RESEARCH Open Access

BMC Public Health

Association between sedentary behavior and bone mass, microstructure and strength in children, adolescents and young adults: a systematic review

L. Y. Wang^{1,2}, F. L. Peng^{1*}, X. X. Zhang¹, L. M. Liang¹ and H. Chi¹

Abstract

Sedentary behavior (SED) research is currently receiving increasing attention in the field of public health. While it has been shown to have negative effects on cardiovascular or metabolic health, there is limited knowledge regarding the relationship between SED and bone health in children, adolescents, and young adults. Thus, the purpose of this review is to investigate the associations between SED and bone health status, specifically bone mass, microstructure, and strength. A comprehensive literature search was conducted across five electronic databases, including EMBASE, PubMed, Medline, Cochrane, Web of Science and CNKI. The inclusion criteria were as follows: healthy participants aged 24 years or younger, with measured SED and measured bone outcomes. The quality of the included articles was assessed using the National Institute of Health Quality Assessment Tool for Observational Cohort and Cross-Sectional Studies. After excluding, the final sample included 25 crosssectional, 9 observational and 2 both cross-sectional and longitudinal studies. Among these, seven were rated as 'high quality', twenty-three were rated as 'moderated quality', and six were rated as 'low quality' according to the quality assessment criteria. After summarizing the evidence, we found no strong evidence to support an association between BMC or BMD and SED, even when considering gender or adjusting for moderate-tovigorous physical activity (MVPA). However, a strong level of evidence was found indicating a negative relationship between objectively measured SED and cortical bone mineral density (Ct.BMD) in the tibia or stiffness index (SI) in the Calcaneus across all age groups. While the association between adverse bone health outcomes and SED still cannot be confirmed due to insufficient evidence, these findings suggest that bone microstructure and strength may be more sensitive to SED than bone mass. Thus, further evidence is needed to fully understand the connection between sedentary behavior and bone health, particularly regarding the relationship between SED and bone strength.

Keywords Bone health, Sedentary behavior, Children, Adolescents

*Correspondence: F. L. Peng lin-yuanw@sr.gxmu.edu.cn ¹ Guangxi Normal University, Guangxi, China ²Guangxi Medical University, Guangxi, China

© The Author(s) 2024. **Open Access** This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivatives 4.0 International License, which permits any non-commercial use, sharing, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if you modified the licensed material. You do not have permission under this licence to share adapted material derived from this article or parts of it. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit [http://](http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/) [creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/.](http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/)

Background

Sedentary behaviors (SED) are defined as behaviors that occur during waking hours and have low energy expenditure (≤1.5 METs/Metabolic Equivalents), often performed in a sitting or reclining posture [[1\]](#page-23-0). In November 2020, the World Health Organization (WHO) Physical Activity and Sedentary Behavior Guidelines were published, providing advice on appropriate SED time according to different ages and health conditions [\[2](#page-23-1)]. The Physical Activity Guidelines in Chinese were also published in December 2021, emphasizing the importance of decreasing SED and being physically active every day [[3\]](#page-23-2). Additionally, in April 2022, the Sedentary Behavior Research Network (SBRN) gathered 148 sedentary behavior experts from 23 countries to provide recommendations for SED in students aged 5 to 18 learning offline during the COVID-19 pandemic [\[4](#page-23-3)]. Consequently, SED research is receiving increasing attention from public health.

SED is known to increase the risk of cardiovascular diseases [[5\]](#page-23-4), metabolic syndrome [[6](#page-23-5)], obesity [\[7\]](#page-23-6), and other disorders [\[1](#page-23-0)]. However, it remains unclear whether SED has a negative impact on bone health in children and adolescents. A recent systematic review has roughly discussed the SED association with adverse bone health outcomes in children, adolescents and young adults [[8\]](#page-23-7). However, this review included bone strength, bone mass, and microarchitecture as uniform outcomes. Bone strength is a mechanical parameter that reflects a bone's susceptibility to fractures, and it is influenced by several bone outcomes, such as the degree of bone mineralization, hydroxyapatite crystal size, heterogeneity, collagen properties, osteocyte density, trabecular and cortical microarchitecture [\[9\]](#page-23-8).Therefore, bone strength represents an integrated outcome of bone mass, bone microstructure and bone remodeling [\[10\]](#page-23-9), and it is difficult to distinguish the specific influence of SED on bone strength or bone mass independently when combining the results. In addition, the previous review did not account for the sex-differences in bone health. Many studies prove that gender is an important factor affecting bone density, skeletal geometry, and fracture. Thus, it is necessary to update and reanalyze each of the bone health outcomes that can be affected by SED independently, and discussed how genders are affected by SED differently.

The purpose of this study is to systematically review the evidence base to address the following questions among children, adolescents and young adults $(\leq 24 \text{ years}) : (1)$ Is there an association between SED and adverse bone health outcomes? What are the differences in SED's impacts on bone mass, bone microstructure, and bone strength? (2) Is that the association was modified by gender effects? (3) Is the relationship between SED and bone outcomes independent of moderate to vigorous physical activity (MVPA) ?

Methods

Search strategy

This systematic review was registered in PROSPERO (CRD42022372316). The search for relevant studies was conducted in five electronic databases, namely, Ovid EMBASE (from 1946), PubMed (from 1809), Medline (from 1949), Cochrane Library (from 1993), Web of Science (from 1963) and CNKI (from 1999), up to November 14, 2022 A detailed search strategy is provided in additional files of this study. Subsequently, duplicates were removed after extracting and importing the articles into Endnote X9. Potentially relevant articles were then screened based on their titles and abstracts by two independent reviewers (Hong. C and XX. Zhang). Full-text articles were retrieved for all studies that met the initial screening criteria by at least one reviewer (LM. Liang and a research assistant). Eligibility screening was then performed on all full-text articles by two independent reviewers (LY. Wang and FL. Peng), and any discrepancies were resolved through discussion until consensus was reached.

