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Effects of Resistance Training on Muscle Size and Strength in Very Elderly Adults: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis of Randomized Controlled Trials

This is the Accepted version of the following publication

Grgic, Jozo, Garofolini, Alessandro, Orazem, John, Sabol, Filip, Schoenfeld, Brad J and Pedisic, Zeljko (2020) Effects of Resistance Training on Muscle Size and Strength in Very Elderly Adults: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis of Randomized Controlled Trials. *Sports Medicine*, 50. pp. 1983-1999. ISSN 0112-1642

The publisher's official version can be found at
<https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007%2Fs40279-020-01331-7>
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1 **Resistance training increases muscle size and strength in very elderly adults: a**
2 **systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials**

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11 **Short title:** Resistance training and the very elderly

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16 **Abstract**

17 **Background:** Effects of resistance training on muscle strength and hypertrophy are well-
18 established in adults and younger elderly. However, less is currently known about these
19 effects in the very elderly (i.e., 75 years of age and older).

20 **Objective:** To examine the effects of resistance training on muscle size and strength in very
21 elderly individuals.

22 **Methods:** Randomized controlled studies that explored the effects of resistance training in
23 very elderly on muscle strength, handgrip strength, whole-muscle hypertrophy, and/or muscle
24 fiber hypertrophy were included in the review. Meta-analyses of effect sizes (ESs) were used
25 to analyze the data.

26 **Results:** Twenty-two studies were included in the review. The meta-analysis found a
27 significant effect of resistance training on muscle strength in the very elderly (difference in
28 ES = 0.97; 95% confidence interval [CI]: 0.50, 1.44; $p = 0.001$). In a subgroup analysis that
29 included only the oldest-old participants (80+ years of age), there was a significant effect of
30 resistance training on muscle strength (difference in ES = 1.28; 95% CI: 0.28, 2.29; $p =$
31 0.020). For handgrip strength, we found no significant difference between resistance training
32 and control groups (difference in ES = 0.26; 95% CI: -0.02, 0.54; $p = 0.064$). For whole-
33 muscle hypertrophy, there was a significant effect of resistance training in the very elderly
34 (difference in ES = 0.30; 95% CI: 0.10, 0.50; $p = 0.013$). We found no significant difference
35 in muscle fiber hypertrophy between resistance training and control groups (difference in ES
36 = 0.33; 95% CI: -0.67, 1.33; $p = 0.266$). There were minimal reports of adverse events
37 associated with the training programs in the included studies.

38 **Conclusions:** We found that very elderly can increase muscle strength and muscle size by
39 participating in resistance training programs. Resistance training was found to be an effective
40 way to improve muscle strength even among the oldest-old.

41 **Key points:**

42 ► We found that very elderly adults can increase their muscle strength and size by
43 participating in resistance training programs.

44 ► These effects were observed with resistance training interventions that generally included
45 low weekly training volumes and frequencies.

46 ► There were minimal reports of adverse events associated with the training programs.

47

48

49 **1 Introduction**

50 Dynapenia is the age-associated loss of muscle strength [1]. Low muscle strength increases
51 the risk of mobility limitations and mortality in older adults [1-4]. Sarcopenia is a progressive
52 skeletal muscle characterized by a degenerative loss of muscle mass and function [5]. It is
53 associated with an increased likelihood of physical disability, falls, fractures, and mortality
54 [5]. Resistance training is the most widely recognized mode of exercise for increasing muscle
55 strength and muscle size. The effectiveness of resistance training in achieving these outcomes
56 among youth, adults, and older adults is well established [6-8]. The effects of resistance
57 training on older adults have been recently reviewed by Fragala et al. [9]. However, this
58 review considered studies conducted among adults aged 50 years and older, with less focus
59 placed on the effects of resistance training on muscle strength and hypertrophy in the very
60 elderly (i.e., 75 years of age and older) [10, 11].

