



Temporal Trends in the Standing Broad Jump Performance of 10,940,801 Children and Adolescents Between 1960 and 2017

Grant R. Tomkinson^{1,2} · Tori Kaster¹ · Faith L. Dooley¹ · John S. Fitzgerald¹ · Madison Annandale² · Katia Ferrar² · Justin J. Lang^{3,4} · Jordan J. Smith⁵

© Springer Nature Switzerland AG 2020

Abstract

Background The standing broad jump (SBJ) is an excellent functional measure of explosive lower-body strength that is significantly related to health among children and adolescents.

Objectives The aim of this study was to estimate national (country-level) and international (pooled global data) temporal trends in SBJ performance for children and adolescents, and to examine the relationships between national trends in SBJ performance and national trends in health-related and socioeconomic/demographic indicators.

Methods Data were obtained from a systematic search of studies reporting temporal trends in SBJ performance for 9- to 17-year-olds, and by examining national fitness datasets. Sample-weighted regression models estimated trends at the study/dataset-country-sex-age level, with national and international trends estimated by a post-stratified population-weighting procedure. Pearson's correlations quantified relationships between national trends in SBJ performance and national trends in health-related and socioeconomic/demographic indicators.

Results Data from 34 studies/datasets were extracted to estimate trends for 10,940,801 children and adolescents from 24 high-, 4 upper-middle-, and 1 low-income countries between 1960 and 2017. Collectively, there was a negligible (per decade) improvement in SBJ performance of 1.73 cm (95% CI 1.71–1.75), 0.99% (95% CI 0.97–1.01) or a standardized effect size of 0.07 (0.07–0.07) over the entire period, with the rate of improvement steady from the 1960s to the 1980s, slowing in the 1990s, before declining. Sex- and age-related temporal differences were negligible. Trends differed between countries, with most countries experiencing declines. National trends in SBJ performance were not significantly related to national trends in health-related and socioeconomic/demographic indicators.

Conclusions SBJ performance of children and adolescents has declined since 2000 (at least among most of the countries in this analysis) and is suggestive of a modern decline in functional explosive lower-body strength. Growing recognition of the importance of muscular fitness as a marker of population health highlights the need for continued tracking of temporal trends in SBJ, especially among low- and lower-middle-income countries for which temporal data are lacking.

PROSPERO Registration Number CRD42013003657.

Disclaimer The content and views expressed in this article are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect those of the Government of Canada.

Supplementary Information The online version contains supplementary material available at <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40279-020-01394-6>.

✉ Grant R. Tomkinson
grant.tomkinson@und.edu

Extended author information available on the last page of the article

1 Introduction

Muscular fitness is a multidimensional construct that reflects the ability of a muscle or a group of muscles to exert force maximally (strength), explosively (power, also called “explosive strength”), or continuously without fatigue (endurance) [1]. In childhood and adolescence, reduced muscular fitness is significantly related to cardiometabolic disease risk [2, 3] (independent of age, sex, biological maturation, fat-free mass, cardiorespiratory fitness and physical activity levels) [4–6], adiposity [2, 3], reduced bone mineral density [2, 3] and reduced self-esteem [3]. Longitudinal evidence indicates that reduced muscular fitness in adolescence is significantly associated with cardiovascular disease [7], disability [8],

Key Points

There has been a negligible (per decade) improvement in SBJ performance for all age and sex groups since 1960, with the rate of improvement steady from the 1960s to the 1980s, slowing in the 1990s, before declining thereafter.

Nationally, temporal trends in SBJ performance differed in magnitude and direction, with most (62% or 18/29) experiencing declines, especially recently.

Relationships between national (country-level) trends in SBJ performance and national trends in health-related and socioeconomic/demographic indicators were not statistically significant.

adverse glucose homeostasis [9], and premature death due to all causes, cardiovascular diseases and suicide later in life [10]. Muscular fitness cut-points for the detection of increased cardiometabolic risk [5, 11, 12] and reduced bone health [13] have also been used to identify at-risk children and adolescents in need of intervention. This health-related evidence underpins the recent addition of muscle- and bone-strengthening activities (in addition to aerobic activities) in national [14–16] and global [17] physical activity guidelines for children and adolescents.

The standing broad jump (SBJ)—a double-leg jump for the greatest horizontal distance—is a practical, feasible, widely used, ecologically valid and scalable measure of functional explosive strength for clinical and population screening and surveillance [18, 19]. In children and adolescents, the SBJ is significantly related to health (e.g., cardiometabolic disease risk, adiposity, bone mass) [2, 3], consistently related to objectively measured physical activity levels [20], with cardiometabolic risk-related cut-points available [5]. Temporal trends in SBJ performance therefore, should provide important insights into corresponding trends in population health. SBJ has moderate to high construct validity with established measures of both lower- [21] and upper-body strength [19, 22], and is strongly related to other field-based tests of explosive strength [19, 21, 22] independent of age, sex, and body size [19]. The SBJ has very high test–retest reliability [21], negligible test–retest learning and fatigue effects [21, 23] and is generally safe [24]. It has also been endorsed by both North American [24] and European [25] experts for its predictive utility and recommended for school-based fitness testing. Moreover, jumping is a fundamental movement skill used in sports and activities involving high-velocity contractions, such as athletics, gymnastics, dance, and various field, court and combat sports.

Much of the evidence examining temporal trends in physical fitness for children and adolescents has focused on cardiorespiratory fitness [26, 27], with less known about trends in explosive strength. Our previous study [28], which currently provides the most comprehensive synthesis of temporal trends in explosive strength, indicated an improvement in mean jumping (i.e., standing broad jump, running broad jump and vertical jump) performance of 0.3% per decade for 20.8 million 6- to 19-year-olds from 23 countries between 1958 and 2003. Interestingly, the trend was curvilinear across the 45-year period, with jumping performance improving internationally from the late 1950s to the mid-1980s before declining through to 2003 [28]. Subsequent reports on temporal trends in SBJ performance for children and adolescents have generally indicated declines [29–37] or no meaningful change [38–41] in recent decades.

The aim of this study was to update our previous comprehensive synthesis [28] of national (country-specific) and international (pooled global data) temporal trends in SBJ performance for children and adolescents aged 9–17 years, by extending the temporal picture from 2003 to 2017 and updating the data pooling methods. In addition, we examined relationships between national trends in SBJ performance and national trends in health-related and socioeconomic/demographic indicators, as such relationships may provide insight into the importance of these indicators to trends in population health and fitness.

2 Methods

2.1 Protocol and Registration

The review protocol was registered with the International Prospective Register of Systematic Reviews (PROSPERO; registration number CRD42013003657). This review followed the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) statement [42].

2.2 Eligibility Criteria

We included studies if they reported on temporal trends in explosive strength (operationalized as SBJ performance) for children and adolescents. Candidate studies, including refereed journal articles and graduate research theses, were eligible if they reported on temporal trends in the SBJ performance (using matched testing protocols) of apparently healthy (free from known disease/injury) age- and sex-matched children and adolescents (aged 9–17 years) across at least two time points spanning a minimum of five years [26]. Temporal trends must have been reported as absolute, percent or standardized (effect size) changes in means at the country-sex-age level (e.g., 9-year-old Australian boys)

or as descriptive data (e.g., sample sizes, means and standard deviations [SD]) at the country-sex-age-year level (e.g., 9-year-old Australian boys tested in 1985) to calculate temporal trends. To calculate national trends, a minimum of four country-sex-age groups was required for inclusion (e.g., 9- and 10-year-old Australian boys and girls).

2.3 Information Sources

Studies were identified by searching electronic databases, reference lists, topical systematic analyses/reviews and personal libraries [42]. The electronic database search strategy was developed in consultation with an academic librarian experienced in systematic literature searching. The electronic database search was performed on the 30th of October 2018, and updated on the 15th of January 2020, using the Elton B. Stephens Co. (EBSCO) interface and included the Cumulative Nursing and Allied Health Literature (CINAHL), MEDLINE and SPORTDiscus. No date or language restrictions were imposed. Additional studies were located by searching reference lists, topical systematic reviews and the personal library of the lead author. Large nationally representative fitness survey data suitable to temporal trends analysis were also considered.

2.4 Search

The electronic database search included a keyword search for the keyword in the full text as well as the citation record. Search terms within a group were combined with a Boolean OR and were searched concurrently with other search groups using the Boolean AND. Proximity operators (“*”) were used to search for root words. The first group of search terms identified the fitness measure (physical fitness OR muscular fitness OR muscular strength OR muscular power OR muscular endurance OR musculoskeletal fitness OR aerobic fitness OR cardiovascular fitness OR cardiorespiratory fitness) (Note, the search terms aerobic fitness, cardiovascular fitness, and cardiorespiratory fitness were included to capture relevant studies for which trends in SBJ performance were not the primary outcome). The second group identified the population (child* OR youth OR young OR adolescen*). The third group identified the trend over time (temporal OR secular OR trend*). The search strategy for databases is shown in Electronic Supplementary Material Appendix S1.

2.5 Study Selection

All database references were imported into RefWorks® reference management software (v2.0; ProQuest LLC, Ann Arbor, MI, USA) and de-duplicated. Record screening comprised two levels. Level 1 involved two researchers independently screening the titles and abstracts against inclusion

criteria, with consensus required for further screening. Level 2 involved two researchers independently screening the full texts against inclusion criteria, with consensus required for final inclusion. When necessary, discrepancies between reviewers were resolved by a third reviewer prior to reaching consensus.

2.6 Data Collection Process

Descriptive data were extracted into a spreadsheet by one researcher using a standardized study-specific template [26] and checked for accuracy by a second researcher. If required, additional information was requested from the corresponding authors via email (e.g., to clarify published results or to avoid double counting data).

2.7 Data Items

The following study-specific descriptive data were extracted: title, country, years of testing, sex, age (or age range), test protocol and sample size. We extracted SBJ performance results if temporal trends were reported as any of the following: rates of change in mean SBJ performance as absolute [in cm], percent and/or standardized units, including corresponding standard errors and/or 95% confidence intervals (95% CI). Note, sample sizes, means and standard deviations at each time point were extracted if rates of change in mean SBJ performance and/or corresponding standard errors/95% CIs were not reported. Missing SDs were estimated from a sample-weighted mean coefficient of variation of 13.2%, which was calculated from a large international database ($n = 464,900$) of SBJ performances on 9- to 17-year-olds representing 29 countries [43].