Inclusion and exclusion criteria

The search was not restricted by date but only included studies published in English and Chinese. Studies were eligible if they met the following criteria:

Population

Participants were between the ages ≤ 24 years (i.e., the mean age was within the age range at baseline and followup/post-test for longitudinal and experimental research), and appeared to be in good health (with no diagnosed disease, disability or overweight and obesity).

Exposure

For observational studies, different patterns of SED or habitual daily/weekly total SED should be measured objectively (e.g., using wearable monitors/accelerometers) or subjectively (using questionnaire or memory record). Studies that only assessed specific periods of SED, such as during school recess, were excluded. In addition, SED should be defined as any waking behavior characterized by an energy expenditure≤1.5 (METs/Metabolic Equivalents) while in a sitting or reclining posture.

Outcomes

For observational studies, associations between the exposure and an identified bone health outcome were reported. These included (1) Bone mass (e.g., bone mineral content [BMC], bone mineral density [BMD], bone area [BA]); (2) Bone microstructure (e.g., trabecular

number [Tb.N], trabecular thickness [Tb.Th], trabecular area [Tb.Ar], bone volume ratio [BV/TV], bone mineral density [Ct. BMD], cortical thickness [Ct.Th], cortical porosity [Ct.Po], periosteal and endosteal circumference [Peri C, Endo C]); (3) Bone strength (e.g., failure load [F.Load], polar strength strain index [pSSI], stiffness index [SI]);

Study design

The study was either an observational or controlled experiment (e.g., randomized or non-randomized controlled trials).

Data extraction

The extraction of data was performed by LY. Wang, with a subsequent check conducted by FL.Peng. Information pertaining to the study sample (including size, number of males/females, and age range), study design (including duration of follow-up for longitudinal studies), exposure measurement (such as the activity monitor type or questionnaire utilized), outcomes examined (such as BMD, BMC, BV/TV and pSSI), covariates included in the analyses, and study findings were extracted and documented in detail.

Risk of bias assessment

The assessment of information on the risk of bias (ROB) for each individual study was conducted by two reviewers (LY. Wang and FL. Peng), simultaneously, according to the guidelines provided by the National Institutes of Health Quality Assessment Tool for Observational Cohort and Cross-Sectional Studies [[11](#page-23-10)]. Initially, longitudinal studies were assigned a "high" rating, while cross-sectional studies were assigned a "moderate" rating. Subsequently, the initial rating was either upgraded or downgraded based on the ROB, which was evaluated on the basis of the following 14 components: (1) clearly stated research question; (2) specified and defined study population; (3) participation rate of eligible persons; (4) selection of subjects; (5) sample size justification; (6) exposure measured prior to outcome(s); (7) sufficient timeframe between exposure and outcome; (8) levels of exposure; (9) exposure measures defined, valid, reliable and consistently implemented; (10) exposure(s) assessed more than once over time; (11) outcome measures defined, valid, reliable and consistently implemented; (12) blinding of outcome assessors; (13) loss to follow-up and (14) adjustment for key confounders.

Categorization of levels of evidence and meta-analyses

The present study employed a coding method developed by Singh et al. [\[12](#page-23-11)] and Koedijk et al. [\[8](#page-23-7)] for categorizing and summarizing the relationships between SED and bone health outcomes. This rating system takes into account the number of studies, as well as the quality and consistency of the outcomes. Consistency was defined as at least 75% of significant outcomes (*p*<0.05) having the same direction. The rating system includes three levels of evidence:

- (1)Strong evidence: Consistent findings in at least two high-quality studies;
- (2)Moderate evidence: Consistent findings in one high quality study and at least one moderate quality study, or consistent findings in at least three moderatequality studies;
- (3)Insufficient evidence: Only one study avai lable or inconsistent findings in at least two studies.

Results

After removing duplicates, a total of 4635 studies were retrieved. Following full-text screening, 36 studies were deemed eligible for inclusion in this review (Fig. [1\)](#page-3-0). Of these studies, 24 were cross-sectional, 9 were longitudinal, 2 reported both cross-sectional and longitudinal results, and 1 was an experimental study. The quality of the included studies was assessed, with seven rated as high quality, twenty-three rated as moderate quality, and six rated as low quality according to the assessment criteria.

In terms of SED assessment, 18 of the included studies utilized accelerometers placed on the waist, hip, or wrist to measure SED. Self-reported questionnaires were used to assess SED in 12 studies, with recall periods ranging from three to seven days. Finally, six studies used both accelerometer and questionnaire methods to assess SED.

Whole body

Table [1](#page-4-0) provides a comprehensive overview of the 19 studies (13 cross-sectional, 5 longitudinal, and 1 with both designs) investigating the associations between SED and whole-body bone density, including total body without head (TBLH) bone density. Of the nineteen studies, nine (47%) employed self-reported questionnaires, nine $(47%)$ used accelerometers, and one $(5%)$ [\[21\]](#page-23-12) used both methods to assess SED. Among these studies, eleven (58%) [\[13](#page-23-13)–[17,](#page-23-14) [20](#page-23-15), [22](#page-23-16), [27–](#page-24-0)[30](#page-24-1)] examined the results in boys and girls separately, whereas the remaining eight [[19](#page-23-17), [21](#page-23-12), [23](#page-23-18)[–26](#page-24-2), [31,](#page-24-3) [32](#page-24-4)] studies did not.