61

62 Muscle hypertrophy occurs when muscle protein synthesis exceeds muscle protein
63 degradation over time [12]. Research has established that, compared to their younger
64 counterparts, older adults experience a reduced muscle protein synthetic response to protein
65 intake, a physiological adaptation termed "anabolic resistance" [13]. Muscle hypertrophy in
66 response to resistance training is associated with myonuclear addition via satellite cell
67 recruitment [14]. In this context, data suggest that resistance training induces significant
68 addition of myonuclei per muscle fiber in young adults [15]. However, no significant satellite
69 cell or myonuclear addition was found in older adults that performed 12-16 weeks of
70 resistance training [15, 16]. Therefore, some researchers speculate that there might be an age-
71 related ceiling above which an individual cannot further increase muscle size with resistance
72 training [17]. Additionally, there are estimates that older individuals have up to a 47%

73 reduction in the number of motor units, and this reduction might be associated with
74 compromised gains in muscle strength with resistance training in this population [18, 19].

75

76 The seminal work by Fiatarone et al. [20] suggested that participation in resistance training
77 increases muscle strength and muscle size, even at the advanced stages of aging. In this
78 single-arm study, ten participants with an average age of 90 years (range: 86 to 96 years)
79 performed eight weeks of resistance training. After the intervention, knee extension one-
80 repetition maximum (1RM) strength improved by 15 kg, accompanied by an increase in
81 quadriceps muscle size of 9%. However, in a more recent randomized controlled study [16],
82 12-weeks of resistance training in a group of participants aged 83 to 94 years did not
83 significantly increase their muscle size.

84

85 In 2013, a systematic review by Stewart et al. [11] provided a summary of studies that
86 explored the effects of different modes of physical training (including resistance training) on
87 muscle size and strength in adults aged 75 years or older. Even though this review concluded
88 that resistance training is an effective exercise intervention for increasing muscle size and
89 strength in this age group, the conclusions were based only on two included studies. It is
90 important to note that several studies that satisfied the inclusion criteria of Stewart et al. [10]
91 were not identified and included in the review [21-29]. Furthermore, since 2013, new original
92 studies have been published on this topic, adding new relevant data to further our
93 understanding of muscular adaptations to resistance training in very elderly adults [16, 30-34].

94

95 The aim of this systematic review and meta-analysis was, therefore, to examine the effects of
96 resistance training on strength and muscle size in very elderly individuals. A systematic

97 review on this topic is needed, given that: (a) the evidence presented in studies examining the
98 effects of resistance training in this age group is conflicting; and (b) there are no recent
99 systematic reviews on this topic. Findings on this topic could have a substantial public health
100 impact because the very elderly represent one of the fastest-growing age groups in the
101 population, and it is estimated that only 8.7% of adults aged 75 years or older participate in
102 muscle-strengthening activities [35, 36].

103

104 **2 Methods**

105 **2.1 Search strategy**

106 For this systematic review, we followed the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic
107 Reviews and Meta-Analyses guidelines [37]. In total, we searched through nine databases:
108 Academic Search Elite, CINAHL, ERIC, Open Access Theses and Dissertations, Open
109 Dissertations, PsycINFO, PubMed/MEDLINE, Scopus, and SPORTDiscus. In all of these
110 databases, we used the following search syntax (or equivalent) to search through titles,
111 abstracts, and keywords of indexed documents: ("very elderly" OR "oldest old" OR "oldest-
112 old" OR "very old" OR "advancing age" OR "advancing years" OR "old-old" OR "old old"
113 OR septuagenarian* OR nonagenarian* OR octogenarian* OR centenarian* OR "75 and
114 older" OR "80 and older" OR "85 and older" OR "90 and older" OR "95 and older" OR "75
115 years" OR "80 years" OR "85 years" OR "90 years" OR "95 years") AND ("resistance
116 training" OR "resistance exercise" OR "weight lifting" OR "weightlifting" OR "strength
117 exercise" OR "strength training" OR "strengthening" OR "resistive exercise" OR "resistive
118 training") AND ("muscle hypertrophy" OR "muscular hypertrophy" OR "muscle mass" OR
119 "lean body mass" OR "fat-free mass" OR "fat free mass" OR "muscle fiber" OR "muscle size"
120 OR "muscle fibre" OR "muscle thickness" OR "cross-sectional area" OR "cross sectional

