

Sex Differences in Birth Weight and Physical Activity in Japanese Schoolchildren

Mitsuya Yamakita¹, Miri Sato², Kohta Suzuki³, Daisuke Ando⁴, and Zentaro Yamagata^{2,5}

¹College of Liberal Arts and Sciences, Kitasato University, Sagamihara, Kanagawa, Japan

²Center for Birth Cohort Studies, Graduate School Department of Interdisciplinary Research, University of Yamanashi, Yamanashi, Japan

³Department of Health and Psychosocial Medicine, Aichi Medical University School of Medicine, Aichi, Japan

⁴Division of Human Sciences, Faculty of Education, Graduate School Department of Interdisciplinary Research, University of Yamanashi, Yamanashi, Japan

⁵Department of Health Sciences, Basic Science for Clinical Medicine, Division of Medicine, Graduate School Department of Interdisciplinary Research, University of Yamanashi, Yamanashi, Japan

Received April 26, 2017; accepted August 3, 2017; released online February 24, 2018

ABSTRACT

Background: Lower birth weight (BW) is associated with increased chronic disease risk later in life. Previous studies suggest that this may be mediated principally via physical activity (PA). However, the association between BW and PA in children has not been clarified. The purpose of this study was to examine the association between BW and PA in school-aged children in Japan.

Methods: Participants were children from a prospective birth cohort study (Project Koshu) who were born from 1996 through 2002 in rural Japan. BWs were obtained from the Maternal and Child Health Handbook. Data on PA during childhood were collected using a self-reported questionnaire when participants were 9–15 years of age in July 2011. Analysis of covariance was used to evaluate exercise duration; Poisson regression analysis was used to evaluate if the recommended PA amount was met.

Results: Data from 657 children (boys: 54.8%, follow-up rate: 77.6%) were analyzed. Compared with the normal BW group, only girls in the low-BW group had significantly lower PA level (normal BW, 11.4 [standard error, 1.0] hours/week; low BW, 5.8 [standard error, 3.6] hours/week, $P = 0.010$), and were more likely to not meet the recommended PA level (prevalence ratio 1.57; 95% CI, 1.14–2.16).

Conclusion: Low BW was associated with a lower PA level in school-aged girls but not boys. Earlier consideration of BW may be an important public health strategy to prevent physical inactivity in school-aged girls.

Key words: birth weight; physical activity; school-aged children

Copyright © 2018 Mitsuya Yamakita et al. This is an open access article distributed under the terms of Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

INTRODUCTION

Physical activity (PA) is one of the most important contributors to maintaining optimal health, and considerable evidence suggests that sufficient PA has the potential to prevent numerous diseases and provide health benefits to people of all ages.^{1–4} Studies suggest that school-age PA influences adult PA and health status in later life.^{5–8} PA promotion may be effective if initiated in childhood or earlier in life.

However, globally, 81% of school-going children and adolescents aged 11–17 years do not meet the recommended guideline⁹ of at least 60 minutes of moderate-to-vigorous PA daily.¹ Among Japanese children, no representative data is available on whether PA levels are being met according to the official national PA guidelines.^{10,11} According to the Japan sports agency survey, which assessed adequacy of PA based on other criteria (420 min/week), 44.3% of boys and 67.3% of girls in 5th grade (aged 10–11 years) and 15.8% of boys and 39.5% of girls in the second year of junior high (aged 13–14 years) engaged in

exercise for less than 420 min per week, not including that in physical education classes.¹² Hence, the majority of Japanese school-aged children do not achieve PA recommendations.

Therefore, to develop effective public strategies promoting PA in children and adolescents, a better understanding of its intrinsic and extrinsic determinants is required. To date, a broad range of factors has been investigated, including interpersonal, demographic, biological, psychological, social, cultural, and environmental factors.^{13–16} In addition, recently, it has been suggested that birth weight (BW) is associated with PA later in life.^{17–19} Numerous epidemiological studies substantiated a close association between low BW and an increased risk of chronic diseases.^{20–22} A meta-analysis suggested a lower probability of undertaking leisure-time PA in adolescent and adults with a low or high BW,²³ which indicated that the association between BW and higher risk of metabolic diseases in adulthood could partly be explained by lower rates of PA in childhood.^{19,23} Meanwhile, not all studies have consistently confirmed the association between BW and PA among children and adolescents.²⁴ Moreover, to the

Address for correspondence. Mitsuya Yamakita, College of Liberal Arts and Sciences, Kitasato University, Sagamihara, Kanagawa, Japan (e-mail: yamakita@kitasato-u.ac.jp).

best of our knowledge, no studies have investigated this association in Japanese school-aged children.