A summary of the associations between self-reported or objectively measured SED and each bone mass outcome were presented in Tables [2](#page-17-0), [3](#page-18-0) and [4](#page-19-0), and Table [5](#page-20-0), respectively. The available evidence indicates a moderate level of certainty that there is no association between objectively measured SED and BMC or BMD in wholebody for children, adolescents, and young adults. However, one high quality longitudinal study [\[31](#page-24-3)] with a high

Fig. 1 PRISMA flow diagram for the search results and inclusions process for identification of articles

risk of bias showed a significant negative association between objectively measured SED and BMD/BMC in 1-year-old children, but not in 2-, 3-, or 3.5-year-olds, after adjusting for randomized group, sex, and demographic variables.

For boys, there is moderate evidence indicating a nonassociation between self-reported SED and whole-body BMD, whereas two studies investigate the relationship between whole-body BMD and objectively measured SED, with only one high-quality longitudinal study [[20](#page-23-15)] showing a significant association. For girls, moderate evidence also suggests a lack of association between selfreported SED and whole-body BMD. Furthermore, studies by Donvina Vaitkeviciute et al. [\[33](#page-24-5)] and Luis Gracia Marco et al. [\[16](#page-23-19)] have confirmed that after adjusting for MVPA, the relationship between SED and whole-body bone mass, including BMC and BMD, disappeared.

Spine

Table [1](#page-4-0) presents 13 studies that examined the associations between SED and spine bone density, consisting of 9 cross-sectional studies [[13,](#page-23-13) [14](#page-23-20), [16,](#page-23-19) [18](#page-23-21), [21,](#page-23-12) [22,](#page-23-16) [25](#page-24-6), [34,](#page-24-7) [35](#page-24-8)] and 4 longitudinal studies [\[26](#page-24-2)[–28,](#page-24-9) [30\]](#page-24-1). Among them, 5 studies (38%) [[14,](#page-23-20) [26–](#page-24-2)[28](#page-24-9), [30](#page-24-1)] employed accelerometers, 6 studies (46%) [[13,](#page-23-13) [16,](#page-23-19) [22,](#page-23-16) [25](#page-24-6), [34](#page-24-7), [35](#page-24-8)] employed questionnaires, and 2 studies $(15%)$ $[18, 21]$ $[18, 21]$ $[18, 21]$ utilized both to assess SED. Ten studies [\[13](#page-23-13), [14](#page-23-20), [16,](#page-23-19) [18,](#page-23-21) [22,](#page-23-16) [27,](#page-24-0) [28,](#page-24-9) [30](#page-24-1), [34](#page-24-7), [35\]](#page-24-8) conducted separate analyze for boys and girls regarding the relationship between SED and bone density in the spine. Tables [2](#page-17-0), [3,](#page-18-0) [4](#page-19-0) and [5](#page-20-0) provide a summary of the associations between self-reported or objectively measured SED and each bone mass outcome of the spine. The evidence is still insufficient to draw a definitive conclusion about the association between SED and bone mass in the spine.

Wang *et al. BMC Public Health* (2024) 24:2991 Page 5 of 25

Table 2 Summarize the evidence from including studies examining associations between SED and bone outcomes in all groups

^a. The ROB of this research is defined as "high quality"

b. Citations for studies reporting a significant association between SED and the bone outcomes

^c. Citations for studies reporting a non-significant association between SED and the bone outcomes

d. When SED be assessed by accelerator that be defined as objectively measured SED(Ob-SED). When SED be assessed by questionnaire or memory recall that be defined as self-reported SED

Abbreviations: SED=sedentary behavior, BMD=bone mineral density, BMC=bone mineral content, BUA=broadband ultrasound attenuation, SOS=seed of sound, SI=stiffness index, BV/TV=trabecular bone volume ratio, Tb.Th=trabecular thickness, Tt.BMD=trabecular BMD, Tb.N=trabecular number, Tb.Ar=trabecular area, Ct.Th=cortical thickness, Ct.Po=cortical porosity, Ct.BMD=cortical BMD, Tt.Ar=total area, Endo C=endosteal circumference, Peri C=periosteal circumference, pSSI=polar strength strain index, F.Load=Bone failure load

In a high quality 2-year longitudinal study, Donvina Vaitkeviciute et al. [\[27\]](#page-24-0) (high ROB quality) demonstrated that the relationship between objectively measured SED and spine BMD disappeared in boys after adjusting for MVPA or VPA. A cross-sectional study [[18\]](#page-23-21) found that the association between objectively measured or selfreported SED and spine BMD in girls persisted after controlling for MVPA, but vanished after controlling for VPA.

Hip

Table [1](#page-4-0) presents four studies that investigated associations between SED and hip bone density, consisting of three cross-sectional studies [\[20](#page-23-15), [22,](#page-23-16) [35](#page-24-8)] and one longitudinal study [\[26](#page-24-2)]. Among these studies, one utilized an accelerometer to assess SED $(25%)$ $[26]$ $[26]$, while the remaining three utilized questionnaires (75%) [\[20](#page-23-15), [22](#page-23-16), [35\]](#page-24-8). Moreover, three studies (75%) [\[20](#page-23-15), [22,](#page-23-16) [35](#page-24-8)] analyzed the relationship between SED and hip bone density of boys and girls.

^a. The ROB of this research is defined as "high quality"

b. Citations for studies reporting a significant association between SED and the bone outcomes

^c. Citations for studies reporting a non-significant association between SED and the bone outcomes

d. When SED be assessed by accelerator that be defined as objectively measured SED(Ob-SED). When SED be assessed by questionnaire or memory recall that be defined as self-reported SED

Abbreviations: SED=sedentary behavior, BMD=bone mineral density, BMC=bone mineral content, SI=stiffness index, Ct.Th=cortical thickness, Endo C=endosteal circumference, Peri C=periosteal circumference, Ct th=cortical thickness, SSI=strength strain index

A summary of the associations between self-reported or objectively measured SED and each bone mass outcome of hip, is provided in Table [2](#page-17-0) Tables [3](#page-18-0) and [4](#page-19-0). However, the evidence to summarize the association between SED and hip bone mass outcomes remains inconclusive. Only one high-quality longitudinal study [\[26\]](#page-24-2) with a sixyear follow-up duration found a negative correlation between objectively measured SED and hip BMC, but no correlation was observed with hip BMD for all groups. Nevertheless, further studies are needed to provide more robust evidence on the association between SED and hip bone density.