121 area" OR "computed tomography" OR "magnetic resonance imaging" OR "muscle power"
122 OR "strength" OR "1RM" OR "isokinetic" OR "isometric"). We also performed secondary
123 searches that consisted of: (a) screening the reference lists of studies that were included in the
124 review; and (b) examining the reference lists of previous related reviews [7, 11, 38-43]. To
125 reduce the probability of study selection bias, two authors of the review (JG and AG)
126 conducted the study selection independently. After both authors completed their searches, the
127 lists of included and excluded studies were compared between them. Any discrepancies
128 between the two authors in the included and excluded studies were resolved through
129 discussion and agreement. The databases were searched on January 20th, 2020.

130

131 **2.2 Inclusion criteria**

132 Studies that satisfied the following criteria were included in the review: (a) the participants
133 were aged 75 years or older; (b) the participants were randomized into the intervention and
134 control group(s); (c) the exercise intervention was comprised of resistance training while the
135 control group did not exercise; (d) the study assessed muscle strength and/or muscle size pre-
136 and post-intervention; and (e) the training protocol lasted for a minimum of six weeks. All
137 forms of strength tests, including isotonic, isometric, isokinetic, and handgrip tests were
138 deemed relevant. For muscle hypertrophy, we considered studies that assessed changes at the
139 whole-muscle (macroscopic methods) and/or muscle fiber level (microscopic methods).

140

141 **2.3 Data extraction**

142 In each of the included studies, we extracted the following data: (a) author names and year of
143 publication; (b) characteristics of the sample size, including their age and sex; (c) specifics of
144 the resistance training intervention (e.g., the number of performed sets, exercise selection); (d)

145 adverse events reported during the intervention (if any); (e) exercise used for the muscle
146 strength test and/or body site and tool used for the muscle hypertrophy assessment; and (f) pre
147 and post-intervention mean \pm standard deviation (SD) of the strength and/or hypertrophy
148 outcomes. For the studies that reported standard errors, we converted them to SDs. Two
149 authors of the review (JG and FS) performed the data extraction independently. After both
150 authors completed the data extraction from all studies, the coding sheets were compared
151 between the authors. In case of any discrepancies in the data extraction files, the data was re-
152 checked from the studies.

153

154 **2.4 Methodological quality**

155 The methodological quality of the included studies was assessed using the 27-item Downs and
156 Black checklist [44]. This checklist evaluates different aspects of the study design, with items
157 1–10 referring to reporting, items 11–13 referring to external validity, items 14–26 referring
158 to internal validity, and item 27 referring to statistical power. Given that the included studies
159 explored the effects of a resistance training intervention, the standard 27-item checklist was
160 modified by adding two items, item 28 and item 29. Item 28 was on the reporting of
161 adherence to the training program, while item 29 was related to training supervision. For each
162 item—including items 28 and 29—one point was allocated to the study if the criterion was
163 satisfied; no points were allocated if the criterion was not satisfied. The maximum possible
164 score on the modified version of the Downs and Black checklist was, therefore, 29 points.
165 Based on the summary score, studies that had 21–29 points were classified as being of ‘good
166 quality’, studies with 11–20 points were classified as being of ‘moderate quality’, while
167 studies that scored less than 11 points were considered to be of ‘poor quality’ [45, 46] The
168 methodological quality assessment was performed independently by two authors (JG and
169 AG), with discussions and agreement for any observed differences in the initial scoring.