The aim of this study was to examine the association between BW and PA in school-aged children in Japan.

METHODS

Study participants

The study participants comprised children born in the Enzan area of Kosu City, Yamanashi Prefecture, Japan between April 2, 1996 and April 1, 2002. The participants were from Project Kosu, a community-based prospective birth cohort study. Project Kosu is an ongoing study started in 1988, in which all expectant mothers who responded to a survey during the obligatory visit at the city office for pregnancy registration were recruited into the cohort. The children were followed from birth onwards. Further details of the project have been reported elsewhere.²⁵ The data of the present study were based on a follow-up study carried out during 2011.

This study was approved by the Ethics Review Board of the University of Yamanashi School of Medicine and conducted in accordance with the Guidelines Concerning Epidemiological Research, with cooperation of Health Promotion Division and Board of Education of the Kosu City administration office. Informed consent was obtained from the participants.

Measurements

Assessment of BW

Data regarding the sex of the infants, BW and birth length, and gestational age at delivery were obtained from the data recorded in the Maternal and Child Health Handbook by the obstetrician or midwife in charge of delivery. This handbook is an official publication containing guidelines for obstetric professionals and pregnant women. These data were based on birth registration. Low BW was defined as BW <2,500 g. As a previous study provides evidence that low (<2,500 g) and high ($\geq 3,500$ g) BWs are associated with a lower probability of undertaking leisure-time PA,²³ BW was categorized into the following three groups: low (<2,500 g), normal (2,500–3,499 g), or high ($\geq 3,500$ g).

Assessment of PA

Data concerning PA was obtained from children using a self-reporting questionnaire conducted in July 2011. The following question was used to obtain PA levels: "How many hours per week do you usually spend on PA except for physical education class (for example, school club activity, sports club activity, or swimming or tennis school, etc)?" This simple question has been used for other studies in children and has shown acceptable validity.²⁶ To investigate whether there is a difference between BW and PA in children who did and did not meet the guideline for PA for Japanese children,¹¹ participants were classified into two groups according to whether they met the recommended guidelines (≥ 60 min/day; ie, ≥ 7 hours/week).

Assessment of covariates

Gestational age, age in months, body mass index (BMI) during childhood, and parental educational levels were identified as potential confounders based on previous studies.^{18,27–29} Age and BMI of children were collected via physical measurements taken during medical checkups conducted at elementary and junior high schools, which are measured annually in April for each grade, in accordance with Japanese School Health and Safety Law. BMI (kg/m^2) was calculated from height and weight. Participants were

classified as overweight (equivalent to BMI ≥ 25 kg/m^2 at 18 years old) or non-overweight based on age- and sex-specific international cut-off points for BMI.³⁰ The highest parental educational levels were collected from mothers using a self-reported questionnaire at pregnancy registration. The responses were collapsed into two categories by number of education years: ≤ 12 years (up to high school) and ≥ 13 years (college or higher). A variable was then created combining the highest education level by each parent as follows: ≤ 12 years (both parents), ≥ 13 years (only father), ≥ 13 years (only mother), and ≥ 13 years (both parents).

Statistical analysis

Data were analyzed separately for boys and girls based on the results of a previous study that revealed sex difference in PA levels.³¹ Analysis of covariance was used to compare the mean PA time among BW groups. When prevalence of an outcome is common in the study population ($>10\%$), the odds ratio derived from logistic regression tends to overestimate the strength of an association.^{32,33} The prevalence of children not meeting the recommended guideline for PA was high. Therefore, Poisson regression analyses with robust variance estimators were conducted to examine the associations between BW and the proportion not meeting recommended PA, and prevalence ratio (PR) was used instead of odds ratio. Then, the analyses were adjusted for gestational age, age in months, age- and sex-specific BMI categories (overweight or non-overweight), and parental education levels.

