4.29; I²=30.0%), without differences between them (p=0.077). According to length of the intervention and duration of sessions per week, significant effects disappeared when we used only interventions \leq 8 (Hedge's g=0.45 95% CI, -0.03 to 0.93, p=0.133; Q=0.74; I²=0%) or >8 weeks (Hedge's g=0.65 95% CI, -0.16 to 1.52, p=0.095;

Q=53.40; I²=85.0%) and sessions <30 (Hedge's g=0.45 95% CI, -0.03 to 0.93, p=0.133; Q=0.74; I²=0%) or \geq 30 minutes (Hedge's g=0.65 95% CI, -0.16 to 1.52, p=0.095; Q=53.40; I²=85.0%).

Muscular Strength and Muscular Power. Exercise interventions favored increases in muscular strength (Hedge's g=0.33 95% CI, 0.16 to 0.51, p=0.001; I^2 =59.3%) (Figure 3). Cochran's Q statistic for statistical heterogeneity was 39.33 (p=0.001). Subgroup analysis shows that combined activities (Hedge's g=0.2695% CI, 0.15 to 0.39, p=0.001; Q=7.15; $I^2=0\%$) led similar increases than overall results, but without heterogeneity. Regarding the test used, no significant effects were observed (Counter movement jump, MD=0.03 m 95% CI, -0.22 to 0.28, p=0.768; Q=23.4; I^2 =70.2%; Handgrip, MD=0.36 kg 95% CI, -0.41 to 1.13, p=0.306; Q=7.4; I^2 =5.0%; Knee extension, MD=-0.01 kg 95% CI, -4.0 to 4.02, p=0.991; Q=9.3; I²=78.6%; Knee flexion, MD=0.59 kg 95% CI, -0.99 to 2.17, p=0.251; Q=0.1; I^2 =0%; Standing-long jump, MD=0.22 cm 95% CI, -0.22 to 0.66, p=0.285; Q=20.95; I^2 =61.8%). Concerning the design of the study, RCTs led to slightly higher increases (Hedge's g=0.37 95% CI, 0.16 to 0.57, p=0.002; Q=36.8; I²=62.0%). Subgroup analysis shows that interventions with ≥ 3 sessions per week (Hedge's g=0.54 95%) CI, 0.03 to 1.05, p=0.041; Q=28.56; $I^2=78.9\%$) favored higher increases compared to interventions with <3 sessions per week (Hedge's g=0.23 95% CI, 0.12 to 0.34, p=0.002; Q=7.24; $I^2=0\%$), without significant differences between groups (p=0.060). According to length of the intervention and duration of sessions per week, effects remained significant when we used only interventions ≤ 8 (Hedge's g=0.39 95% CI, 0.09 to 0.69, p=0.016; Q=32.92; I^2 =69.6%) or >8 weeks (Hedge's g=0.27 95% CI, 0.07 to 0.46, p=0.018; Q=6.19; I^2 =19.3%) and or \geq 30 minutes (Hedge's g=0.27 95% CI, 0.16 to 0.44, p=0.004; Q=25.19; I^2 =48.4%), but not in sessions <30 minutes (Hedge's g=0.63 95% CI, -0.57 to 1.84, $p=0.152; Q=8.12; I^2=75.4\%)$

3.6. Reporting biases and sensitivity analysis

Minor and major asymmetry suggestive of small-study effects were observed for local muscular endurance (LFK index=1.01) and muscular strength and muscular power (LFK index=2.03), respectively (supplementary materials).

Regarding sensitivity analyses, with each study deleted from the model once, nonoverlapping 95% CI were observed across all deletions for muscular endurance (ranging from 0.46 [95% CI, 0.11 to 0.81] (Annesi et al., 2005) to 0.76 [95% CI, 0.28 to 1.25])(Lucertini et al., 2013) and muscular strength (ranging from 0.26 95% CI, 0.17 to 0.36 (Engel et al., 2019a) to 0.30 [95% CI, 0.20 to 0.40]) (Lucertini et al., 2013).

Discussion

Summary of Main Results

The current study found that school-based exercise interventions were associated with significant small-to-moderate increases in MF with larger effects observed in interventions with at least three sessions per week. However, the small-to-moderate findings of this meta-analysis should be interpreted with caution and considered considering the high heterogeneity and a lack of specificity regarding the desired MF outcome in the studies. However, the findings should be interpreted with caution while keeping in mind the large heterogeneity among results, the low quality of the trials and publication bias in muscular strength and muscular power.