2.8 Summary Measures and Methods of Analysis

Overall approach: Using summary statistics from each study or dataset, we calculated the overall linear rate of change in SBJ performance for each country-sex-age group, as well as the corresponding standard error. For each country, we then pooled the linear rates of change across all sex-age groups, weighting by the population size of each sex-age group for the year 2000. We also pooled the rates of change across all country-sex-age groups using population weights for the year 2000, with results pooled for each decade and overall. Finally, we visualized the best-fitting linear/non-linear trends by separately pooling the yearly rates of change across all relevant country-sex-age groups and plotting them.

In some cases, studies published temporal trends as linear rates of change in mean SBJ performance at the country-sex-age level. However, for most studies and all datasets, we estimated the temporal trends in mean SBJ performance from summary statistics for each country-sex-age group

using sample-weighted linear regression (Electronic Supplementary Material Appendix S2). All regression models were computed in SPSS Statistics (v26, IBM, Chicago, IL, USA), with sample size used as the sample weight because SDs (and hence standard errors [SEs]) were not always available. Overall temporal trends were expressed as absolute rates of change (i.e., the regression coefficient), percent rates of change (i.e., the regression coefficient expressed as a percentage of the sample-weighted mean value for all means in the regression) and as standardized (Cohen's) effect sizes (ES) (i.e., the regression coefficient divided by the pooled SD for all SDs in the regression). To interpret the magnitude of rates of change, ES of 0.2, 0.5 and 0.8 were used as thresholds for small, moderate and large, respectively, with $ES < 0.2$ considered to be negligible [44]. Positive rates of change indicated increases in mean SBJ performance and negative rates of change indicated declines in mean SBJ performance.

We calculated population-weighted mean rates of change (Eq. 1) at the national and international levels by pooling the overall rates of change across all relevant country-sex-age groups using a post-stratification procedure [45]. We used this post-stratification population-weighting procedure to correct for sampling bias and to standardize the rates of change to underlying population demographics. The population weights were obtained from country-sex-age-specific population estimates for the year 2000—a common testing year to most country-sex-age groups—using United Nations data [46]. (Note, because our population weights were country-sex-age-specific, some country-sex-age-specific rates of change [a required input for Eq. 1] were calculated as sample-weighted mean rates of change from corresponding study/dataset-country-sex-age-specific rates of change). The corresponding SE was calculated using Eq. 2, with the 95% CI calculated as $\pm 2 \cdot SE$. A spreadsheet providing a worked example is provided in Electronic Supplementary Material Appendix S3.

$$\bar{\Delta} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^k \Delta_i \cdot w_i}{\sum_{i=1}^k w_i}, \quad (1)$$

where $\bar{\Delta}$ = population-weighted mean rate of change, Δ = country-sex-age-specific linear rate of change, w = country-sex-age-specific post-stratification population weight and k = the number of country-sex-age groups.

$$\bar{\Delta}_{SE} = \frac{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^k (\Delta_{SE})_i^2 \cdot w_i^2}}{\sum_{i=1}^k w_i}, \quad (2)$$

where $\bar{\Delta}_{SE}$ = the standard error of the population-weighted mean rate of change, Δ_{SE} = country-sex-age-specific

standard error of the linear rate of change, w = country-sex-age-specific sample weight and k = the number of country-sex-age groups.

The national and international temporal patterns of change were visualized using a procedure described elsewhere [28]. Briefly, using the best fitting and most parsimonious linear or polynomial (quadratic) sample-weighted regression models, we first estimated yearly ES rates of change for every year in each country-sex-age group. We then pooled these yearly rates of change across all relevant country-sex-age groups using population weights for the year 2000 [46] to generate a series of mean yearly rates of change, which we subsequently standardized to the year 2000 = 0 before plotting.

Relationships between national trends in SBJ performance and national trends in pre-specified health-related and socioeconomic/demographic indicators were quantified using Pearson's correlation coefficients, with 95% CIs estimated using Fisher's z -transformation. National trends for three health-related (childhood and adolescent body mass index [BMI] [47], moderate to vigorous physical activity [MVPA] [48] and vigorous physical activity [VPA] levels [48]) and three socioeconomic/demographic (Gini index [49], Human Development Index [HDI] [50] and urbanization [51]) indicators were analyzed using linear regression models as described above. To interpret the magnitude of correlation, ES of 0.1, 0.3, 0.5, 0.7 and 0.9 were used as thresholds for weak, moderate, strong, very strong and nearly perfect, respectively, with $ES < 0.1$ considered to be negligible [44].

2.9 Additional Analyses

A post-hoc sensitivity analysis was conducted to examine the impact of countries with very large samples on the international trend.

3 Results

3.1 Study Selection

A total of 1557 unique references were identified through electronic database and additional searching, with 53 retained after the first level of screening and 29 retained after the second level. We also identified five large country-level datasets comprising nationally representative SBJ data suitable for temporal trends analysis, for a total of 34 included studies/datasets. Figure 1 illustrates the PRISMA flowchart for included studies.

3.2 Study Characteristics

Temporal trends in SBJ performance were estimated for 10,978,042 children and adolescents aged 9–17 years from 29 countries (3,098 country-sex-age-year groups) between 1911 and 2017 (Table 1). Data prior to 1960 were removed because they were only available for 7% (2/29) of countries representing 0.3% of all data points (e.g., Czech Republic [1923–2002] and the United States of America [1911–1985]). As a result, trends between 1960 and 2017, representing 10,940,801 children and adolescents, were calculated. Trends were available for 24 high-income, 4 upper-middle-income and 1 low-income countries [52] (or 25 very high, 3 high and 1 low human development countries) [50], which were from five continents and comprised 30% of the world's population [46]. Trend data were available for 396 country-sex-age groups, with a median sample size of 1,608

(range 75–379,294) across a median span of 24 testing years (range 7–54) (Table 1).

3.3 Synthesis of Results

There was a negligible (per decade) international improvement in mean SBJ performance between 1960 and 2017 (change in means per decade [95% CI]: 1.73 cm [1.71–1.75]; 0.99% [0.97–1.01]; 0.07 ES [0.07–0.07]) (Fig. 2), with negligible (per decade) temporal differences between sex and age (i.e., children [9- to 12 year-olds] vs. adolescents [13- to 17-year-olds]) groups. Collectively, the trend in SBJ performance was not uniform over time, with the rate of improvement (per decade) steady from the 1960s through to the 1980s at 0.17 ES (95% CI 0.17–0.17), slowing somewhat to 0.13 ES (95% CI 0.13–0.13) in the 1990s, before declining at –0.29 ES (95% CI –0.29 to –0.29) from 2000 onwards (Fig. 2). This trend was

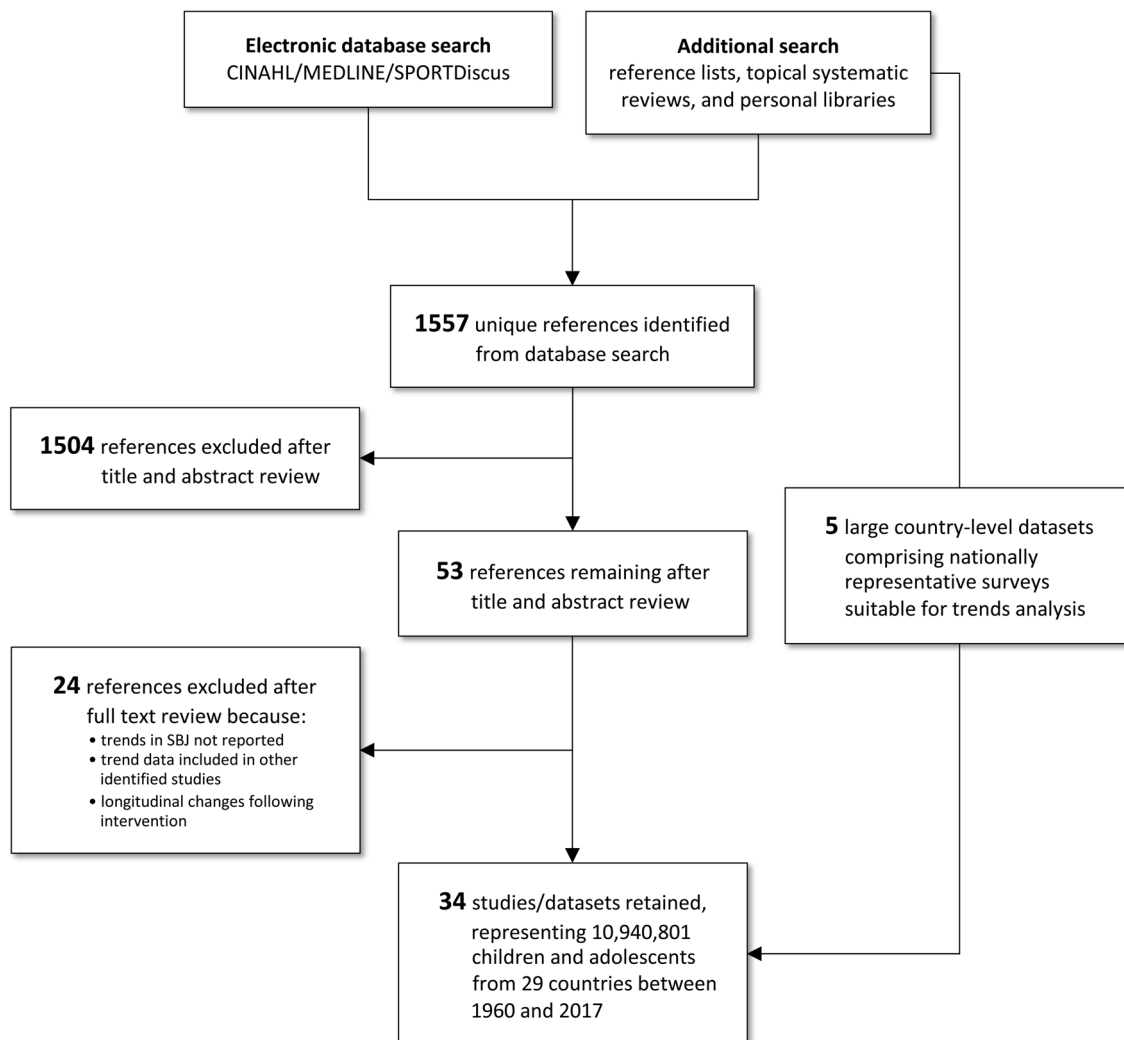


Fig. 1 PRISMA flow chart outlining the flow of studies through the review. *SBJ* standing broad jump