Femur

Table [1](#page-4-0) presents the 14 studies that investigated the associations between SED and femur bone density, microstructure, and strength comprising nine cross-sectional studies [\[13](#page-23-13), [14](#page-23-20), [16,](#page-23-19) [18,](#page-23-21) [20,](#page-23-15) [24,](#page-23-23) [25,](#page-24-6) [34,](#page-24-7) [35](#page-24-8)] and five longitudinal studies [\[27](#page-24-0)–[30,](#page-24-1) [36\]](#page-24-20). Of the fourteen studies, six (25%) [[14,](#page-23-20) [24](#page-23-23), [27](#page-24-0), [28,](#page-24-9) [30,](#page-24-1) [36](#page-24-20)] employed accelerometers, seven (50%) [\[13](#page-23-13), [16,](#page-23-19) [20,](#page-23-15) [25](#page-24-6), [29](#page-24-23), [34,](#page-24-7) [35](#page-24-8)] used questionnaires, and one $(7%)$ [\[18](#page-23-21)] used both to assess SED. Most of the included studies [[13,](#page-23-13) [14](#page-23-20), [16,](#page-23-19) [27](#page-24-0)[–30](#page-24-1), [34–](#page-24-7)[36](#page-24-20)] analyzed the association between SED and femur bone

density, microstructure and strength separately for boys and girls separately.

Tables [2,](#page-17-0) [3](#page-18-0), [4](#page-19-0) and [5](#page-20-0) summarizes the associations between self-reported or objectively measured SED and femur bone outcomes. Only one cross-sectional study [[24](#page-23-23)] (low ROB quality) investigated the association between objectively measured SED and femur bone density in both boys and girls, but found no significant relationship. For boys, the evidence of the association between self-reported or objectively measured SED and each femur bone mass outcomes are still insufficient. For girls, a moderate level of summary evidence has found a negative association between self-reported SED and femur BMD. A high ROB quality longitudinal study [[36](#page-24-20)] examined the longitudinal associations between objectively measured SED and BMD in girls aged 9–12 over a 2-year period. After adjustment for baseline bone outcome, baseline accelerometer wear time, ethnicity, 2-year height, 2-year lean soft tissue mass, 2-year maturity, and calcium intake, no association between objectively measured SED and SSI, Ct BMD, Ct BMC, Ct.Ar, Ct.Th, Tt.Ar, Peri C and Endo C was observed.

Regarding the relationship between SED and femur bone mass outcomes after adjusting for MVPA, a 2-year

^a. The ROB of this research is defined as "high quality"

b. Citations for studies reporting a significant association between SED and the bone outcomes

^c. Citations for studies reporting a non-significant association between SED and the bone outcomes

d. When SED be assessed by accelerator that be defined as objectively measured SED(Ob-SED). When SED be assessed by questionnaire or memory recall that be defined as self-reported SED

Abbreviations: SED=sedentary behavior, BMD=bone mineral density, BMC=bone mineral content, SI=stiffness index, Tb.N=trabecular number, Tb.Ar=trabecular area, Ct.Th=cortical thickness, Ct.BMD=cortical BMD, Tt.Ar=total area, Endo C=endosteal circumference, Peri C=periosteal circumference

longitudinal study by Donvina Vaitkeviciute et al. [[27](#page-24-0)] found that the negative association between objectively measured SED and femur BMD still existed in boys. However, the association between self-reported SED and femur BMC vanished in both boys and girls after adjusting for MVPA, according to Luis et al. cross-sectional study [\[16](#page-23-19)]. Sebastien et al. cross-sectional study [[18](#page-23-21)] confirmed that after adjusting for MVPA, the negative correlation between self-reported SED and femur BMD persisted in girls but vanished in boys.

Tibia

Table [1](#page-4-0) presents a list of 6 studies that investigated the associations between sedentary behavior (SED) and tibia bone microstructure or strength, which includes 4 crosssectional studies [\[35](#page-24-8), [37](#page-24-10)[–39\]](#page-24-16) and 2 longitudinal studies [[36,](#page-24-20) [40\]](#page-24-15). Among the included studies, four studies (67%) [[36,](#page-24-20) [37,](#page-24-10) [39](#page-24-16), [40](#page-24-15)] employed accelerometer, one study (17%) [[35\]](#page-24-8) utilized questionnaires, and one study (17%) [[38](#page-24-12)]

utilized both accelerometer and questionnaires to assess SED. Only three studies (50%) [\[35–](#page-24-8)[37\]](#page-24-10) analyzed the relationship between SED and tibia microstructure separately for boys and girls.

A summary of the associations between the selfreported or objectively measured SED and bone strength outcomes of tibia is presented in Tables [2](#page-17-0), [3,](#page-18-0) [4](#page-19-0) and [5](#page-20-0). The evidence for all groups suggests a lack of association between objectively measured SED and BV/TV or Ct. Po in the tibia, but a negative association between objectively measured SED and Ct. BMD. Leigh Gabel et al. [[38](#page-24-12)] found that after adjusting for MVPA, Tb. Th, Ct. Th, and Ct. BMD were positively related, while Ct. Po and F. Load were negatively related.

However, the summarizing evidence of the relationship between self-reported or objectively measured SED and each outcome of tibia bone microstructure or strength is insufficient when only focusing on boys or girls.