Effects on local muscular endurance, muscular strength and muscular power

In this meta-analysis, school-based exercise interventions were associated with small-tomoderate increases in local muscular endurance, muscular strength and muscular power in children. However, our meta-analysis found no clear significant differences in traininginduced MF performance when the effect of the different interventions on MF was compared. Of note, Cox et al. (Cox et al., 2020) showed that plyometric activities demonstrated a statistically significant, homogeneous effect on MF outcomes in adolescents' boys. Plyometric training has been found enhance muscle strength, muscular power and bone strength in youth (Ramirez-Campillo et al., 2020). We only included one study that exclusively used plyometric training in children and therefore our discussion of potential benefits is limited (Arabatzi, 2018). Most studies used combined MF activities that incorporate some type of plyometric training into the intervention. For example, three of the studies (Faigenbaum et al., 2013, 2015; Faigenbaum, Myer, Cscs, et al., 2014) used integrative neuromuscular training protocols which incorporated a variety of strength and conditioning exercises into every lesson with the purpose of enhancing both health- and skill-related components of physical fitness (Myer et al., 2011). These interventions typically included dynamic movements using medicine balls, plyometric exercises such as jumps and hops as well as different body weight strength building activities. In our report most of the school-based exercise interventions included combined activities (n=12) highlighting this integrative approach as a promising protocol. As such, integrative neuromuscular training that is developmentally appropriate for children may be needed to

prevent the accumulation of risk factors, functional limitations, and interrelated processes that drive physical inactivity in modern day youth (Myer et al., 2011). Notably, integrative neuromuscular training does not involve expensive exercise equipment or heavy external loads.

Subgroup Analysis

The literature suggests that MF interventions should include 8-12 weeks in order to be effective during childhood and adolescence (Stricker et al., 2020). In this meta-analysis, meta-regression analyses revealed nonsignificant moderation of duration of interventions and sessions (min) for both local muscular endurance, muscular strength and muscular power. However, these analyses revealed significant effects of weekly training frequency (i.e., number of sessions) on the effect size estimate. The present meta-analysis included a total of 13 studies lasting at least eight weeks and all had a training frequency of at least 2 sessions per week. Previous research has indicated that 2-3 sessions per week on nonconsecutive days is most appropriate in order to develop MF levels in youth (Lloyd et al., 2014). Also, strength gains occurred with different types of resistance training for a minimum duration of 8 weeks with a frequency of 2 to 3 times a week, a training dose that was met in all the interventions used in this meta-analysis (Stricker et al., 2020). Notwithstanding the influence of training intensity and training volume on MF outcomes, it seems that in the case of muscular strength and muscular power development, a greater training frequency (e.g., 3 vs 2) may be associated with a greater increase in MF. In support of these findings, the WHO recommends muscle and bone strengthening exercises at least 3 days/week (Bull et al., 2020). In order to determine the importance of the training frequency, we carried out an additional sub-group analysis and found that interventions with ≥ 3 sessions per week favored larger increases in local muscular endurance and muscular strength and power. Notably, the weekly resistance training frequency in an educational context will likely be determined by the educational curriculum of the state or region in which the physical education intervention takes place.

Concerning fitness tests used in our meta-analysis, exercise interventions resulted in an increase in the number of push-up repetitions by 1.37, whereas no significant effects were observed between the different tests used to evaluate muscular strength and muscular power. Others (Ruiz et al., 2011) noted that muscular strength could be considered a marker of health already at childhood and adolescence, as well as health indicators of future cardiovascular health. The handgrip strength test and the standing long jump test are valid

and reliable measures that can be used to assess MF, and these tests are feasible in school setting.

There are limitations to our report that should be considered when interpreting the results. Regarding age, in the present meta-analysis we included studies involving children (girls and boys) <13 years old (i.e., mainly primary school age). This age criterion is recommended by the International Consensus on Youth Resistance Training (Lloyd et al., 2014). However, based on our knowledge, since late childhood and early adolescence cannot be defined by fixed chronological boundaries, childhood can be defined as the first birthday to the onset of adolescence (which requires the identification of the onset of sexual maturation). Adolescence is a difficult period to define, and some suggest a range of 10-22 years in boys. WHO states adolescence begins with the onset of normal puberty and ends with adult identity, roughly 10-19 years of age. However, significant interindividual variance exists for the level (magnitude of change), timing (onset of change), and tempo (rate of change) of biological maturation. The relative mismatch and wide variation in biological maturation between children of the same chronological age emphasizes the limitations in using chronological age as a determinant.

Conclusion

Given the small number of trials, the heterogeneity of results, and moderate-to-high risk of bias, caution is warranted regarding the strength of the existing evidence base. Nevertheless, our findings indicate that school interventions based on muscle and bone strengthening exercises performed at least 3 days per week may serve to support the development of MF in girls and boys and, therefore, enhance their health and well-being. **Disclosure statement**

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the author(s).

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

Supplementary data have been deposited in the institutional research repository of the University of Granada (ROAR:437). re3data.org: Digibug; editing status 2021-09-06; re3data.org - Registry of Research Data Repositories. http://doi.org/10.17616/R39F4K. To access these data: <u>http://hdl.handle.net/10481/71015</u>.