Table 1 Summary of the included studies by country

Country	Sex	Age (years)	Span of years	Sample size	Sampling strategy	Sample base	HDI
Australia [29, 30, 53, 54]	F (41.7%) M (58.3%)	9–17	1961–2015	45,333	P/NP	N/S/O	0.939 (very high)
Belgium [43]	F (49.1%) M (50.9%)	9–17	1990–2010	20,552	P/NP	S/O	0.916 (very high)
Bulgaria [55–58]	F (50.8%) M (49.2%)	9–17	1960–1999	27,840	P	N/O	0.813 (very high)
Canada [59]	F (48.1%) M (51.9%)	9–17	1964–1979	14,209	P	N	0.926 (very high)
China [60–66]	F (49.8%) M (50.2%)	9–17	1985–2014	1,228,004	P	N	0.752 (high)
Czech Republic [38, 39, 67–69]	F (48.9%) M (51.1%)	9–17	1923–2002	59,767	P/NP	N/O	0.888 (very high)
Estonia [43]	F (53.8%) M (46.2%)	11–17	1992–2002	7711	P/NP	S/O	0.871 (very high)
Finland [70]	F (49.3%) M (50.7%)	13–16	1976–2001	1222	P	N	0.920 (very high)
France [43]	F (63.2%) M (36.8%)	9,11–14	1984–2008	2416	P/NP	N/O	0.901 (very high)
Germany [40, 43]	F (48.8%) M (51.2%)	10,13,15,16	1975–2009	82,478	P/NP	S/O	0.936 (very high)
Greece [43]	F (48.3%) M (51.7%)	9–17	1990–2014	220,331	P/NP	N/S/O	0.870 (very high)
Iceland [43]	F (48.5%) M (51.5%)	10–15	1985–1998	7312	NP	N/O	0.935 (very high)
Israel [71]	F (53.9%) M (46.1%)	16–17	1970–1984	1888	P	S	0.903 (very high)
Italy [28, 43]	F (46.0%) M (54.0%)	9–17	1981–2011	28,758	P/NP	S/O	0.880 (very high)
Japan [72–122]	F (49.9%) M (50.1%)	9–17	1998–2017	460,713	NP	N	0.909 (very high)
Lithuania [31]	F (51.4%) M (48.6%)	11–17	1992–2012	10,839	P	N	0.858 (very high)
Mozambique [123]	F (9.5%) M (90.5%)	9–17	1999–2012	1458	P	O	0.437 (low)
New Zealand [54, 124]	F (46.1%) M (53.9%)	9–13	1961–2003	6453	P/NP	N/S/O	0.917 (very high)
Poland [32–34, 43, 125]	F (49.1%) M (50.9%)	9–17	1979–2011	495,957	P/NP	N/S/O	0.865 (very high)
Republic of Korea [126–151]	F (49.6%) M (50.4%)	9–17	1966–2009	1,803,526	P	N	0.903 (very high)
Singapore [152]	F (59.3%) M (40.7%)	12–17	1980–1992	3398	P	N	0.932 (very high)
Slovakia [43]	F (46.3%) M (53.7%)	9–11	1993–2015	1187	P/NP	N/S/O	0.855 (very high)
Slovenia [153]	F (50.0%) M (50.0%)	9–17	1987–2012	467,306	P	N	0.896 (very high)
Spain [43]	F (49.7%) M (50.3%)	9–17	1984–2010	21,584	P/NP	S/O	0.891 (very high)
Taiwan [36]	F (48.2%) M (51.8%)	10–17	1997–2013	5,857,636	P	N	0.907 (very high)
Thailand [154]	F (50.8%) M (49.2%)	9–12	1990–2003	17,635	P	N	0.755 (high)
Turkey [155]	F (42.4%) M (57.6%)	11–12	1983–2003	403	NP	O	0.791 (high)

Table 1 (continued)

Country	Sex	Age (years)	Span of years	Sample size	Sampling strategy	Sample base	HDI
UK [37, 43]	F (56.8%) M (43.2%)	9–13,15,17	1981–2014	19,708	P/NP	N/S/O	0.922 (very high)
USA [156–159]	F (48.1%) M (51.9%)	10–17	1911–1985	25,177	P/NP	N/O	0.924 (very high)

UK United Kingdom, USA United States of America, M male, F female, P probability sampling (i.e., random selection), NP non-probability sampling (i.e., non-random selection), N national sampling, S state/provincial sampling, O other sampling (i.e., city, local area, or school-level sampling), HDI Human Development Index (2017 estimate) with HDI values of 0.800, 0.700 and 0.550 used as thresholds for very high, high, and medium human development, respectively [50]; because the United Nations does not recognize Taiwan as a sovereign state, its HDI was calculated by the Taiwanese Government [160]

broadly consistent across different sex and age groups, with slightly different trends observed for boys and adolescents for whom improvements remained steady for longer (through the 1990s) before shifting to declines after 2000.

While national trends ranged from a moderate (per decade) decline in Greece (−13.0 cm, −10.0% or −0.69 ES per decade between 1990 and 2014) to a small (per decade) improvement in Singapore (4.9 cm, 2.9% or 0.32 ES per decade between 1980 and 1992), the rates of change (per decade) were typically negligible to small (26/29 or 89%) and negative (i.e., declines) (18/29 or 62%), especially from about 2000 onwards (Fig. 3). While most national trends were approximately linear, several countries experienced curvilinear trends evidenced by an increase in the rate of change (e.g., Australia, Poland and Slovenia) or a reversal of the direction of change (e.g., Bulgaria, China, New Zealand and the Republic of Korea). Sex- and age-related temporal differences at the country level were negligible, with country-level trends very strongly related between sexes (r [95% CI] 0.88 [0.75–0.94]) and age groups (r [95% CI] 0.88 [0.70–0.95]). Country-sex-specific scatterplots of mean SBJ performance are provided in Electronic Supplementary Material Appendix S4. Figure 4 shows the national temporal trends in mean SBJ performance superimposed onto the scatterplots for Chinese boys and girls separately.

Correlations between national trends in SBJ performance and national trends in health-related (i.e., BMI, MVPA and VPA) and socioeconomic/demographic (i.e., Gini index, HDI and urbanization) indicators were negligible to strong in magnitude and failed to reach statistical significance at the 95% level (Table 2).

3.4 Additional Analysis

The post-hoc sensitivity analysis, where countries with very large samples ($n > 400,000$, e.g., China, Japan, Poland, Republic of Korea, Slovenia and Taiwan, which collectively comprised 94% of all data points) (Table 1) were removed, suggested that the international transition from

improvements to declines occurred ~10 years earlier (i.e., in the mid-1980s vs. the mid-1990s). Despite this difference in breakpoint timing, the rates of change pre- and post-breakpoint in both the sensitivity and full analyses were similar, indicating that large countries did not meaningfully impact the observed international trend (data not shown).

4 Discussion

This study estimated temporal trends in SBJ performance for 10,940,801 children and adolescents from 29 countries between 1960 and 2017. The principal findings were that: (a) there was a negligible (per decade) international improvement observed across the full period for all age and sex groups; (b) the international rate of improvement was steady from the 1960s to the 1980s, slowed in the 1990s, before declining thereafter; (c) while national trends varied, most typically showed declines; and (d) national trends in SBJ performance were not significantly related to national trends in health and socioeconomic/demographic indicators. Our finding of an initial improvement and a recent decline (post-2000) indicates that the functional explosive lower-body strength of today's children and adolescents is better than that of their peers from two generations ago (i.e., in the 1960s), but worse than that of their peers from one generation ago (i.e., in the 1990s). Furthermore, because SBJ has moderate to high construct validity, trends in SBJ performance are suggestive of corresponding trends in general explosive strength [19, 21, 22]. Our trends may be meaningful to public health given the significant cross-sectional and longitudinal relationships between SBJ and health [2, 3]. We also identified a gap in the literature, with available trends in SBJ performance limited almost exclusively to high- and upper-middle-income countries. While considerable progress is needed before SBJ measurement becomes a routine part of population health surveillance globally, the ability to track trends in SBJ performance among children and adolescents highlights the importance of the SBJ as a marker of

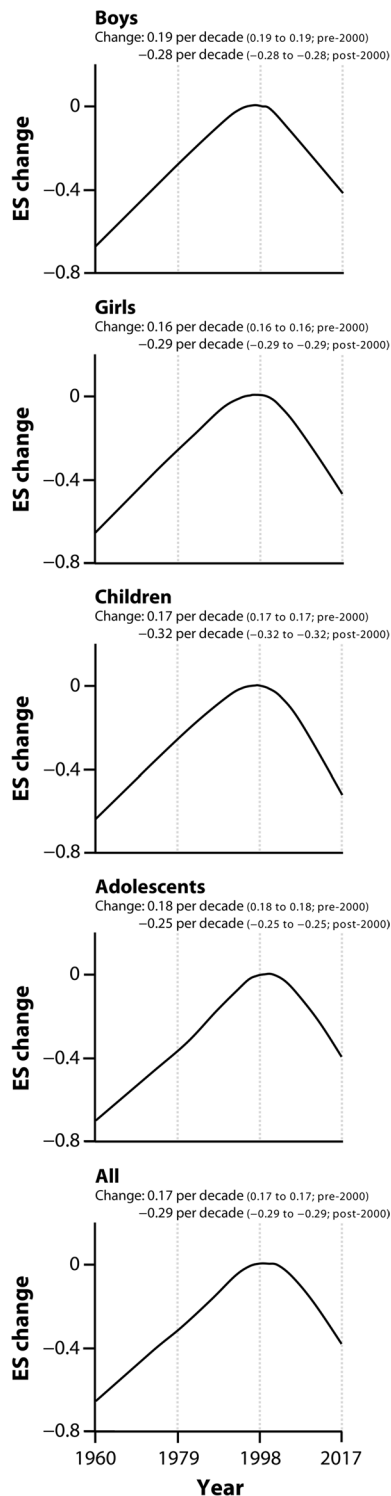


Fig. 2 International temporal trends in mean SBJ performance for children and adolescents between 1960 and 2017. Data were standardized to the year 2000=0, with positive values indicating better SBJ performance and negative values indicating poorer SBJ performance; the solid lines are the LOWESS (LOcally WEighted Scatter-plot Smoother) curves, which represent the international changes in mean SBJ performance, with upward sloping lines indicating improvements in means and downward sloping lines indicating declines in means; mean ES (95% CI) rates of changes (per decade) are shown pre- and post-2000 at the top of each panel. *SBJ* standing broad jump, *ES* effect size

population health and the potential opportunity for low and lower-middle-income countries to engage in a cost effective health surveillance strategy.