All statistical analyses were performed using SPSS statistical software version 19.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). A P -value <0.05 (two-sided) was considered statistically significant.

RESULTS

Characteristics of participants

During the study period, maternal information during pregnancy and BW were collected from 847 children. Of these, the complete follow-up data in 2011 were collected from 657 children (boys: 54.8%). Therefore, the follow-up rate at 9–15 years of age was 77.6%. Table 1 shows the characteristics of the participants. The range of BW, birth length, and gestational age was 1,404–4,336 g, 33–58 cm, and 33–42 weeks, respectively.

There was no significant difference in birth data between boys and girls, except for gestational age. Height and PA time of boys were significantly higher than those of girls; thus, girls were more likely not to meet the recommended PA (Table 1).

Differences in PA time according to BW categories

No significant differences were found in PA time among BW categories in boys (Figure 1A). There was a significant difference in PA time spent between the low-BW and normal-BW groups in girls (Figure 1B). No significant differences were observed between normal- and high-BW groups and high- and low-BW groups in girls.

BW and attainment of recommended PA

In girls, when compared with the normal-BW group, those in the low-BW group were more likely not to meet the recommended PA (Table 2). This association remained when adjusted for all confounders. For the high-BW group, no significant association was observed. No significant associations were found for boys.

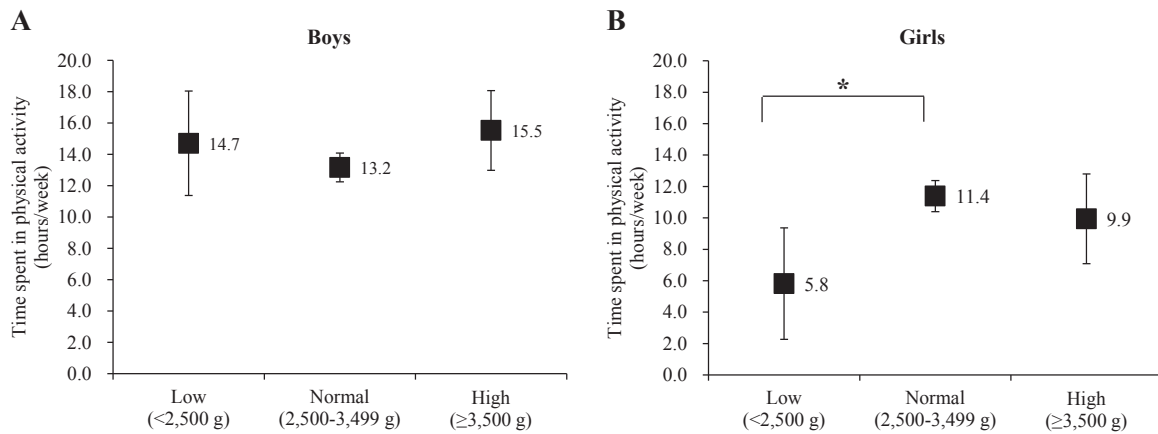


Figure 1. Association between birth weight categories and physical activity time in boys (A) and girls (B). Each plot is presented as estimated marginal means (standard error). Physical activity time was adjusted for age in months, age- and sex-specific body mass index category (overweight or non-overweight), gestational age, and parental education level using analysis of covariance. * indicates the significance of Low versus Normal (mean difference, -5.57 ; 95% confidence interval, -10.1 to -1.04 , $P = 0.010$; Cohen's effect size (d) = 0.68).