Table 5 Summarize the evidence from including studies examining associations between SED and bone outcomes after adjusted MVPA

^a. The ROB of this research is defined as "high quality"

b. Citations for studies reporting a significant association between SED and the bone outcomes

^c. Citations for studies reporting a non-significant association between SED and the bone outcomes

d. When SED be assessed by accelerator that be defined as objectively measured SED(Ob-SED). When SED be assessed by questionnaire or memory recall that be defined as self-reported SED

Abbreviations: SED=sedentary behavior, BMD=bone mineral density, BMC=bone mineral content, SI=stiffness index, BV/TV=trabecular bone volume ratio, Tb.Th=trabecular thickness, Ct.Po=cortical porosity, Ct.Th=cortical thickness, Ct.BMD=cortical BMD, Tt.Ar=total area, F.Load=Bone failure load

Calcaneus

Table [1](#page-4-0) lists 7 studies that have investigated the associations between sedentary behavior(SED) and calcaneus bone strength or microstructure (cross-sectional studies=5 $[41-45]$ $[41-45]$, longitudinal studies=1 $[46]$ $[46]$, and both cross-sectional and longitudinal=1 $[47]$ $[47]$ $[47]$). Among the seven studies, three $(37%)$ [[41,](#page-24-11) [44](#page-24-18), [45\]](#page-24-19) utilized accelerometer, one (25%) [\[46](#page-24-22)] used questionnaires, and three(37%) [[42,](#page-24-13) [43](#page-24-17), [47](#page-24-21)] employed both accelerometer and questionnaire methods to assess SED. Furthermore, two studies (25%) [\[45,](#page-24-19) [46](#page-24-22)] analyzed the relationship between SED and calcaneus microstructure separately for boys and girls.

A summary of the associations between the selfreported or objectively measured SED and calcaneus bone outcomes is presented in Tables [2](#page-17-0), [3](#page-18-0) and [4.](#page-19-0) Strong level evidence indicates a negative correlation between objectively measured SED and SI in calcaneus for all groups. Lan Cheng's six-year longitudinal study $[47]$ $[47]$ $[47]$ reported a negative correlation between SED and SI at baseline, but an insignificant correlation at 2 and 6 years.

However, when solely focused on boys or girls, the summing evidence of the relationship between SED and calcaneus bone strength is currently inadequate.

Radius

Table [1](#page-4-0) presents 3 longitudinal studies (100%) investigating the associations between SED and radius bone microstructure. Among them, one study (33 [\[29\]](#page-24-23)%) performed a gender-specific analysis of the relationship between SED and radius microstructure. According to Leigh Gabel et al. $[40]$ $[40]$, whose study is of high risk of bias quality, only Ct. BMD is positively correlated with objectively measured SED in boys and girls. However, upon adjusting for MVPA, all correlations become non-significant.

Discussion

Based on the level of evidence grading, this review did not find sufficient evidence to support the hypothesis that sedentary behaviors (SED) are adverse related to bone mass or strength in children, adolescents and

young people, particularly when analyzing boys or girls separately or adjusting for moderate-to-vigorous physical activity (MVPA).There was no strong evidence supporting an association between bone mineral content (BMC) or bone mineral density (BMD) and any type of SED, even when focusing on boys or girls or after adjusting for MVPA. However, moderate evidence suggested a non-association between BMC or BMD and SED in the whole body and a negative association between BMD and self-reported SED in the femur. Notably, bone microstructure or strength appeared to be more sensitive to SED than bone mass. The review found strong evidence in all groups indicating a negative relationship between objectively measured SED with Ct. BMD in the tibia or with stiffness index (SI) in the calcaneus.

These findings differ slightly from those reported by J. B. Koedijk's study [\[8](#page-23-7)], which reviewed 17 studies and concluded that the association between SED and bone health outcomes appears to be weak in persons younger than 24 years. While we also found no strong evidence to suggest an association between objectively measured SED and bone outcomes for the whole body, we found strong evidence between objectively measured SED and Ct.BMD in the tibia and a strong level of evidence between objectively measured SED and SI in the calcaneus. These differences may stem from our separate analyses of boys and girls. For example, J.B. Koedijk's study [[8\]](#page-23-7) includes both Ivuskans' research [\[28](#page-24-9)] and Vaitkeviciute D's study [[33\]](#page-24-5), which are high-level risk of bias (ROB) studies, to demonstrate the non-association between objectively measured SED and bone mass. However, Ivuskan's study participants were all boys, and Vaitkeviciute D's study adjusted for MVPA in adolescents. Therefore, when adjusting for MVPA and gender as covariates to separately analyze the relationship between SED and BMC or BMD in the whole body, the conclusions may differ.

Regrettably, the existing evidence remains insufficient to draw clear conclusions about the association between SED and BMD or BMC in various body regions. BMD or BMC serves as a quantified marker of bone mass, which typically increases rapidly during the first 20 years of life before reaching a plateau in late adolescent or early adulthood [[48\]](#page-24-24). During puberty, more than 94% of BMD in both boys and girls is acquired by the age of 16, according to longitudinal studies [\[49](#page-24-25)]. Thus, it is challenging to discern through correlation analysis how SED during adolescence negatively affects bone mass during the rapid bone accumulation period in puberty. Nevertheless, when comparing the bone mass of sedentary children at different levels, the differences are noteworthy. For example, Joanne A McVeigh et al. [\[29](#page-24-23)] observed that daily TV watching volume had an adverse effect on BMC, with higher levels of TV watching linked to lower BMC in both boys and girls. Similarly, Christofaro et al. [[25\]](#page-24-6) found that BMD was lower in high SED children than low SED children. Therefore, comparative analysis seems to be more effective in identifying the harmful

lation analysis. Furthermore, we contend that bone strength is more sensitive than bone mass in terms of its relationship with SED. This could be attributed to the fact that bone strength is influenced by bone geometry, density, and microarchitecture, which adapt to increased mechanical loads during physical activity. Furthermore, it has been demonstrated that cancellous bone strength may be impacted by bone tissue mineralization, trabecular disconnection, and the presence of remodeling cavities, independent of bone mass [[50](#page-24-26)]. It has been proven that dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry (DXA) measured BMD accounts for 60–70% of the variation in bone strength. Some important factors, such as bone geometry and trabecular microarchitecture, are not captured by DXA [[51\]](#page-24-27). Therefore, DXA may be inadequate in capturing subtle adaptations in bone strength and its determinants, such as geometry, density, and microstructure [[40,](#page-24-15) [51\]](#page-24-27). In the future, greater attention should be paid to the link between SED and bone strength, as even in the absence of a negative effect on BMD, SED may be detrimental by decreasing other determinants of bone strength.