4.1 Explanation of Main Findings

Temporal trends in SBJ performance are probably influenced by concurrent trends in biological maturation [161, 162], which along with trends in body size, are thought to be influenced by improved standards of living (e.g., improved health, education and income), healthier lifestyles (e.g., improved nutrition and physical activity levels), and more effective disease prevention and treatment [162–164] although it is difficult to estimate the effect of such factors on trends in SBJ performance. To our knowledge, only one study has directly examined temporal trends in SBJ performance while statistically controlling for trends in maturation. Moliner-Urdiales et al. [35] reported declines in SBJ performance for Spanish adolescents between 2001 and 2007 independent of trends in pubertal status, age, fat mass, fat-free mass and parental education level. Although temporal trends in biological maturation have varied over time and between countries, we can estimate the potential impact of advancing maturation on trends in SBJ performance using conservative estimates, which indicate that the age of menarche has advanced by ~ 0.3 years per decade, and the age at which boys' voices break by ~ 0.2 years per decade [162, 165]. Because older children typically outperform younger children, presumably because of improved physical and neuromuscular maturation, improved SBJ performance would be expected based on maturational advances alone. Cross-sectional data from Tomkinson et al. [43] indicate that SBJ performance improves with each year of age by 5.5% in boys and 2.6% in girls between the ages of 9 and 17 years. Over the 57-year period from 1960 to 2017, improvements of 6.3% for boys (i.e., 5.7 [decades] $\times 0.2$ [years per decade] $\times 5.5\%$ [age-related change]) and 4.4% for girls (i.e., 5.7 [decades] $\times 0.3$ [years per decade] $\times 2.6\%$ [age-related change]) would be expected from maturational advances alone. Between 1960 and 2000, SBJ performance improved internationally by 9.6% for boys and 9.2% for girls, which reduces to 5.2% for boys (i.e., $9.6\% - [4.0 \times 0.2 \times 5.5\%]$) and 6.1% for girls (i.e., $9.2\% - [4.0 \times 0.3 \times 2.6\%]$) when corrected for trends in biological maturation. These estimates suggest that advances in biological maturation explain a significant proportion of the improved SBJ performance over the period 1960–2000. However, while advances in maturation do not help explain the recent (post-2000) international decline, they do at least suggest that we have underestimated the true magnitude of decline. For example, between 2000 and 2017, improvements of 1.7% (boys) and 1.3% (girls) would be expected from maturational advances alone, yet we found declines of -5.6% (boys) and -5.8% (girls), suggesting that

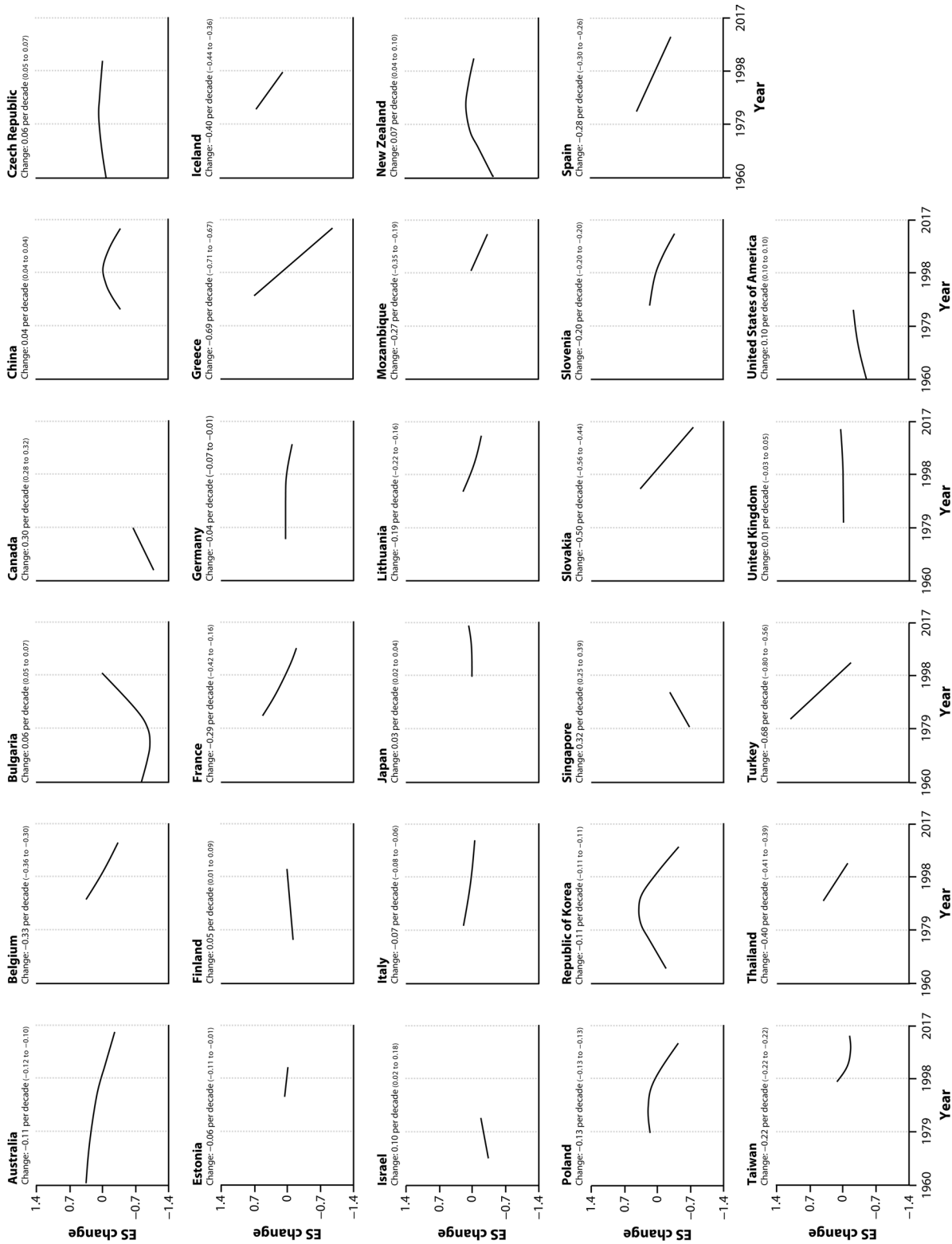


Fig. 3 National temporal trends in mean SBJ performance for children and adolescents between 1960 and 2017. Data were standardized to the year 2000=0, with positive values indicating better SBJ performance and negative values indicating poorer SBJ performance; the solid lines are the LOWESS (LOcally WEighted Scatter-plot Smoother) curves, which represent the national changes in mean SBJ performance, with upward sloping lines indicating improvements in means and downward sloping lines indicating declines in means; mean ES (95% CI) rates of changes (per decade) are shown at the top of each panel. SBJ standing broad jump, ES effect size

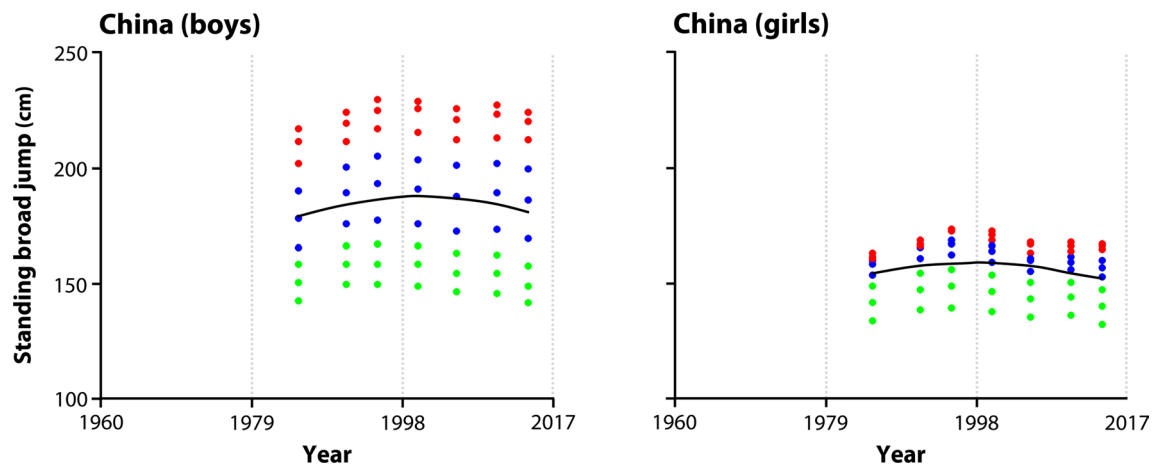


Fig. 4 National temporal trends in mean SBJ performance for Chinese boys (left) and girls (right) between 1985 and 2014. Each dot represents a single study/dataset-age-year mean, with green dots representing 9- to 11-year-olds, blue dots representing 12- to 14-year-olds and red dots representing 15- to 17-year-olds. Higher values indicate better SBJ performance and lower values indicate poorer SBJ performance;

the solid lines are the LOWESS (LOcally WEighted Scatterplot Smoother) curves, which represent the national changes in mean SBJ performance standardized to the year 2000—the population-weighted mean SBJ performance of 188 cm for boys and 159 cm for girls; upward sloping lines indicate improvements in means and downward sloping lines indicate declines in means

the true underlying declines were potentially -7.3% (boys) and -7.1% (girls). Furthermore, it is possible that the relationship between trends in maturation and trends in SBJ performance is mediated by psychosocial factors such as physical self-concept [166]. It could be that earlier maturing girls perceive themselves to be weaker and less competent at sports, resulting in reduced physical activity levels (especially participation in muscle- and bone-strengthening activities) and reduced muscular fitness [167, 168].