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Figure 1. PRISMA 2020 flow diagram for systematic reviews which included searches of databases.



Figure 2. Forest plot showing estimates of the size of change in local muscular endurance after a school-based PA intervention.



Study		Hedge´s g with 95% C	Weight	
Alves et al. 2016 G1		0.15 [-0.06, (0.37] 8.76	
Alves et al. 2016 G2		0.28 [0.05, (52] 8.47	
Arabatzi 2017		1.48 [0.86, 2	2.10] 3.54	\mathcal{I}
Engel 2019		1.21 [0.71,	1.72] 4.62)
Faingenbaum 2015	⊢	0.43 [0.00, (0.86] 5.49	
Faigenbaum 2014	∎	0.31 [-0.12, (0.73] 5.49	,
Grainger 2020		0.22 [-0.22, (0.67] 5.30	
Granacher 2011 G1	B	0.06 [-0.63, (0.75] 3.09	
Granacher 2011 G2	- 	0.49 [-0.22, ⁻	1.20] 2.97	
Larsen 2017	_∎_	0.42 [0.15, (0.69] 7.79	
Lucertini 2013		0.10[-0.19, (0.39] 7.54	
Marta 2019		0.17 [-0.14, (0.49] 7.16	
Qi 2019		0.48 [0.06, (0.89] 5.67	
Sadres 2001		0.47 [0.07, 0	0.86] 5.96	
Siegel 1989 Boys		0.10 [-0.16, (0.36] 8.05	
Siegel 1989 Girls		0.18 [-0.30, (0.67] 4.86	
Viciana 2013		-0.09 [-0.54, (0.36] 5.23	
Overall	•	0.33 [0.16, (0.51]	
Heterogeneity: $\tau^2 = 0.05$, $I^2 = 59.32\%$, $H^2 = 2.46$		•		
Test of θ _i = θ _i : Q(16) = 39.33, p = 0.00				
Test of θ = 0: t(16) = 3.97, p = 0.00				
	-1 0 1	2		
Random-effects DerSimonian-Laird model Knapp-Hartung standard errors				

Figure 3. Forest plot showing estimates of the size of change in muscular strength and power after a school-based PA intervention.

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Table 1. Characteristics of MF studies included in this systematic review (n=17).

								sets of 12 jumps during the fourth week		d for CMJ
Engel et al. (2019) Germ any	35 childre n aged 11.7± 0.3 years	Experi mental (RCT, contro lled double -arm clinica 1 study) pre- post assess ment with EG and CG	NR / (n= 1)	4 wks/ within regular school classes	Body Weight Activities Micro- session of Function al HIIT Exercises : Multiple- joint exercises	4 x 6 min	"all- out" effort at high velocit ies targeti ng >17 on the 6–20 Borg scale and with the childre n's own bodyw eight	High repetiti ons	Muscl e/bone strengt hening (Germ an motor ability test: SLJ, Lateral jumpi ng, Sit- ups and Push- ups)	Perform ance in lateral jumping and sit- ups were greater after 4 weeks Functio nal HIIT compar ed to the control group (p=0,00 0; global effect of Time ×
Faige nbau m et al. (2015) USA	41 childre n aged 9-10 years	Experi mental (Clust er RCT) pre- post assess ment with EG and CG	Pu blic (n= 1)	8 wks/during the first 15 minutes of each regularly scheduled 45-minute PE classes	Combine d Activities Fundame ntal integrativ e training (FIT) included a series of progressi ve exercises using body weight and medicine balls (1– 2 kg), fitness ropes, equalizer bars, BOSU balance trainers, fitness spots, dome cones, punch balloons,	2 x 15 min	low to high intensi ty bouts of strengt h	30 second s during weeks 1–4 and for 45 second s during weeks 5–8	Muscl e/bone strengt hening (SLJ, SLH, Sit- ups)	A signific ant interacti on of group and time was observe d after the 8- week interven tion for the push-up and single- leg hop (all= <0.05). Pre-post percent changes after FIT were signific antly greater for the push-up and