impact of sedentary behaviors on bone mass than corre-

Approximately 47% of studies have examined the gender-specific effects of sedentary behavior on bone health. However, the evidence regarding the independent influence of sedentary behavior on bone mineral density (BMD) in different body parts among boys and girls is weak. Gender differences in bone mass become more apparent during puberty, as males have a longer period of bone maturation, resulting in greater bone size and cortical thickness [[52](#page-24-28)]. During puberty, endocrine factors such as gonadal steroids, growth hormone, and insulin-like growth factor-1, as well as menstrual history in girls, are crucial regulators of bone development [[53](#page-24-29), [54\]](#page-24-30). Despite these factors, our study found limited gender differences in the correlation between self-reported sedentary behavior and femur BMD. Therefore, additional high-quality research is necessary to elucidate the gender-specific effects of sedentary behavior on bone health.

Furthermore, our study explored whether the association between sedentary behavior and bone health is independent of moderate to vigorous physical activity (MVPA). While our analysis of the included studies did not yield a definitive answer, some research does raise several interesting points that deserve further investigation. Some researchers have suggested that not all sedentary behavior is detrimental to bone health, particularly for highly active adolescents, as sedentary behavior can provide a recovery period between loading bouts for

optimal biomechanical adaptation and restoration of mechano-sensitivity of bone cells [\[39](#page-24-16), [55](#page-24-31)]. Additionally, it has been suggested that guidelines aimed at improving pediatric bone development via physical activity should focus on increasing the total duration of MVPA, regardless of fragmentation and sedentary behavior, as longer bouts of continuous MVPA may lead to shorter periods of sedentary behavior.

Strengths and limitations

This study provides a systematic review of the associations between SED and bone health outcomes in children adolescents, and young adults, including bone mass, microstructure and strength across various anatomic sites. However, certain limitations must be acknowledged when interpreting the study's conclusions.

Firstly, as the majority of the included research is observational in nature, the study cannot draw causal inferences regarding the relationships identified. Additionally, cross-sectional studies may exhibit bidirectional associations. Furthermore, this study only considered research published in English and Chinese, with no articles in other languages. Secondly, this study only included healthy populations of children, adolescents, and young adults, thereby excluding individuals who were overweight or had clinical conditions. Previous research has highlighted the association between increased body weight or body mass index and increased bone mineral density (BMD) [[56–](#page-24-32)[58](#page-24-33)]. Moreover, increased SED may alter body composition by increasing fat mass relative to lean mass, which could influence bone health as anthropometry and body composition predict the development of bone accumulation [\[59](#page-24-34)]. Encouraging less sitting time may also improve lean mass and subsequently improve bone health, as suggested by T.L. Binkley [\[35](#page-24-8)]. Thus, future research should focus on understanding the interactions between SED and lean mass on bone health, particularly in overweight populations. Thirdly, this study included a variety of anatomical sites assessed using different methodologies such as dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry (DXA), high-resolution peripheral quantitative computed tomography (HR-pQCT), and quantitative ultrasound (QUS), as well as various methods for evaluating SED, including different accelerometer types and questionnaires. The absence of standardized assessments limits the conclusions that can be drawn from the studies' findings. Although BMD measurement remains the most useful diagnostic tool for identifying osteoporosis, other technologies such as HR-QCT and other 3D magnetic resonance imaging can non-invasively assess bone cross-sectional geometry and trabecular architecture, which could provide a more complete picture of bone strength/health. In addition, this review included studies that used different densitometers to assess BMD, which is a limitation due to the well-established inherent measurement differences between scanners.

In summary, while this study provides valuable insights into the associations between SED and bone health outcomes, its findings should be interpreted in light of the aforementioned limitations, and further research is warranted to comprehensively understand the relationships between SED and bone health outcomes.

Conclusion

This systematic review suggests that the evidence linking sedentary behavior (SED) in children to adverse bone health outcomes remains inconclusive due to insufficient evidence. However, it should be noted that bone strength may be more sensitive to SED than bone mass. The rapid increase in bone mass during the first two decades of life makes it difficult to ascertain how SED during adolescence negatively affects bone mass through correlation analysis during the puberty-related rapid bone accumulation period. Conversely, bone strength is influenced by bone geometry, density, and microarchitecture, which adapt to increased mechanical loads during physical activity. Future studies should investigate the link between SED and bone strength, rather than SED and bone mass. Besides, a slight gender-specific difference between the correlation between self-reported sedentary behavior and femur BMD. But only 47% included studies discussed the gender effect, the evidence are still not suitable that we need more evidence to prove the difference. We also discussed the relationship between SED and bone outcomes independent of (MVPA). Regrettably, we still can`t draw a clear conclusion according to insufficient evidence.But we find a interesting point that not all SED are detrimental for bone health, for highly active adolescents, as sedentary behavior can provide a recovery period between loading bouts for optimal biomechanical adaptation and restoration of mechanosensitivity of bone cells. In the end, we still expect more further evidence to elucidate the relationship between SED and bone health, particularly regarding the association between sedentary behavior and bone strength.

Abbreviations

Supplementary Information

The online version contains supplementary material available at [https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-024-20437-5) [org/10.1186/s12889-024-20437-5](https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-024-20437-5).