Several studies have reported temporal trends in SBJ performance independent of trends in body size, operationalized as (a) height and mass [30, 32, 37], (b) BMI [169], (c) height, mass, and BMI [31] or (d) fat mass and fat-free muscle mass [29, 35]. Other studies, while not directly controlling for trends in body size, have reported concurrent temporal trends in SBJ performance and (a) height and mass [38, 39, 59], (b) BMI [36, 70, 124], (c) height, mass, and BMI [41, 125] and (d) fat mass [123]. International increases in child and adolescent BMI are well established [47], reflecting both increases in fat mass and fat-free muscle mass [170]. Increased fat mass will negatively impact SBJ performance by increasing the force requirement of jumping, while not contributing to it. On the other hand, increased fat-free muscle mass will positively impact SBJ performance through increased maximal force generation capacity of larger exercising muscles [171]. While we found that SBJ performance improved internationally from the 1960s to the 1980s, before slowing in the 1990s and declining thereafter, it is possible that differential trends in fat mass and fat-free muscle mass were involved. For example, the recent decline in SBJ performance might reflect that children and

adolescents have become fatter, or less muscular, at the same BMI, suggesting that the detriment of increased fat mass has recently overridden the benefit of increased fat-free muscle mass. Evidence from high-income countries indicates that BMI has stabilized from the mid-1990s onwards [172], whereas skinfold thicknesses have continued to increase, at least until 2003 [170]. However, we did not find a statistically significant relationship between national trends in SBJ performance and national trends in BMI, indicating that trends in other factors are likely also involved.

A recent systematic review of studies with children and adolescents found consistent positive associations between maximal muscular strength/power and objectively measured MVPA, VPA and organized sport participation [20]. Because of the difficulty in obtaining accurate measurements and temporal differences in sampling and methodology, trends in physical activity levels for children and adolescents are lacking. Currently there is no compelling evidence for a recent international decline in physical activity levels or organized sport participation for children and adolescents [48, 173–175]. However, consistent declines in self-reported active transportation (especially cycling, which imposes a greater physiological demand on the lower-body than does walking) have been reported for children and adolescents from high-income and upper-middle-income countries, and may have contributed to the recent decline in SBJ performance [173]. While no study has statistically controlled trends in SBJ for trends in physical activity, several studies have reported a temporal coincidence [37, 70, 169]. We did not find a statistically significant relationship (r [95% CI] 0.51 [−0.06 to 0.83]) between national trends

Table 2 Potential health-related and socioeconomic/demographic correlates of trends in SBJ performance for children and adolescents

Variable	Data source	Description	Correlation (95% CI)
<i>Health</i>			
Body mass index (BMI)	NCD-RisC [47] Trend data available for 29/29 (100%) countries between 1975 and 2016	Trends were calculated as the change (per decade) in mean country-level BMI of boys and girls aged 5–19 years (age standardized). With increasing SBJ performance, a positive correlation (next column) indicated an increase in mean BMI and a negative correlation indicated a decline	–0.10 (–0.45 to 0.28)
Moderate to vigorous physical activity (MVPA) and vigorous physical activity (VPA)	Inchley et al. [48] Data originally obtained from Health Behaviour in School-aged Children (HBSC) World Health Organization (WHO) collaborative cross-national study. Trend data available for 13 European countries (13/29 or 45% of all countries) between 2002 and 2014	Trends were calculated as the change (per decade) in mean country-level percentage of boys and girls aged 11-, 13-, and 15-years old that achieved at least 60 min of MVPA everyday or VPA at least four times per week. With increasing SBJ performance, a positive correlation indicated an increase in the mean percentage of moderately to vigorously or vigorously active children and a negative correlation indicated a decline	MVPA 0.51 (–0.06 to 0.83) VPA 0.27 (–0.33 to 0.71)
<i>Socioeconomic/demographic</i>			
Gini index	The World Bank [49] Trend data available for 24/29 (83%) countries between 1979 and 2017	The Gini index is a measure of the distribution of income across a population. Trends were calculated as the change (per decade) in the distribution of income among individuals in a country where 0 represents perfect equality and 100 implies perfect inequality. With increasing SBJ performance, a positive correlation indicated a trend towards perfect inequality and a negative correlation a trend towards perfect equality	0.16 (–0.26 to 0.53)
Human development index (HDI)	United Nations [50] Trend data available for 25/29 (86%) countries between 1990 and 2017	The HDI is a composite measure combining country-specific life expectancy, education and per-capita income. Trends were calculated as the change (per decade) in mean country-level human development (i.e., achievements in health, education, and income). With increasing SBJ performance, a positive correlation indicated an increase in the mean human development and a negative correlation indicated a decline	–0.07 (–0.45 to 0.33)
Urbanization	The World Bank [51] Trend data available for 28/29 (97%) countries between 1967 and 2017	Urbanization refers to the population shift from rural to urban areas. Trends were calculated as the change (per decade) in the percentage of people living in urban areas. With increasing SBJ performance, a positive correlation indicated an increase in urbanization and a negative correlation indicated a decline	0.30 (–0.08 to 0.61)

in MVPA and national trends in SBJ performance among European countries. Given that muscular fitness is sensitive to changes in physical activity levels [20], and that physical activity guidelines now recommend that muscle- and bone-strengthening activities be performed at least three times per week in childhood and adolescence [14–17], our finding of a recent decline in SBJ suggests that participation in muscle- and bone-strengthening activities requires further encouragement to alter current trends. It is however possible that the recent international decline in SBJ performances reflects a corresponding decline in fundamental movement skills (e.g., jumping skill competency) [176]. Children and adolescents with low levels of explosive strength and/or poor fundamental movement skills may therefore be unable or unwilling to perform activities of daily living proficiently.

4.2 Comparisons with Other Studies on Trends in Muscular Fitness

The international trend in SBJ performance (i.e., a steady rate of improvement from the 1960s to the 1980s, which slowed in the 1990s, and shifted to a decline thereafter) is broadly consistent with the international trend for other explosive, weight-bearing fitness measures such as sprinting ability [28]. Our previous study [28] indicated an improvement in mean sprinting ability (i.e., 30–60-m sprint and sprint-agility running) for 28.3 million 6-to 19-year-olds from 26 countries between 1958 and 2003. Internationally, sprinting ability improved from the late 1950s to the mid-1980s, and then stabilized until at least until 2003. In contrast, evidence for trends in muscular strength (e.g., maximal isometric handgrip strength measured using handgrip dynamometry) indicated a different temporal pattern [177]. In our recent systematic analysis of temporal trends in handgrip strength for 2,216,320 children and adolescents (aged 9–17 years) from 19 countries/special administrative regions between 1967 and 2017 [177], we found a negligible (per decade) improvement of 3.8%, or 0.14 ES, with the international rate of improvement progressively increasing over time.

Apart from between-study differences (e.g., in populations, sampling, span of testing years) among the included studies, temporal differences in SBJ performance and handgrip strength may be due to the differential effects of corresponding trends in biological maturation and body size. For example, earlier in the Discussion we reported that SBJ performance improves with each year of age by 5.5% in boys and 2.6% in girls between the ages of 9 and 17 years [43]. The corresponding improvements in handgrip strength for boys and girls are 14.2% and 9.3%, respectively [43]. These data indicate that corresponding advances in maturation appear to benefit handgrip strength more so than SBJ performance. Increased fat-free muscle mass will benefit both

SBJ performance and handgrip strength through increased muscular force generation capacity, whereas increased fat mass will harm SBJ performance (by increasing the force requirement) but not handgrip strength (a weight independent strength task). In addition, if skill contributes more to SBJ performance than it does to handgrip strength performance, then the observed temporal differences might be influenced by corresponding trends in fundamental movement skills [176].

4.3 Strengths and Limitations

This study currently represents the most comprehensive synthesis of national and international temporal trends in SBJ performance for children and adolescents. We estimated trends in SBJ performance, which is a feasible, ecologically valid and scalable measure of functional explosive strength [18, 19] that is significantly related to current and future health [2, 3]. It used a novel analytical approach—a method by which data from different sources are pieced together to create an overall temporal picture using analytical techniques beyond those used in a typical meta-analysis—that has been previously used in other studies on temporal trends in fitness for children and adolescents [26, 28]. The sample-weighted regression and post-stratification population weighting procedures adjusted our trends for sampling bias by incorporating the underlying population demographics, and our stratified trends analysis enabled us to assess and control for potential confounding factors (e.g., age, sex and country).

This study is not without limitations. First, because trends in SBJ performance were estimated from summary statistics rather than raw data, and because corresponding descriptive data were (almost) never reported for potential mechanistic factors (e.g., biological maturation, body size, physical activity levels), we were unable to statistically remove the effects of trends in such factors. Second, our trends in SBJ performance are almost exclusively representative of high- and upper-middle-income countries (28/29 or 97%), which restricts generalizability to low-income and lower-middle-income countries. Third, we have low confidence in our correlations (Table 2) because: (a) of the small number of included countries (e.g., we were limited to only 13 European countries when examining relationships between trends in SBJ performance and trends in MVPA/VPA); (b) the homogeneity in the available trends between countries; (c) the mismatch in the time span over which trends in SBJ performance were calculated versus the time span over which the trends in health-related and socioeconomic/demographic indicators were calculated; and (d) the potential for ecological fallacy. Fourth, while differences in SBJ testing protocols (e.g., number of trials, practice, levels of encouragement, motivation, test instructions, diurnal variation) will affect

the variability of SBJ results, such differences are unlikely to have biased our trends because all within-study/dataset trends used matched protocols. Fifth, while many studies/datasets used exclusively probability sampling, few exclusively used nationally representative data. Nonetheless, we included studies/datasets that estimated trends using state/provincial-, city-, and/or community-level data as they provided the best available estimate of national trends in those countries. Moreover, we did not formally assess the risk of bias in individual studies because the mix of study designs and publication types (e.g., studies primarily reporting trends, studies primarily reporting other outcomes but including descriptive data suitable for trends analysis, and large nationally representative datasets suitable for trends analysis) prevented the use a single assessment tool. Finally, our trends in mean SBJ performance could be systematically biased if concurrent trends in skewness occurred, although this is unlikely given evidence of uniform trends across the distribution [29, 70].