170

171 **2.5 Statistical analysis**

172 The meta-analyses for strength and hypertrophy outcomes were performed on the training
173 intervention minus control difference in relative effect sizes (ESs). The data for strength and
174 hypertrophy were converted to relative ES, calculated as the posttest-pretest mean change in
175 each group, divided by the pooled pretest SD, with an adjustment for small sample bias [47].
176 The variance of the ESs depends on the within-subject posttest-pretest correlation. Given that
177 this correlation was not reported in any of the included studies, when possible it was
178 estimated by back-solving from paired t-test *p*-values or SDs of posttest-pretest change scores.
179 Among studies for which the correlation could be derived from the available data, the median
180 value was 0.85. A more conservative value of 0.75 was used for all studies. Sensitivity
181 analyses (not presented) were performed using correlations ranging from 0.25 to 0.85, and
182 their results were consistent with those using 0.75. In order to account for correlated ESs
183 within studies, we used a robust variance meta-analysis model, with an adjustment for small
184 samples [48]. In the main meta-analysis for muscle strength, we included all available studies.
185 A sensitivity analysis was performed by excluding the two studies [26, 29] that used upper-
186 body exercises for the strength test. In a subgroup analysis, we explored the effects of
187 resistance training on muscle strength only among the “oldest-old” (i.e., 80+ years). Handgrip
188 strength was analyzed separately from other strength tests as this test is commonly used alone
189 in predicting mortality and functional declines in the very elderly [49]. For hypertrophy, the
190 following meta-analyses were performed: (a) for whole-muscle hypertrophy outcomes; and
191 (b) for muscle fiber cross-sectional area (CSA). All differences in ESs were presented with
192 their 95% confidence intervals (95% CIs). These differences were interpreted as: “trivial”
193 (≤ 0.20); “small” (0.21–0.50); “medium” (0.51–0.80); and “large” (> 0.80). The potential
194 presence publication bias was checked by examining funnel plot asymmetry and calculating

195 trim-and-fill estimates. The trim-and-fill estimates (not presented) were similar to the main
196 results. Heterogeneity was explored using the I^2 statistic, with values of $\leq 50\%$, 50–75%, and
197 $>75\%$ indicating low, moderate, and high levels of heterogeneity, respectively. All meta-
198 analyses were performed using the robumeta package within R version 3.6.1 and the trim-and-
199 fill analyses were calculated using the metafor package [50, 51]. Group differences were
200 considered statistically significant at $p < 0.05$.

201

202 **3 Results**

203 **3.1 Study selection**

204 The total number of search results in the nine databases was 2076. After excluding 2016
205 search results based on title or abstract, 60 full-text papers were read. Of the 60 full-text
206 papers, 17 studies were included. Secondary searches resulted in another 1559 search results
207 and with the inclusion of five additional papers (Figure 1). Therefore, the final number of
208 included studies was 22 [16, 21-34, 52-58]. Of note, in two cases, the strength and whole-
209 muscle hypertrophy data were published separately from muscle fiber CSA data, even though
210 the data collection was carried out in the same cohort [16, 30, 52, 53]. Additionally, one group
211 of authors published the data on strength, whole-muscle CSA, and muscle fiber CSA in three
212 separate papers, even though the data was collected in a single study [54-56].

213

214 **3.2 Study characteristics**

215 **3.2.1 Muscle strength outcomes**

216 In the seventeen studies that explored muscle strength outcomes and met the inclusion
217 criteria, the pooled number of participants was 880 (84% females; Table 1). The median
218 sample size per study was 38 (range: 14 to 144 participants). The interventions lasted from 8

219 to 18 weeks. Training frequency was from 1 to 3 days per week. Eleven studies used
220 isometric strength tests, four used isotonic strength tests, and three used isokinetic tests (one
221 used both isometric and isokinetic tests). Two studies employed tests on upper-body
222 exercises, while the remaining studies used lower body exercises (Table 2). Eight studies
223 assessed handgrip strength (Table 2).