Table 1. Characteristics of study participants

	Boys (n = 360)		Girls (n = 297)		P-value ^a
Birth					
Birth weight					
g, mean (SD)	3059.0	(386.4)	3015.7	(387.0)	0.153
Low birth weight (<2,500 g), n (%)	27	(7.5)	22	(7.4)	
Normal birth weight (2,500–3,499 g), n (%)	293	(81.4)	244	(82.2)	0.960
High birth weight (≥3,500 g), n (%)	40	(11.1)	31	(10.4)	
Birth length, cm, mean (SD)	49.0	(2.1)	48.8	(2.1)	0.197
Gestational age, weeks, mean (SD)	38.8	(1.4)	39.1	(1.4)	0.004
Parental education, n (%)					
≤12 years (both parents)	119	(33.1)	100	(33.7)	
≥13 years (only father)	49	(13.6)	33	(11.1)	0.358
≥13 years (only mother)	67	(18.6)	45	(15.2)	
≥13 years (both parents)	125	(34.7)	119	(40.1)	
Childhood					
Age, years, mean (SD)	12.0	(1.7)	12.1	(1.9)	0.740
Height, cm, mean (SD)	149.6	(13.0)	147.8	(10.1)	0.050
Weight, kg, mean (SD)	42.1	(12.1)	41.7	(10.7)	0.693
BMI, kg/m ² , mean (SD)	18.4	(3.0)	18.8	(3.2)	0.118
BMI category, n (%)					
Non-overweight	313	(86.9)	263	(88.6)	0.533
Overweight	47	(13.1)	34	(11.4)	
Physical activity					
hours/week, mean (SD)	13.5	(8.6)	10.8	(9.3)	<0.001
Less than recommended (<7 hours/week), n (%)	91	(25.3)	133	(44.8)	<0.001

BMI, body mass index; SD, standard deviation.

Data are means (SD) or number (percentage).

^aThe *t* test for continuous and the χ^2 test for categorical variables.

DISCUSSION

This study examined whether BW was associated with PA in children aged 9–15 years in Japan. The results demonstrated that girls with low BW have a significantly lower activity level compared to girls with normal BW, with a medium-to-large effect size. In addition, when the hours per week were converted to minutes per day (min/day), the mean time spent in physical activity was 97.7 min/day for the normal-BW group and 49.9 min/day for the low-BW group. These results indicate that the normal-BW group met the recommended PA level, but the low-BW group did not. Meanwhile, this significant difference was not observed in boys.

Several studies have investigated the association between BW and PA in children and adolescents.^{24,34} Gopinath et al¹⁸ showed

that children aged 12 years with low BW participate in less outdoor PA. Although the exact mechanisms for the difference in time spent in PA between low- and normal-BW individuals are unknown, previous studies have shown that low BW could be related to reduced physical capacity, including reduced muscle strength³⁵ and insufficient anaerobic capacity.³⁶ These negative physiological factors could reduce the willingness to participate in competitive PA because of early fatigue and a reduced ability to perform PA.^{18,23} However, our study found this association only in girls. It is unclear why this sex difference was observed; we speculate that it may be explained by the difference in time spent in sports activities and PA between boys and girls. In Japan, available opportunities for girls to participate in sports or PA are limited compared to boys. Parents spend less money on sports activities and PA for girls than boys, whereas they spend three times more on artistic activities for girls.³⁷ Therefore, girls with low BW who are thought to have poor exercise capacity may have been participating in non-exercise activities, such as music and the arts (eg, piano lessons). In addition, animal studies have indicated that intrauterine growth restriction leads to low BW and causes decreased PA, especially in female mouse offspring.³⁸ Although it is unclear why this occurred, the mechanism of sex-specific alterations in epigenetic regulation in the hypothalamus and other regions of the central nervous system has received attention³⁹; it has been suggested that androgen-mediated masculinization of the male mouse brain (which occurs during late fetal development) protects the central nervous system against the deleterious effects of fetal growth restriction.⁴⁰ It is uncertain whether similar processes occur in humans; thus, extensive future studies are required to elucidate the molecular mechanism by which fetal growth restriction may lead to a lack of PA participation.

Meanwhile, other studies that objectively measured PA with an accelerometer did not confirm the association between BW and PA in children and adolescents.^{24,34} It is possible that objective measures of PA and self-reported PA are capturing different aspects of PA. A previous study suggested that self-reported PA may capture only specific types of exercise and leisure-time PA, whereas accelerometers measure all body movement throughout a measurement period.⁴¹ Although sex was adjusted for in all of

Table 2. Association between birth weight categories and not meeting the recommended physical activity at aged 9–15 years

Birth weight categories	Physical activity (<7 hours/week), %	Crude PR	(95% CI)	Adjusted PR ^a	(95% CI)
Boys					
Low (<2,500 g)	25.9	0.96	(0.50–1.87)	0.83	(0.43–1.61)
Normal (2,500–3,499 g)	27.0	1.00	(reference)	1.00	(reference)
High (≥3,500 g)	12.5	0.46	(0.20–1.08)	0.50	(0.22–1.16)
Girls					
Low (<2,500 g)	68.2	1.57	(1.14–2.16)	1.59	(1.12–2.26)
Normal (2,500–3,499 g)	43.4	1.00	(reference)	1.00	(reference)
High (≥3,500 g)	38.7	0.89	(0.56–1.42)	0.96	(0.65–1.43)

CI, confidence interval; PR, prevalence ratio.