5 Conclusion

This study found a negligible (per decade) international improvement in SBJ performance for all age and sex groups since 1960, with the rate of improvement steady from the 1960s to the 1980s, slowing in the 1990s, before declining thereafter. Trends in SBJ performance varied between countries, with most countries experiencing declines, with national trends not significantly related to national trends in health and socioeconomic/demographic indicators. This study also identified a gap in the literature for low-income and lower-middle-income countries. The growing recognition of the importance of muscular fitness as a marker of population health highlights the need for continued tracking of temporal trends in muscular fitness to help evaluate the effectiveness of healthy public policies and interventions, and to potentially predict future trends. Future research on temporal trends in SBJ performance should aim to: (a) report trends as absolute, percent and standardized changes in means at the sex-age level; (b) statistically adjust for trends in mechanistic factors (e.g., body size, sexual maturation, physical activity levels, fundamental movement skill competency); and (c) report complementary trends in measures of variability (e.g., SDs, coefficients of variation) and/or asymmetry (e.g., skewness).

Acknowledgements We would like to thank: (a) the authors of the included studies for generously clarifying details of their studies and/or for providing additional data; (b) Dr. Yang Liu, Dr. Tetsuhiro Kidokoro, Dr. Shingo Noi, Dr. Koya Suzuki, Dr. Dae-Yeon Kim, Dr. Gregor Jurak and Dr. Gregor Starc for their assistance with national fitness surveillance data from China, Japan, the Republic of Korea and Slovenia,

respectively; and (c) Dr. Bruce Brown for his assistance with mathematical typesetting.

Declarations

Conflict of interest Grant R. Tomkinson, Tori Kaster, Faith L. Dooley, John S. Fitzgerald, Madison Annandale, Katia Ferrar, Justin J. Lang, and Jordan J. Smith declare they have no conflicts of interest.

Funding No funding was received for this project.

Ethics approval Not applicable.

Consent to participate Not applicable.

Consent for publication Not applicable.

Availability of data and materials The datasets analyzed in this review are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

Code availability Not applicable.

Author contributions GRT developed the research question and designed the study. GRT, TK and FLD designed the systematic review strategy, had full access to the data, and take responsibility for the integrity of the data. GRT led the statistical analysis, synthesis of results and drafted the initial manuscript. All authors contributed to the interpretation of results, editing and critical reviewing of the final manuscript, approved the final manuscript as submitted, and agreed to be accountable for all aspects of the work.

References

1. American College of Sports Medicine. ACSM's guidelines for exercise testing and prescription. 10th ed. Baltimore: Lippincott Williams & Wilkins; 2018.
2. García-Hermoso A, Ramírez-Campillo R, Izquierdo M. Is muscular fitness associated with future health benefits in children and adolescents? A systematic review and meta-analysis of longitudinal studies. *Sports Med.* 2019;49(7):1079–94.
3. Smith JJ, Eather N, Morgan PJ, Plotnikoff RC, Faigenbaum AD, Lubans DR. The health benefits of muscular fitness for children and adolescents: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Sports Med.* 2014;44(9):1209–23.
4. Artero EG, Ruiz JR, Ortega FB, et al. Muscular and cardiorespiratory fitness are independently associated with metabolic risk in adolescents: the HELENA study. *Pediatr Diabetes.* 2011;12(8):704–12.
5. Castro-Piñero J, Perez-Bey A, Cuenca-Garcia M, et al. Muscle fitness cut points for early assessment of cardiovascular risk in children and adolescents. *J Pediatr.* 2019;206:134–41.
6. Peterson MD, Gordon PM, Smeding S, Visich P. Grip strength is associated with longitudinal health maintenance and improvement in adolescents. *J Pediatr.* 2018;202:226–30.
7. Timpka S, Petersson IF, Zhou C, Englund M. Muscle strength in adolescent men and risk of cardiovascular disease events and mortality in middle age: a prospective cohort study. *BMC Med.* 2014;12:62.
8. Henriksson H, Henriksson P, Tynelius P, Ortega FB. Muscular weakness in adolescence is associated with disability 30 years later: a population-based cohort study of 1.2 million men. *Br J Sports Med.* 2019;53(19):1221–30.


9. Fraser BJ, Blizzard L, Schmidt MD, et al. Childhood cardiorespiratory fitness, muscular fitness and adult measures of glucose homeostasis. *J Sci Med Sport*. 2018;21(9):935–40.
10. Ortega FB, Silventoinen K, Tynelius P, Rasmussen F. Muscular strength in male adolescents and premature death: cohort study of one million participants. *BMJ*. 2012;345:e7279.
11. Peterson MD, Zhang P, Saltarelli WA, Visich PS, Gordon PM. Low muscle strength thresholds for the detection of cardiometabolic risk in adolescents. *Am J Prev Med*. 2016;50(5):593–9.
12. Ramírez-Vélez R, Peña-Ibagon JC, Martínez-Torres J, et al. Handgrip strength cutoff for cardiometabolic risk index among Colombian children and adolescents: the FUPRECOL Study. *Sci Rep*. 2017;7:42622.
13. Saint-Maurice PF, Laurson K, Welk G, et al. Grip strength cut-points for youth based on a clinically relevant bone health outcome. *Arch Osteoporos*. 2018;13(1):92.
14. Australian Government Department of Health. Australian 24-hour movement guidelines for children and young people (5–17 years): an integration of physical activity, sedentary behaviour, and sleep. <https://www.health.gov.au/internet/main/publishing.nsf/Content/health-24-hours-phys-act-guidelines>. Accessed 7 July 2019.
15. Canadian Society for Exercise Physiology. Canadian 24-hour movement guidelines for children and youth (ages 5–17 years): an integration of physical activity, sedentary behaviour and sleep. <https://csepguidelines.ca/children-and-youth-5-17/>. Accessed 7 July 2019.
16. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Physical activity guidelines for Americans. 2nd ed. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services; 2018.
17. World Health Organization. Global recommendations on physical activity for health. Geneva: WHO Press; 2010.
18. Tomkinson G, Olds T. Field tests of fitness. In: Armstrong N, Van Mechelen W, editors. Paediatric exercise science and medicine. 2nd ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press; 2008. p. 109–28.
19. Castro-Piñero J, Ortega FB, Artero EG, et al. Assessing muscular strength in youth: usefulness of standing long jump as a general index of muscular fitness. *J Strength Cond Res*. 2010;24(7):1810–7.
20. Smith JJ, Eather N, Weaver RG, Riley N, Beets MW, Lubans DR. Behavioral correlates of muscular fitness in children and adolescents: a systematic review. *Sports Med*. 2019;49(6):887–904.
21. Fernandez-Santos JR, Ruiz JR, Cohen DD, Gonzalez-Montesinos JL, Castro-Piñero J. Reliability and validity of tests to assess lower-body muscular power in children. *J Strength Cond Res*. 2015;29(8):2277–85.
22. Milliken LA, Faigenbaum AD, Loud RL, Westcott WL. Correlates of upper and lower body muscular strength in children. *J Strength Cond Res*. 2008;22(4):1339–46.
23. Ortega FB, Artero EG, Ruiz JR, et al. Reliability of health-related physical fitness tests in European adolescents. The HELENA Study. *Int J Obes (Lond)*. 2008;32(Suppl 5):S49–57.
24. Institute of Medicine. Fitness measures and health outcomes in youth. Washington: The National Academies Press; 2012.
25. Ruiz JR, Castro-Piñero J, España-Romero V, et al. Field-based fitness assessment in young people: the ALPHA health-related fitness test battery for children and adolescents. *Br J Sports Med*. 2011;45(6):518–24.
26. Tomkinson GR, Lang JJ, Tremblay MS. Temporal trends in the cardiorespiratory fitness of children and adolescents representing 19 high-income and upper middle-income countries between 1981 and 2014. *Br J Sports Med*. 2019;53(8):478–86.
27. Tomkinson GR, Léger LA, Olds TS, Cazorla G. Secular trends in the performance of children and adolescents (1980–2000): an analysis of 55 studies of the 20 m shuttle run test in 11 countries. *Sports Med*. 2003;33(4):285–300.
28. Tomkinson GR. Global changes in anaerobic fitness test performance of children and adolescents (1958–2003). *Scand J Med Sci Sports*. 2007;17(5):497–507.
29. Fraser BJ, Blizzard L, Tomkinson GR, et al. The great leap backward: changes in the jumping performance of Australian children aged 11–12-years between 1985 and 2015. *J Sports Sci*. 2019;37(7):748–54.
30. Hardy LL, Merom D, Thomas M, Peralta L. 30-year changes in Australian children's standing broad jump: 1985–2015. *J Sci Med Sport*. 2018;21(10):1057–61.
31. Venckunas T, Emeljanovas A, Mieziene B, Volbekiene V. Secular trends in physical fitness and body size in Lithuanian children and adolescents between 1992 and 2012. *J Epidemiol Commun Health*. 2017;71(2):181–7.
32. Ignasiak Z, Sławińska T, Malina RM. Short term secular change in body size and physical fitness of youth 7–15 years in South-western Poland: 2001–2002 and 2010–2011. *Anthropol Rev*. 2016;79(3):311–29.
33. Saczuk J, Wasiluk A. Changes in the somatic and fitness variables in girls over two decades. *Biomed Hum Kinet*. 2010;2(1):102–5.
34. Saczuk J, Wasiluk A, Zalech M. Generation changes over the period of 1986–2006 in the physical fitness of boys aged 7–19 from eastern Poland at particular stages of education. *Biomed Hum Kinet*. 2012;4:112–6.
35. Moliner-Urdiales D, Ruiz JR, Ortega FB, et al. Secular trends in health-related physical fitness in Spanish adolescents: the AVENA and HELENA studies. *J Sci Med Sport*. 2010;13(6):584–8.
36. Lo KY, Wu MC, Ho CC, Hsieh CC, Tung SC. Assessment of physical fitness among Taiwanese adolescents: a cohort study from 1997 to 2013. *Sports Exerc Res*. 2015;17(4):443–60.
37. Sandercock GRH, Cohen DD. Temporal trends in muscular fitness of English 10-year-olds 1998–2014: an allometric approach. *J Sci Med Sport*. 2019;22(2):201–5.
38. Kopecký M. The secular trend in the somatic development and motoric performance of boys in the Olomouc region within the last 36 years. *Acta Univ Palacki Olomuc Gymn*. 2006;36(3):55–64.
39. Kopecký M, Přidalová M. The secular trend in the somatic development and motor performance of 7–15-year-old girls. *Med Sport*. 2008;12(3):78–85.
40. Klein M, Fröhlich M, Emrich E. Motor performance and body-weight of children and adolescents in Saarland—status quo. *Eur J Sport Sci*. 2013;13(3):280–9.
41. Costa AM, Costa MJ, Reis AA, Ferreira S, Martins J, Pereira A. Secular trends in anthropometrics and physical fitness of young Portuguese school-aged children. *Acta Med Port*. 2017;30(2):108–14.
42. Moher D, Liberati A, Tetzlaff J, et al. Preferred reporting items for systematic reviews and meta-analyses: the PRISMA statement. *BMJ*. 2009;339:b2535.
43. Tomkinson GR, Carver KD, Atkinson F, et al. European normative values for physical fitness in children and adolescents aged 9–17 years: results from 2 779 165 Eurofit performances representing 30 countries. *Br J Sports Med*. 2018;52(22):1445–56.
44. Cohen J. Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences. 2nd ed. Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum; 1988.
45. Levy PS, Lemeshow S. Stratification random sampling: further issues. In: Levy PS, Lemeshow S, editors. Sampling of populations: methods and application. Hoboken: Wiley; 2008. p. 143–88.
46. United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division. World population prospects 2019: data booklet (ST/ESA/SER.A/424). New York: United Nations; 2019.
47. NCD Risk Factor Collaboration (NCD-RisC). Worldwide trends in body-mass index, underweight, overweight, and obesity from