Supplementary Material 1

Acknowledgements

Not applicable.

Author contributions

LY.Wang and FL.Peng designed research, screened full-text articles, extracted data, analyzed data, and wrote the paper. H.Chi and XX.Zhang screened all potentially relevant articles. LM.Liang retrieved all studies that met the initial screening criteria.

Funding

This study was supported by grant (GXMUYSF202344) from the Youth Science Foundation of Guangxi Medical University, and grant (2021JGB162) from Program of Higher Education and Teaching Reform in Guangxi, and grant (YCBZ2023067) from Innovation Project of Guangxi Graduate Education.

Data availability

All data generated or analysed during this study are included in this published article [and its addition information files].

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate Not applicable.

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Received: 16 April 2023 / Accepted: 17 October 2024 Published online: 29 October 2024

References

- Falck RS, Davis JC, Liu-Ambrose T. What is the association between sedentary behaviour and cognitive function? A systematic review. Br J Sports Med. 2017;51:800–11.
- 2. Bull FC, Al-Ansari SS, Biddle S, Borodulin K, Buman MP, Cardon G, et al. World Health Organization 2020 guidelines on physical activity and sedentary behaviour. Br J Sports Med. 2020;54:1451–62.
- 3. Composing and Editorial Board of Physical Activity Guidelines for Chinese. [Physical Activity Guidelines for Chinese (2021)]. Zhonghua Liu Xing Bing Xue Za Zhi. 2022 10;43(1):5–6. [https://doi.org/10.3760/cma.j](https://doi.org/10.3760/cma.j.cn112338-20211119-00903) [.cn112338-20211119-00903](https://doi.org/10.3760/cma.j.cn112338-20211119-00903)
- 4. Saunders TJ, Rollo S, Kuzik N, Demchenko I, Bélanger S, Brisson-Boivin K, et al. International school-related sedentary behaviour recommendations for children and youth. Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act. 2022;19:39.
- 5. Lavie CJ, Ozemek C, Carbone S, Katzmarzyk PT, Blair SN. Sedentary behavior, Exercise, and Cardiovascular Health. Circ Res. 2019;124:799–815.
- 6. Gallardo-Alfaro L, Bibiloni MDM, Mascaró CM, Montemayor S, Ruiz-Canela M, Salas-Salvadó J, et al. Leisure-time physical activity, sedentary Behaviour and Diet Quality are Associated with metabolic syndrome severity: the PREDIMED-Plus study. Nutrients. 2020;7(4):1013.
- 7. Biddle SJH, García Bengoechea E, Pedisic Z, Bennie J, Vergeer I, Wiesner G. Screen time, other sedentary behaviours, and obesity risk in adults: a review of reviews. Curr Obes Rep. 2017;6:134–47.
- 8. Koedijk JB, Van Rijswijk J, Oranje WA, Van den Bergh JP, Bours SP, Savelberg HH, et al. Sedentary behaviour and bone health in children, adolescents and young adults: a systematic review. Osteoporos Int. 2017;28:2507–19.
- 9. Fonseca H, Moreira-Gonçalves D, Coriolano HJ, Duarte JA. Bone quality: the determinants of bone strength and fragility. Sports Med. 2014;44:37–53.
- 10. Armas LA, Recker RR. Pathophysiology of osteoporosis: new mechanistic insights. Endocrinol Metab Clin North Am. 2012;41:475–86.
- 11. Feng S, Shuxun H, Jialiang Z, Dongfeng R, Zheng C, Jiaguang T. Quality Assessment Tool for Observational Cohort and Cross-Sectional Studies. 2014.
- 12. Singh AS, Mulder C, Twisk J, Mechelen WV, Chinapaw M. Tracking of childhood overweight into adulthood: a systematic review of the literature. Obes Rev. 2010;9:474–88.
- 13. May-Choo W, Crawford PB, Mark H, Marta VL, Kirstin S, Bachrach LK. Diet in midpuberty and sedentary activity in prepuberty predict peak bone mass. Am J Clin Nutr.2003;495.
- 14. Sardinha LB, Baptista F, Ekelund U. Objectively measured physical activity and bone strength in 9-year-old boys and girls. Pediatrics. 2008;122:e728.
- 15. Vicente-Rodríguez G, Ortega FB, Rey-López JP, España-Romero V, Blay VA, Blay G, et al. Extracurricular physical activity participation modifies the association between high TV watching and low bone mass. Bone. 2009;45:925–30.
- 16. Gracia-Marco L, Rey-López JP, Santaliestra-Pasías AM, Jiménez-Pavón D, Díaz LE, Moreno LA, et al. Sedentary behaviours and its association with bone mass in adolescents: the HELENA cross-sectional study. BMC Public Health. 2012;12:971–971.
- 17. Tereszkowski CM, Simpson JAR, Whiting SJ, Buchholz AC. Body mass, vitamin D and alcohol intake, lactose intolerance, and television watching influence bone mineral density of young, healthy Canadian women. J Am Coll Nutr. 2012;31:24–31.
- 18. Chastin SF, Mandrichenko O, Skelton DA. The frequency of osteogenic activities and the pattern of intermittence between periods of physical activity and sedentary behaviour affects bone mineral content: the cross-sectional NHANES study. BMC Public Health. 2014;14:4.
- 19. McVey MKG, Aisling A, Malachi JK, Mark TC, Rachel KT, et al. The impact of diet, body composition, and physical activity on child bone mineral density at five years of age-findings from the ROLO Kids Study. Eur J Pediatrics. 2020;179(1):121–31.
- 20. Winther A, Ahmed LA, Furberg AS, Grimnes G, Jorde R, Nilsen OA, et al. Leisure time computer use and adolescent bone health–findings from the Tromsø Study, Fit futures: a cross-sectional study. BMJ Open. 2015;5(6):e006665.