					and spooners Exercises : Circuit of 6–7 exercise Combine					leg hop (all= <0.05)		
Faige nbau m et al. (2013) USA	39 childre n aged 7 years old	Experi mental (Clust er RCT, rando mized contro lled trial) pre- post and follow -up assess ment with EG and CG	Pu blic / (n= 1)	8 wks /during the first 15 minutes of each regularly scheduled 43-minute PE classes	d Activities Integrativ e Neuromu scular Training (INT) program Primary exercises that focused on enhancin g muscular strength and power, and secondar y exercises that improvin g fundame ntal movemen t skills Exercises : Primary and secondar y strength and power	2 x 15 min	low to high intensi ty bouts of strengt h	2 sets on all exercis es, and the repetiti ons (7– 10) or set duratio n (10– 30 second s) was gradual ly progres sed over the 8- week training period	Muscl e/bone strengt hening (curl- up, standi ng long jump and single- leg hop tests)	The exercise group made greater gains (relative to control) in the maximu m number o curl- ups at a post- training measure (p<0.05)) and a signific ant interacti on of time by group were shown in the curl-up, and single- leg hop test		
Faige nbau m et al, (2014) USA	40 childre n aged 7 years old	Experi mental (Clust er RCT) pre- post assess ment with EG and CG	Pu blic / (n= 1)	8 wks /during the first 15 minutes of each regularly scheduled 43-minute PE classes	Combine d Activities Same INT (Faigenb aum et al. (2013)	2 x 15 min	low to high intensi ty bouts of strengt h	2 sets on all exercis es, and the repetiti ons (7– 10) or set duratio n (10– 30 second s) was gradual ly progres sed	Muscl e/bone strengt hening (curl- up, standi ng long jump and single- leg hop tests)	Interven tion effects were found in the girls for enhance d INT- induced gains in perform ance relative to the control		

								over the 8- week training period		group on the curl-up, long jump, single- legged hop (P=0.05) after controll ing for baseline	\sum
Grain ger et al. (2020) UK	72 childre n aged 10-11 year	Experi mental (RCT, rando mized contro lled trial) pre- post assess ment with EG and CG	NR / (n= 3)	4 wks/ in addition to the usual PE lesson	Combine d Activities Integrate d Strength and Fundame ntal Moveme nt Skill Training with two groups: (FMS) or FMS and strength (FMS+) Exercises : Five activities with several FMS and RT exercises	2 x 50- 60 min	NR	Differe nt sets and REPS.	Muscl e/bone strengt hening (CMJ and Hand- grip)	effects of the interven tions on grip strength were clearly inconcl usive with the excepti on of right grip strength where a potentia l decreas e in strength was observe d in the FMS group (p = 0.36).	
Grana cher et al. (2011) Switz erland	32 childre n aged 8-12 years	Experimental (controlled study) pre- post assess ment with EG and CG	NR / (n= 2)	10 wks/PE classes	Aradition al Methods High- intensity strength training (HIS) with weight machines Exercises : leg- press, knee extension /flexion, seated calf- raise, weight- machine for hip	2 x 90 min	70–80 % of the 1RM	3 sets of 10-2 REPS	Muscl e/bone strengt hening (Isokin etic peak force of the knee extens ors and flexors with a isokin etic dynam ometer and CMJ)	Peak torque of the knee extenso rs and flexors were signific antly improve d at movem ent velociti es of 60 °/ s and 180 °/s followi ng 10 weeks of HIS; and strength	



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		(RCT)			Exercises		(but		h).		
_	101	pre-			: GE1	Ť	same		tests).	Higher		
Lucer	childre	post			performe		trainin		abdom	scores		
tını et	n aged	assess	NR	/.	d a		g load		en (sit-	in the		
al.	9.8	ment	/	6 moths/	specifical	2 x 60	for	NR	up)	CMJ		
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					of 30-to- 40-m- speed runs. The ST group							
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Qi et	46	and	NR	10 1./	lunges,	\frown	80%	sets x	um	curl		
al. (2019	boys aged	follow	/	12 wks/ PE	Abdomen	2 x 60	of 1 repetit	differe	(RM)	(p=0.005)		
)	8-12	-up assess	(n= 1)	sessions	upward	min	ion	nt REPS	in the	and the		
China	years	ment	-)		back		maxim	range	curl	standin g long		
		with FG			squat,		um	(10-30)	test,	jump		
		and			leg hop,				ed 1	(p=0.015)		
		CG			barbell				week	0.015) in		
					curl frog				before at the	compari		
					jump,				1-RM	son with the		
			<		push up,				test,	CG		
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		\sim	$\langle \rangle$		activities		30-		e/bone	ental		
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\vee		EG and			activities		1RM	30	Conce	out the		
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Siegel 96 (NCT)	routine		s of	(ka)	right	
et al. childre post NR	12 weeks / and; 3)	a a a	rest,	Hando	handeri	
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	etc; 2)		exercis	(no. in	(p<0.05)	
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	using					



Abbreviation: CG; control group, CMJ; Contramovement jump, CST; Circuit strength training group, DJs: Drop Jump, EG; experimental group, FMS; Fundamental Movement Skill, HIIT: High intensity interval training; HIS; High-intensity strength training, INT; Integrative Neuromuscular Training, PE: Physical Education; RCT; randomized controlled trial REPS; repetitions, RT; resistance training, RM; repetition maximum, NR; non reported, SLJ; Squat long jump; ST; suspension training, WKS; weeks.