224

225 **3.2.2 Hypertrophy outcomes**

226 In the nine studies that explored hypertrophy outcomes and met the inclusion criteria, the total
227 sample size was 204 participants (67% females; Table 1). The median sample size per study
228 was 26 participants (range: 23 to 49 participants). The interventions lasted from 10 to 18
229 weeks, with a training frequency of 2 to 3 days per week. Six studies reported data on whole-
230 muscle hypertrophy. For this outcome, studies used computed tomography (three studies), B-
231 mode ultrasound (two studies), and magnetic resonance imaging (one study). Three studies
232 explored changes at the muscle fiber level. All studies assessed lower-body hypertrophy. The
233 training programs used in the studies are summarized in Table 2.

234

235 **3.3 Methodological quality**

236 The average score on the modified 29-item Downs and Black checklist was 25 (range: 21 to
237 28 points). All studies were classified as being of good methodological quality. Scores on all
238 items of the checklist are reported in Table 3.

239

240 **3.4 Meta-analysis results for muscle and handgrip strength**

241 The meta-analysis found a significant effect of resistance training on muscle strength in the
242 very elderly (difference in ES = 0.97; 95% CI: 0.50, 1.44; $p = 0.001$; $I^2 = 87\%$; Figure 2). In
243 the sensitivity analysis, there was a significant effect of resistance training on lower-body

244 muscle strength in the very elderly (difference in ES = 0.96; 95% CI: 0.48, 1.45; $I^2 = 87%$; p
245 = 0.001). In a subgroup analysis that included only the oldest-old participants (80+ years of
246 age), there was a significant effect of resistance training on muscle strength (difference in ES
247 = 1.28; 95% CI: 0.28, 2.29; $p = 0.020$; $I^2 = 86%$; Figure 3). For handgrip strength, we found
248 no significant difference between resistance training and control groups (difference in ES =
249 0.26; 95% CI: -0.02, 0.54; $p = 0.064$; $I^2 = 51%$; Figure 4).

250

251 **3.5 Meta-analysis results for whole-muscle and muscle fiber hypertrophy**

252 For whole-muscle hypertrophy, there was a significant effect of resistance training in the very
253 elderly (difference in ES = 0.30; 95% CI: 0.10, 0.50; $p = 0.013$; $I^2 = 0%$; Figure 5). We found
254 no significant difference in muscle fiber hypertrophy between resistance training and control
255 groups (difference in ES = 0.33; 95% CI: -0.67, 1.33; $p = 0.266$; $I^2 = 7%$; Figure 6).

256

257 **4 Discussion**

258 The main finding of this systematic review and meta-analysis is that resistance training
259 increases muscle strength in very elderly people, even among the oldest-old. We also found
260 that resistance training results in muscle hypertrophy at the whole-muscle level in very
261 elderly. The ES for strength and whole-muscle hypertrophy was large and small, respectively.
262 Even though the pooled ES favored resistance training for muscle fiber hypertrophy and
263 handgrip strength, these effects were not statistically significant.

264

265 **4.1 Muscle strength**

266 We found that resistance training produced substantial increases in muscle strength in the very
267 elderly. Increases in muscle strength were also observed in a subgroup analysis of studies that
268 included the oldest-old suggesting that resistance training enhances muscle strength even at an

269 advanced stage of aging. Xue et al. [59] reported that dynapenia is associated with increased
270 mortality risk. Findings from the “Health, Aging and Body Composition Study” further
271 indicated that knee extension strength—as measured by isokinetic dynamometry—is
272 associated with a reduced risk of mortality [3]. Dynapenia also increases the risk of physical
273 disability and reduces physical performance [1]. Therefore, muscle strength is identified as
274 one of the key muscle qualities for physical independence in the very elderly [1, 4]. After the
275 age of 75 years, muscle strength annually declines by about 2% to 4% (ES: 0.17 to 0.24) for
276 those who do not perform regular resistance exercise [60-62]. Our findings suggest that
277 participation in resistance training over 8 to 18 weeks, with a frequency of 1 to 3 days per
278 week, can restore strength that has been potentially lost over several years of inactivity.
279 Research has also established that lower limb muscle weakness is an important risk factor for
280 falls in the older population [63]. When considering only the studies that used lower-body
281 exercise for the strength test, an ES of 0.96 (95% CI: 0.48, 1.45) was found. These data
282 highlight that increasing muscle strength through resistance training participation could be of
283 great health benefit for the very elderly. Our findings are, therefore, highly relevant from a
284 public health perspective. Moreover, data suggests that only 8.7% of adults aged 75 years and
285 older participate in muscle-strengthening activities [36]. Thus, it is clear that finding ways to
286 further promote participation and adherence to muscle-strengthening activities in this age
287 group is of considerable public health interest.