- 1975 to 2016: a pooled analysis of 2416 population-based measurement studies in 128.9 million children, adolescents, and adults. *Lancet* 2017;390(10113):2627–2642.
48. Inchley J, Currie D, Jewell J. Adolescent obesity and related behaviours: trends and inequalities in the WHO European region, 2002–2014. Observations from the Health Behaviour in School-aged Children (HBSC) WHO collaborative cross-national study. Copenhagen: World Health Organization; 2017.
 49. The World Bank. GINI index (World Bank estimate). <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SI.POV.GINI>. Accessed 27 June 2019.
 50. United Nations Development Programme. Human development indices and indicators: 2018 statistical update. New York: United Nations Development Programme; 2018.
 51. The World Bank. Urban population growth. <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.URB.GROW>. Accessed 27 June 2019.
 52. The World Bank. World Bank country and lending groups. <http://data.worldbank.org/about/country-and-lending-groups>. Accessed 27 June 2019.
 53. Catley MJ, Tomkinson GR. Normative health-related fitness values for children: analysis of 85347 test results on 9–17-year-old Australians since 1985. *Br J Sports Med.* 2013;47(2):98–108.
 54. Tomkinson GR, Hamlin MJ, Olds TS. Secular changes in anaerobic test performance in Australasian children and adolescents. *Pediatr Exerc Sci.* 2006;18(3):314–28.
 55. Dimitrova D. Fizicheska deesposobnost na podrastvashtite vuv vruska s vuzrastovite promeni v telesnite razmeri I sustava na telesnata masa (Physical fitness of children and adolescents in relation with age-specific changes in body composition). Doctoral dissertation. Sofia, National Sports Academy; 2001.
 56. Slanchev P, Janev B, Genov F, et al. Fizicheskoto razvitiye, fizicheskata deesposobnost i nervo-psichichna reaktivnost na naselenieto na Bulgaria: III Nacionalno izsledvane (1980–1982) (Physical development, physical fitness and neuropsychic reactivity of Bulgarian population: III National Project [1980–1982]). Sofia, Bulgarian Union for Physical Education and Sports; 1992.
 57. Yanev B, Shterev P, Boev P, et al. Fizicheskoto razvitiye, fizicheskata deesposobnost i nervo-psichichna reaktivnost na naselenieto (Physical development, physical fitness and neuropsychic reactivity of the Bulgarian people from birth up to age 60). Sofia, Bulgarian Union for Physical Education and Sports; 1982.
 58. Yanev B, Shterev P, Boev P, Semerdjieva R, Sepetliev D. Fizicheskoto razvitiye i deesposobnost na naselenieto na Bulgaria ot rajdaneto do 26 godini, tom I (Physical development and fitness of Bulgarian people from the birth up to the age of 26, volume I). Sofia, Bulgarian Academy of Sciences; 1965.
 59. Conger PR, Quinney HA, Gauthier R, Massicotte D. Comparison of the CAHPER fitness performance test: results compared with data: 1966–1980. *CAHPER J.* 1982;49(1):6–11.
 60. Research Group of Physical Fitness and Health Research of Chinese School Students. Reports on the physical fitness and health research of Chinese school students 1985. Beijing: Higher Education Press; 1987.
 61. Research Group of Physical Fitness and Health Research of Chinese School Students. Reports on the physical fitness and health research of Chinese school students 1991. Beijing: Higher Education Press; 1993.
 62. Research Group of Physical Fitness and Health Research of Chinese School Students. Reports on the physical fitness and health research of Chinese school students 1995. Beijing: Higher Education Press; 1997.
 63. Research Group of Physical Fitness and Health Research of Chinese School Students. Reports on the physical fitness and health research of Chinese school students 2000. Beijing: Higher Education Press; 2002.
 64. Research Group of Physical Fitness and Health Research of Chinese School Students. Reports on the physical fitness and health research of Chinese school students 2005. Beijing: Higher Education Press; 2007.
 65. Research Group of Physical Fitness and Health Research of Chinese School Students. Reports on the physical fitness and health research of Chinese school students 2010. Beijing: Higher Education Press; 2012.
 66. Research Group of Physical Fitness and Health Research of Chinese School Students. Reports on the Physical Fitness and Health Research of Chinese School Students 2014. Beijing: Higher Education Press; 2016.
 67. Moravec R, Havlíček I, Kasa J, et al. Telesný, funkčný rozvoj a pohybová výkonnosť 7–18-ročnej mládeže v ČSFR (Physical, functional development and motor performance of Czechoslovak youth aged 7–18 years). Bratislava: Ministerstvo školstva, mládeže a športu SROV; 1990.
 68. Pávek F. Telesná vykonnosť 7–19leté mládeže CSSR (Physical performance of Czechoslovak youth aged 7–19 years). Praha: Olympia; 1977.
 69. Roubal E, Roubal J. Tělesná vyspělost středoškolských žáků podle měření z r. 1923. Physical maturity of secondary school pupils according to measurements from 1923. *Anthropologie.* 1923;1925(3):45–58.
 70. Huotari PRT, Nupponen H, Laakso L, Kujala UM. Secular trends in muscular fitness among Finnish adolescents. *Scand J Public Health.* 2010;38(7):739–47.
 71. Ben-Sira D. A survey of the level of physical fitness of Israeli high school students. In: Ruskin H, Simkin A, editors. Physical fitness and the ages of man: proceedings of the symposium of the International Council for Physical Fitness Research, 29 Sept–1 Oct, 1986, Jerusalem. Jerusalem: Academ Press; 1987. pp. 164–177.
 72. Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology. Report book on the survey of physical fitness and athletic ability. Tokyo: Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology; 1968.
 73. Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology. Report book on the survey of physical fitness and athletic ability. Tokyo: Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology; 1969.
 74. Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology. Report book on the survey of physical fitness and athletic ability. Tokyo: Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology; 1970.
 75. Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology. Report book on the survey of physical fitness and athletic ability. Tokyo: Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology; 1971.
 76. Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology. Report book on the survey of physical fitness and athletic ability. Tokyo: Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology; 1972.
 77. Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology. Report book on the survey of physical fitness and athletic ability. Tokyo: Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology; 1973.
 78. Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology. Report book on the survey of physical fitness and athletic ability. Tokyo: Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology; 1974.
 79. Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology. Report book on the survey of physical fitness and athletic ability. Tokyo: Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology; 1975.
 80. Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology. Report book on the survey of physical fitness and athletic