^aAdjusted for age in months, age- and sex-specific body mass index category (overweight or non-overweight), gestational age, and parental education level.

these studies, PA levels between boys and girls is markedly different.^{31,42} Additionally, PA frequency and intensity among school-aged children across domains (transport, school, leisure and organized sports activities, and home) is markedly different.^{43,44} Thus, future studies require stratification by sex and PA domain.

In a meta-analysis including Scandinavian adolescents and adults, both low and high BW were inversely associated with self-reported leisure PA.²³ However, our study did not observe an association between high BW and PA time. This may be because of the difference in range of BW. Although BW of the previous study exceeded 4,500 g or 5,000 g, in our study, the highest was 4,300 g. In addition, the biological mechanism explaining the relationship between high BW and physical inactivity could be related to insufficient aerobic capacity or reduced motivation to engage in PA.⁴⁴ Therefore, children of high BW would be more likely to be obese in adulthood through increased physical inactivity. Moreover, the associations between BW and chronic disease that are based on obesity tend to be more apparent later in life.^{21,22} Similarly, the association between high BW and PA may also tend to be more pronounced in adulthood.

The strengths of this study include its prospective cohort design and relatively high follow-up rate. In addition, the birth parameters ensured validity because they were obtained from the Maternal and Child Health Handbook. However, our study had the following limitations. First, children with low BW were relatively small in number because only one rural area in Japan was used for the study, resulting in a small sample. Future studies with different populations and more participants are required. Second, PA levels were self-reported. However, the simple question has reasonable agreement with the accelerometer, and a single-item measure was found to be equally valid and reliable as an in-depth questionnaire.⁴⁵ Further studies using a combined assessment of subjective and objective methods are needed to evaluate PA more accurately. Finally, although we adjusted for several important confounders, we could not exclude unmeasured confounding variables, such as genetic factors and dietary information.

In conclusion, this study found that Japanese school-aged girls, but not boys, with low BW were less likely to spend time in PA at aged 9–15 years old. Although further prospective studies are needed, our study suggests that low BW may be an early predictor of physical inactivity in childhood. Therefore, parents of low-BW children should encourage them to be active and to

participate in noncompetitive PAs. Additionally, to prevent physical inactivity in childhood, especially for girls, an important public health strategy should be implemented that is aimed at encouraging participation in PA for low-BW children. These may lead to prevention of chronic disease in adulthood.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank the study participants for the use of their personal data. We also thank the principal and teachers at the elementary and junior high school. We are extremely grateful to *yogo* teachers (school nurse) of each school for their support. This study was supported by JSPS KAKENHI Grant Number 26750335, 15K08801, 24590788, 23700836, 23390173, and Kitasato University Research Grant for Yong Researchers.

Conflicts of interest: None declared.