288

289 **4.2 Handgrip strength**

290 The handgrip strength test is widely used to evaluate muscle strength as it is noninvasive and
291 inexpensive [64]. Given its simplicity, this test is often utilized in epidemiological studies
292 [49]. In the sample of included studies, the pooled ES favored resistance training condition,
293 but the effect was not statistically significant ($p = 0.064$). In one of the included studies,

294 resistance training focused exclusively on the lower body, but strength was evaluated using
295 the handgrip test [31]. This might not be entirely appropriate, given that the largest increases
296 in strength are expected for the muscle groups that were covered in the training program [65,
297 66]. Indeed, one study reported that 24 weeks of whole-body resistance training produced a
298 substantial increase in 1RM knee extension and leg press strength (on average by 21 and 45
299 kg, respectively), that were not accompanied by any significant changes in handgrip strength
300 [67]. In line with this finding, some authors have speculated that there is only a limited ability
301 to increase handgrip strength in adulthood [68]. While handgrip strength testing can certainly
302 provide valuable information about physical functioning, the use of this test may, in some
303 cases, provide limited insights into the efficacy of a given resistance training program.

304

305 **4.3 Whole-muscle hypertrophy**

306 We found that very elderly individuals can increase muscle size despite their advancing age,
307 although the expected improvements may be small to modest (ES = 0.30; 95% CI: 0.10, 0.50).
308 Nonetheless, the finding that the very elderly can increase their muscle size is highly relevant,
309 given that sarcopenia may increase the risk of falls and fractures, increase frailty, decrease
310 functional independence and quality of life as well as increase the risk of chronic disease and
311 all-cause mortality [4]. There are estimates that in the very elderly muscle size is reduced at a
312 rate of 0.64% to 0.98% per year (ES: 0.14 to 0.23) [60, 62]. Our results suggest that resistance
313 training interventions lasting from 10 to 18 weeks with a training frequency of 2 to 3 days per
314 week can increase muscle size that was potentially lost over multiple years of aging. This
315 finding is of public great health importance, if we consider estimates that the prevalence of
316 sarcopenia in adults older than 75 years ranges from 27% to 60% [69].

317

318 **4.4 Muscle fiber hypertrophy**

319 Despite the findings observed for whole-muscle hypertrophy, we did not find significant
320 increases in muscle fiber CSA, even though in the sample of included studies the pooled ES
321 of 0.33 favored resistance training. The lack of a significant finding in this analysis could be
322 attributed to the small pooled sample size. Specifically, only three studies with a combined
323 sample of 53 participants were included in this analysis. The small sample sizes in individual
324 studies for this outcome were probably due to the difficulties in collecting muscle biopsy
325 samples in this age group. In a group of 87 older adults that were considered for a Bergstrom
326 needle muscle biopsy, only 19% to 59% of participants had adequate levels of muscle mass
327 needed for biopsy sampling (depending on factors such as sex, age, and frailty) [70].
328 Furthermore, some participants had suboptimal muscle thickness, suggesting that multiple
329 samples might be required to obtain an adequate amount of muscle for the analysis. While
330 future studies are needed to elucidate possible effects of resistance training on muscle fiber
331 hypertrophy in the very elderly, there may be challenges in collecting the necessary data.