- ability. Tokyo: Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology; 2009.
114. Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology. Report book on the survey of physical fitness and athletic ability. Tokyo: Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology; 2010.
 115. Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology. Report book on the survey of physical fitness and athletic ability. Tokyo: Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology; 2011.
 116. Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology. Report book on the survey of physical fitness and athletic ability. Tokyo: Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology; 2012.
 117. Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology. Report book on the survey of physical fitness and athletic ability. Tokyo: Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology; 2013.
 118. Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology. Report book on the survey of physical fitness and athletic ability. Tokyo: Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology; 2014.
 119. Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology. Report book on the survey of physical fitness and athletic ability. Tokyo: Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology; 2015.
 120. Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology. Report book on the survey of physical fitness and athletic ability. Tokyo: Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology; 2016.
 121. Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology. Report book on the survey of physical fitness and athletic ability. Tokyo: Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology; 2017.
 122. Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology. Report book on the survey of physical fitness and athletic ability. Tokyo: Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology; 2018.
 123. Dos Santos FK, Prista A, Gomes TN, et al. Secular trends in physical fitness of Mozambican school-aged children and adolescents. *Am J Hum Biol.* 2015;27(2):201–6.
 124. Albon HM, Hamlin MJ, Ross JJ. Secular trends and distributional changes in health and fitness performance variables of 10–14-year-old children in New Zealand between 1991 and 2003. *Br J Sports Med.* 2010;44(4):263–9.
 125. Przeweda R, Dobosz J. Growth and physical fitness of Polish youths in two successive decades. *J Sports Med Phys Fitn.* 2003;43(4):465–74.
 126. Ministry of Culture and Tourism. National survey of physical fitness. Seoul: Korean Sport Science Institute; 1993.
 127. Ministry of Culture and Tourism. National survey of physical fitness. Seoul: Korean Sport Science Institute; 1996.
 128. Ministry of Culture and Tourism. National survey of physical fitness. Seoul: Korean Sport Science Institute; 1999.
 129. Ministry of Culture and Tourism. National survey of physical fitness. Seoul: Korean Sport Science Institute; 2002.
 130. Ministry of Culture and Tourism. National survey of physical fitness. Seoul: Korean Sport Science Institute; 2005.
 131. Ministry of Culture and Tourism. National survey of physical fitness. Seoul: Korean Sport Science Institute; 2008.
 132. Ministry of Education, Health, Recreation and Dance. Statistical yearbook of education. Seoul: Ministry of Education, Health, Recreation and Dance; 1980.
 133. Ministry of Education, Health, Recreation and Dance. Statistical yearbook of education. Seoul: Ministry of Education, Health, Recreation and Dance; 1981.
 134. Ministry of Education, Health, Recreation and Dance. Statistical yearbook of education. Seoul: Ministry of Education, Health, Recreation and Dance; 1982.
 135. Ministry of Education, Health, Recreation and Dance. Statistical yearbook of education. Seoul: Ministry of Education, Health, Recreation and Dance; 1983.
 136. Ministry of Education, Health, Recreation and Dance. Statistical yearbook of education. Seoul: Ministry of Education, Health, Recreation and Dance; 1984.
 137. Ministry of Education, Health, Recreation and Dance. Statistical yearbook of education. Seoul: Ministry of Education, Health, Recreation and Dance; 1985.
 138. Ministry of Education, Health, Recreation and Dance. Statistical yearbook of education. Seoul: Ministry of Education, Health, Recreation and Dance; 1986.
 139. Ministry of Education, Health, Recreation and Dance. Statistical yearbook of education. Seoul: Ministry of Education, Health, Recreation and Dance; 1998.
 140. Ministry of Education, Health, Recreation and Dance. Statistical yearbook of education. Seoul: Ministry of Education, Health, Recreation and Dance; 2000.
 141. Ministry of Education, Health, Recreation and Dance. Statistical yearbook of education. Seoul: Ministry of Education, Health, Recreation and Dance; 2001.
 142. Ministry of Education, Health, Recreation and Dance. Statistical yearbook of education. Seoul: Ministry of Education, Health, Recreation and Dance; 2002.
 143. Ministry of Education, Health, Recreation and Dance. Statistical yearbook of education. Seoul: Ministry of Education, Health, Recreation and Dance; 2003.
 144. Ministry of Education, Health, Recreation and Dance. Statistical yearbook of education. Seoul: Ministry of Education, Health, Recreation and Dance; 2004.
 145. Ministry of Education, Health, Recreation and Dance. Statistical yearbook of education. Seoul: Ministry of Education, Health, Recreation and Dance; 2005.
 146. Ministry of Education, Health, Recreation and Dance. Statistical yearbook of education. Seoul: Ministry of Education, Health, Recreation and Dance; 2006.
 147. Ministry of Education, Health, Recreation and Dance. Statistical yearbook of education. Seoul: Ministry of Education, Health, Recreation and Dance; 2007.
 148. Ministry of Education, Health, Recreation and Dance. Statistical yearbook of education. Seoul: Ministry of Education, Health, Recreation and Dance; 2008.
 149. Ministry of Education, Health, Recreation and Dance. Statistical yearbook of education. Seoul: Ministry of Education, Health, Recreation and Dance; 2009.
 150. Ministry of Education, Health, Recreation and Dance. Statistical yearbook of education. Seoul: Ministry of Education, Health, Recreation and Dance; 2010.
 151. Ministry of Education, Health, Recreation and Dance. Statistical yearbook of education. Seoul: Ministry of Education, Health, Recreation and Dance; 2011.
 152. Quek JJ, Menon J, Tan S, Wang B. Review of National Physical Fitness Award (NAPFA) norms. In: *Optimising performance: proceedings of the International Sports Science Conference, 9–11 Jun 1993, Singapore.* Singapore: Singapore Sports Council; 1993. pp. 161–212.
 153. Active Healthy Kids Slovenia. The 2018 Republic of Slovenia report card on physical activity of children and youth. Ljubljana: Active Healthy Kids Slovenia; 2018.
 154. Klanarong S. Socio-demographic distribution of health-related fitness of Thai children. Doctoral dissertation. Adelaide, SA: University of South Australia; 2005.

155. Haslofça F, Kutlay E, Haslofça E. 11–12 yaş Türk çocuklarının bazı fiziksel uygunluk değerlerindeki otuz yıllık değişimlerin incelenmesi (Analysis of three decade changes in physical fitness characteristics of Turkish children aged between 11 and 12). *Spor Hekimliği Dergisi (Turk J Sports Med)*. 2017;52(4):137–45.
156. Bos RR. An analysis of the youth fitness project data and a comparison of these data with comparable data recorded prior to 1940. Doctoral dissertation. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan; 1961.
157. Espenchade AS, Meleney H. Motor performances of adolescent boys and girls of today in comparison with those 24 years ago. *Res Q*. 1960;32(2):186–9.
158. Hunsicker PA, Reiff GG. Youth fitness report: 1958–1965–1975. *J Phys Educ Recreat*. 1977;48(1):31–3.
159. Reiff GG, Dixon WR, Jacoby D, Ye GX, Spain CG, Hunsicker PA. The President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports 1985: National School Population Fitness Survey. Washington: President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports; 1986.
160. 2018中華民國人類發展指數(HDI)" (in Chinese). Directorate General of Budget, Accounting and Statistics, Executive Yuan, R.O.C. 2018. <https://web.archive.org/web/20170811222036/http://eng.stat.gov.tw/public/data/dgbas03/bs2/gender/International%20Gender/%E4%BA%BA%E9%A1%9E%E7%99%BC%E5%B1%95%E6%8C%87%E6%95%B8.xls>. Accessed 27 June 2019.
161. Malina RM, Bouchard C, Bar-Or O. Growth, maturation and physical activity. 2nd ed. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics; 2004.
162. Malina RM. Secular trends in growth, maturation and physical performance: a review. *Anthropol Rev*. 2004;67:3–31.
163. Backstrand JR. The history and future of food fortification in the United States: a public health perspective. *Nutr Rev*. 2002;60(1):15–26.
164. Cutler D, Miller G. The role of public health improvements in health advances: the twentieth-century United States. *Demography*. 2005;42(1):1–22.
165. Roche AF. Secular trends in stature, weight, and maturation. *Monogr Soc Res Child Dev*. 1979;44(3–4):3–27.
166. Malina RM, Cumming SP, Coelho E, Silva MJ. Physical activity and movement proficiency: the need for a biocultural approach. *Pediatr Exerc Sci*. 2016;28(2):233–9.
167. Cumming SP, Standage M, Gillison F, Malina RM. Sex differences in exercise behavior during adolescence: is biological maturation a confounding factor? *J Adolesc Health*. 2008;42(5):480–5.
168. Jackson L, Cumming SP, Drenowatz C, Standage M, Sherar LB, Malina RM. Biological maturation and physical activity in adolescent British females: The roles of physical self-concept and perceived parental support. *Psychol Sport Exerc*. 2013;14(4):447–54.
169. Smpokos EA, Linardakis M, Papadaki A, Lionis C, Kafatos A. Secular trends in fitness, moderate-to-vigorous physical activity, and TV-viewing among first grade school children of Crete, Greece between 1992/93 and 2006/07. *J Sci Med Sport*. 2012;15(2):129–35.
170. Olds TS. One million skinfolds: secular trends in the fatness of young people 1951–2004. *Eur J Clin Nutr*. 2009;63(8):934–46.
171. Fukunaga T, Miyatani M, Tachi M, Kouzaki M, Kawakami Y, Kanehisa H. Muscle volume is a major determinant of joint torque in humans. *Acta Physiol Scand*. 2001;172(4):249–55.
172. Olds T, Maher C, Zumin S, et al. Evidence that the prevalence of childhood overweight is plateauing: data from nine countries. *Int J Pediatr Obes*. 2011;6(5–6):342–60.
173. Booth VM, Rowlands AV, Dollman J. Physical activity temporal trends among children and adolescents. *J Sci Med Sport*. 2015;18(4):418–25.
174. Ekelund U, Tomkinson G, Armstrong N. What proportion of youth are physically active? Measurement issues, levels and recent time trends. *Br J Sports Med*. 2011;45(11):859–65.
175. Knuth AG, Hallal PC. Temporal trends in physical activity: a systematic review. *J Phys Act Health*. 2009;6(5):548–59.
176. Hardy LL, Barnett L, Espinel P, Okely AD. Thirteen-year trends in child and adolescent fundamental movement skills: 1997–2010. *Med Sci Sports Exerc*. 2013;45(10):1965–70.
177. Dooley FL, Kaster T, Fitzgerald JS, et al. A systematic analysis of temporal trends in the handgrip strength of 2,216,320 children and adolescents between 1967 and 2017. *Sports Med*. 2020;50(6):1129–44.

Affiliations

Grant R. Tomkinson^{1,2}  · Tori Kaster¹ · Faith L. Dooley¹ · John S. Fitzgerald¹ · Madison Annandale² · Katia Ferrar² · Justin J. Lang^{3,4} · Jordan J. Smith⁵

¹ Department of Education, Health and Behavior Studies, University of North Dakota, 2751 2nd Avenue North, Stop 8235, Grand Forks, ND 58202, USA

² Alliance for Research in Exercise, Nutrition and Activity (ARENA), School of Health Sciences, University of South Australia, Adelaide, SA, Australia

³ Centre for Surveillance and Applied Research, Public Health Agency of Canada, Ottawa, ON, Canada

⁴ Healthy Active Living and Obesity Research Group, Children's Hospital of Eastern Ontario Research Institute, Ottawa, ON, Canada

⁵ Priority Research Centre for Physical Activity and Nutrition, School of Education, University of Newcastle, Callaghan, NSW, Australia