REFERENCES

- World Health Organization. Global recommendations: physical activity for health. 2010. <http://www.who.int/dietphysicalactivity/publications/9789241599979/en/>. Accessed April 11 2017.
- Janssen I, Leblanc AG. Systematic review of the health benefits of physical activity and fitness in school-aged children and youth. *Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act*. 2010;7:40.
- Lee IM, Shiroma EJ, Lobelo F, Puska P, Blair SN, Katzmarzyk PT; Lancet Physical Activity Series Working Group. Effect of physical inactivity on major non-communicable diseases worldwide: an analysis of burden of disease and life expectancy. *Lancet*. 2012;380:219–229.
- Tak E, Kuiper R, Chorus A, Hopman-Rock M. Prevention of onset and progression of basic ADL disability by physical activity in community dwelling older adults: a meta-analysis. *Ageing Res Rev*. 2013;12:329–338.
- Boreham C, Riddoch C. The physical activity, fitness and health of children. *J Sports Sci*. 2001;19:915–929.
- Telama R. Tracking of physical activity from childhood to adulthood: a review. *Obes Facts*. 2009;2:187–195.
- Swaminathan S, Vaz M. Childhood physical activity, sports and exercise and noncommunicable disease: a special focus on India. *Indian J Pediatr*. 2013;80(Suppl 1):S63–S70.
- Kwon S, Janz KF, Letuchy EM, Burns TL, Levy SM. Active lifestyle in childhood and adolescence prevents obesity development in young adulthood. *Obesity (Silver Spring)*. 2015;23:2462–2469.
- World Health Organization. Physical activity Fact sheet. 2017. <http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs385/en/>. Accessed April 11 2017.
- Tanaka C, Tanaka S, Inoue S, Miyachi M, Suzuki K, Reilly JJ. Results From Japan's 2016 Report Card on Physical Activity for Children and Youth. *J Phys Act Health*. 2016;13(11)(Suppl 2):S189–S194.
- The Japan Sports Association. *Active Child 60 min*. Takenaka K, ed. Tokyo: Sanraifukikaku; 2010 (in Japanese).
- The Japan Sports Agency. The Report of FY2016 National Survey on Physical Fitness, Athletic Performance and Exercise Habits. 2016. http://www.mext.go.jp/sports/b_menu/toukei/kodomo/zencyo/1380529.htm. Accessed April 11 2017 (in Japanese).
- Bauman AE, Reis RS, Sallis JF, Wells JC, Loos RJ, Martin BW; Lancet Physical Activity Series Working Group. Correlates of physical activity: why are some people physically active and others not? *Lancet*. 2012;380:258–271.
- Stanley RM, Ridley K, Dollman J. Correlates of children's time-specific physical activity: a review of the literature. *Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act*. 2012;9:50.
- Van Der Horst K, Paw MJ, Twisk JW, Van Mechelen W. A brief review on correlates of physical activity and sedentariness in youth. *Med Sci Sports Exerc*. 2007;39:1241–1250.