332

333 **4.5 Adverse events**

334 A recent systematic review reported that fear of a heart attack, stroke, or even death, is one of
335 the most common barriers to participation in resistance exercise for older adults [71].

336 Therefore, when conducting exercise intervention studies among older adults, the reporting of
337 adverse events associated with the training intervention is essential. The included studies
338 reported minimal adverse events (Table 2). Specifically, in some studies, there were reports of
339 muscle soreness following the exercise sessions, and in one study there was an exacerbation
340 of preexisting osteoarthritis in one participant (Table 2). There were no reported serious
341 events directly related to exercise interventions. These results suggest that resistance training
342 can be safe, even for the very elderly.

343

344 **4.6 Methodological quality**

345 All included studies were of good methodological quality. Therefore, the results presented
346 herein were not confounded by studies with poor methodological quality. Nonetheless, it is
347 worth noting that four included studies did not report participants' adherence to the training
348 program [22, 33, 34, 58]. Adherence to a given training program is one of the key variables
349 that influence its overall efficacy [72]. Therefore, future studies should ensure that adherence
350 data are reported.

351

352 **4.7 Strengths and limitations of the review**

353 The strengths of this review are that: (a) the search for studies was conducted through nine
354 databases using a search syntax with a broad range of relevant search terms; and (b) 17
355 studies with over 800 participants were included in the analysis for muscle strength, which
356 allowed for an additional subgroup analysis including only the oldest-old. This review's main
357 limitation is that the meta-analysis on muscle fiber hypertrophy included only three studies
358 with a combined sample of 53 participants. Besides, there was high heterogeneity in the
359 analysis for muscle strength. However, it should be considered here that the effects from all
360 studies in this analysis were in the same direction (i.e., favoring of resistance training), but
361 their overall effectiveness varied. The variation in ESs could be associated with the
362 differences between studies in duration, training programs, and strength tests.

363

364 **4.8 Suggestions for future research**

365 The included studies generally utilized only one type of strength test. Given that the studies
366 used isotonic training programs, it might be expected that resistance training would have the
367 greatest effect on isotonic strength [73, 74]. However, the majority of studies used isometric
368 tests to evaluate changes in muscle strength. Ultimately, the small number of studies

369 employing isotonic and isokinetic strength assessments limits the ability to further subanalyze
370 the effects of resistance training on strength in different tests. Isotonic and isokinetic strength
371 tests were used only in four and three studies, respectively (Table 2). Therefore, future studies
372 on the topic may consider utilizing isotonic, isometric, and isokinetic strength measures in the
373 same group of participants to directly explore if the effects of resistance training in the very
374 elderly vary between different strength tests.

375

376 **5 Conclusion**

377 This systematic review and meta-analysis found that the very elderly can increase their
378 muscle strength and size by participating in resistance training programs. Moreover,
379 resistance training was found to be an effective way to improve muscle strength even among
380 the oldest-old. Importantly, the resistance training interventions generally included low
381 weekly training volumes and frequencies, suggesting that a relatively low time commitment is
382 needed to reap these benefits. There were minimal reports of adverse events associated with
383 the training programs in the included studies, thus suggesting that resistance training can be a
384 safe mode of exercise for the very elderly. More research is needed on the effects of resistance
385 training on handgrip strength and muscle fiber hypertrophy.

386 Data Availability Statement

387 The datasets generated and analyzed during the current systematic review and meta-analysis
388 are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

389 Contributors

390 JG conceived the idea for the review. JG and AG conducted the study selection quality
391 assessment. JG and FS conducted the data extraction. JO performed the statistical analysis. JG
392 drafted the initial manuscript. All authors contributed to data interpretation, writing of the
393 manuscript, and its revisions.

394 Funding

395 No sources of funding were used to assist in the preparation of this article.

396 Conflict of Interest

397 Jozo Grgic, Alessandro Garofolini, John Orazem, Filip Sabol, Brad J. Schoenfeld and Zeljko
398 Pedisic have no conflicts of interest that are directly relevant to the content of this article.

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