16. Yao CA, Rhodes RE. Parental correlates in child and adolescent physical activity: a meta-analysis. *Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act.* 2015;12:10.
17. Elhakeem A, Cooper R, Bann D, Kuh D, Hardy R. Birth Weight, School Sports Ability, and Adulthood Leisure-Time Physical Activity. *Med Sci Sports Exerc.* 2017;49:64–70.
18. Gopinath B, Hardy LL, Baur LA, Burlutsky G, Mitchell P. Birth weight and time spent in outdoor physical activity during adolescence. *Med Sci Sports Exerc.* 2013;45:475–480.
19. Kaseva N, Wehkalampi K, Strang-Karlsson S, et al. Lower conditioning leisure-time physical activity in young adults born preterm at very low birth weight. *PLoS One.* 2012;7:e32430.
20. Belbasis L, Savvidou MD, Kanu C, Evangelou E, Tzoulaki I. Birth weight in relation to health and disease in later life: an umbrella review of systematic reviews and meta-analyses. *BMC Med.* 2016;14:147.
21. Wang SF, Shu L, Sheng J, et al. Birth weight and risk of coronary heart disease in adults: a meta-analysis of prospective cohort studies. *J Dev Orig Health Dis.* 2014;5:408–419.
22. Whincup PH, Kaye SJ, Owen CG, et al. Birth weight and risk of type 2 diabetes: a systematic review. *JAMA.* 2008;300:2886–2897.
23. Andersen LG, Angquist L, Gamborg M; NordNet Study Group. Birth weight in relation to leisure time physical activity in adolescence and adulthood: meta-analysis of results from 13 nordic cohorts. *PLoS One.* 2009;4:e8192.
24. Øglund GP, Hildebrand M, Ekelund U. Are birth weight, early growth, and motor development determinants of physical activity in children and youth? A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Pediatr Exerc Sci.* 2015;27:441–453.
25. Suzuki K. Longitudinal analyses of childhood growth: evidence from Project Koshu. *J Epidemiol.* 2015;25:2–7.
26. Booth ML, Okely AD, Chey T, Bauman A. The reliability and validity of the physical activity questions in the WHO health behaviour in schoolchildren (HBSC) survey: a population study. *Br J Sports Med.* 2001;35:263–267.
27. Blumenshine P, Egarter S, Barclay CJ, Cubbin C, Braveman PA. Socioeconomic disparities in adverse birth outcomes: a systematic review. *Am J Prev Med.* 2010;39:263–272.
28. Lowe J, Cousins M, Kotecha SJ, Kotecha S. Physical activity outcomes following preterm birth. *Paediatr Respir Rev.* 2017;22:76–82.
29. Stalsberg R, Pedersen AV. Effects of socioeconomic status on the physical activity in adolescents: a systematic review of the evidence. *Scand J Med Sci Sports.* 2010;20:368–383.
30. Cole TJ, Bellizzi MC, Flegal KM, Dietz WH. Establishing a standard definition for child overweight and obesity worldwide: international survey. *BMJ.* 2000;320:1240–1243.
31. Ishii K, Shibata A, Adachi M, Nonoue K, Oka K. Gender and grade differences in objectively measured physical activity and sedentary behavior patterns among Japanese children and adolescents: a cross-sectional study. *BMC Public Health.* 2015;15:1254.
32. Barros AJ, Hirakata VN. Alternatives for logistic regression in cross-sectional studies: an empirical comparison of models that directly estimate the prevalence ratio. *BMC Med Res Methodol.* 2003;3:21.
33. McNutt LA, Wu C, Xue X, Hafner JP. Estimating the relative risk in cohort studies and clinical trials of common outcomes. *Am J Epidemiol.* 2003;157:940–943.
34. Knuth AG, Silva IC, van Hees VT, et al. Objectively-measured physical activity in children is influenced by social indicators rather than biological lifecourse factors: evidence from a Brazilian cohort. *Prev Med.* 2017;97:40–44.
35. Dodds R, Denison HJ, Ntani G, et al. Birth weight and muscle strength: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Nutr Health Aging.* 2012;16:609–615.
36. Rogers M, Fay TB, Whitfield MF, Tomlinson J, Grunau RE. Aerobic capacity, strength, flexibility, and activity level in unimpaired extremely low birth weight (<or=800 g) survivors at 17 years of age compared with term-born control subjects. *Pediatrics.* 2005;116:e58–e65.
37. Benesse educational research and development institute. Second survey on after school activities. 2013. <http://berd.benesse.jp/shotouchutou/research/detail1.php?id=3263>. Accessed April 11 2017 (in Japanese).
38. Baker MS, Li G, Kohorst JJ, Waterland RA. Fetal growth restriction promotes physical inactivity and obesity in female mice. *Int J Obes (Lond).* 2015;39:98–104.
39. Zhu S, Eclarinal J, Baker MS, Li G, Waterland RA. Developmental programming of energy balance regulation: is physical activity more ‘programmable’ than food intake? *Proc Nutr Soc.* 2016;75:73–77.
40. Lenz KM, McCarthy MM. Organized for sex - steroid hormones and the developing hypothalamus. *Eur J Neurosci.* 2010;32:2096–2104.
41. Ridgway CL, Brage S, Anderssen SA, Sardinha LB, Andersen LB, Ekelund U. Do physical activity and aerobic fitness moderate the association between birth weight and metabolic risk in youth?: the European Youth Heart Study. *Diabetes Care.* 2011;34:187–192.
42. Klinker CD, Schipperijn J, Christian H, Kerr J, Ersbøll AK, Troelsen J. Using accelerometers and global positioning system devices to assess gender and age differences in children’s school, transport, leisure and home based physical activity. *Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act.* 2014;11:8.
43. Sprengeler O, Wirsik N, Hebestreit A, Herrmann D, Ahrens W. Domain-Specific self-reported and objectively measured physical activity in children. *Int J Environ Res Public Health.* 2017;14:242.
44. Petersen L, Schnohr P, Sørensen TI. Longitudinal study of the long-term relation between physical activity and obesity in adults. *Int J Obes Relat Metab Disord.* 2004;28:105–112.
45. Scott JJ, Morgan PJ, Plotnikoff RC, Lubans DR. Reliability and validity of a single-item physical activity measure for adolescents. *J Paediatr Child Health.* 2015;51:787–793.