- 21. Pelegrini A, Klen JA, Costa AM, Bim MA, Claumann GS, De Angelo HCC, et al. Association between sedentary behavior and bone mass in adolescents. Osteoporos Int. 2020;31:1733–40.
- 22. Janz KF, Burns TL, Torner JC, Levy SM, Warren JJ. Physical activity and bone measures in Young children: the Iowa Bone Development Study. Pediatrics. 2001;107:1387–93.
- 23. McCormack L, Meendering J, Specker B, Binkley T. Associations between Sedentary Time, Physical Activity, and dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry measures of total body, android, and Gynoid Fat Mass in Children. J Clin Densitom. 2016;19(3):368–74.
- 24. Constable AM, Vlachopoulos D, Barker AR, et al. The independent and interactive associations of physical activity intensity and vitamin D status with bone mineral density in prepubertal children: the PANIC Study. Osteoporos Int. 2021;32:1609–20.
- 25. Christofaro DGD, Tebar WR, Saraiva BTC, da Silva GCR, Dos Santos AB, Mielke GI, et al. Comparison of bone mineral density according to domains of sedentary behavior in children and adolescents. BMC Pediatr. 2022;22(1):72.
- 26. Kennedy K, Shepherd S, Williams JE, Ahmed SF, Wells JC, Fewtrell M. Activity, body composition and bone health in children. Arch Dis Child. 2013;98:204–7.
- 27. Vaitkeviciute D, Lätt E, Mäestu J, Jürimäe T, Saar M, Purge P, et al. Physical activity and bone mineral accrual in boys with different body mass parameters during puberty: a longitudinal study. PLoS ONE. 2014;9(10):e107759.
- 28. Ivuškāns Aū, Mäestu J, Jürimäe T, Lätt E, Purge P, Saar M, Maasalu K, et al. Sedentary time has a negative influence on bone mineral parameters in peripubertal boys: a 1-year prospective study. J Bone Miner Metab. 2015;33:85–92.
- 29. Mcveigh JA, Zhu K, Mountain J, Pennell CE, Lye SJ, Walsh JP, et al. Longitudinal Trajectories of Television Watching across Childhood and Adolescence Predict Bone Mass at Age 20 years in the Raine Study. J Bone Min Res. 2016;31(11):2032–40.
- 30. Tamme R, Jürimäe J, Mäestu E, Remmel L, Purge P, Mengel E, et al. Physical activity in Puberty is Associated with total body and femoral Neck Bone Mineral characteristics in males at 18 years of age. Med (Kaunas). 2019;55(5):203.
- 31. Taylor RW, Haszard JJ, Meredith-Jones KA, Galland BC, Heath ALM, Julie L, et al. 24-h movement behaviors from infancy to preschool: cross-sectional and longitudinal relationships with body composition and bone health. Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act. 2018;15(1):118.
- 32. Isabelle S, Nathalie, Michels, Carolien P, et al. The influence of dairy consumption, sedentary behaviour and physical activity on bone mass in flemish children: a cross-sectional study. BMC Public Health. 2015;15:717.
- 33. Vaitkeviciute D, Lätt E, Mäestu J, Jürimäe T, Saar M, Purge P, Maasalu K, et al. Longitudinal associations between bone and adipose tissue biochemical markers with bone mineralization in boys during puberty. BMC Pediatr. 2016;16:102.
- 34. Braun SI, Kim Y, Jetton AE, Kang M, Morgan DW. Prediction of bone mineral density and content from measures of physical activity and sedentary behavior in younger and older females. Prev Med Rep. 2015;2:300–5.
- 35. Binkley TL, Specker BL. The negative effect of sitting time on bone is mediated by lean mass in pubertal children. J Musculoskelet Neuronal Interact. 2016;16:18–23.
- 36. Bland VL, Bea JW, Roe DJ, Lee VR, Blew RM, Going SB. Physical activity, sedentary time, and longitudinal bone strength in adolescent girls. Osteoporos Int Osteoporos Int. 2020;31(10):1943–54.
- 37. Gabel L, McKay H, Nettlefold L, Race D, Macdonald H. Lean body mass mediates associations between physical activity, sendentary behavior, and bone microstructure in post-menarcheal girls. J Bone Miner Res 2012;27.
- 38. Gabel L, McKay HA, Nettlefold L, Race D, Macdonald HM. Bone architecture and strength in the growing skeleton: the role of sedentary time. Med Sci Sports Exerc. 2015;47:363–72.
- 39. Osborn W, Simm P, Olds T, Lycett K, Mensah FK, Muller J, et al. Bone health, activity and sedentariness at age 11–12 years: cross-sectional Australian population-derived study. Bone. 2018;112:153–60.
- 40. Leigh G, Heather, Macdonald, Lindsay N, et al. Physical activity, sedentary time, and bone strength from childhood to early adulthood: a mixed longitudinal HR-pQCT study. J Bone Min Res. 2017;32(7):1525–36.
- 41. De Smet S, Michels N, Polfliet C, D'Haese S, Roggen I, De Henauw S, et al. The influence of dairy consumption and physical activity on ultrasound bone measurements in flemish children. J Bone Mineral Metabolism. 2015;33:192–200.
- 42. Herrmann D, Buck C, Sioen I, Kouride Y, Mårild S, Molnár D, et al. Impact of physical activity, sedentary behaviour and muscle strength on bone stiffness in 2–10-year-old children-cross-sectional results from the IDEFICS study. Int J Behav Nutr Phys Activity. 2015;12:112.
- 43. Tan VP, Macdonald HM, Gabel L, Mckay HA. Physical activity, but not sedentary time, influences bone strength in late adolescence. Archives Osteoporos. 2018;13:31.
- 44. Szmodis M, Bosnyák E, Protzner A, Szőts G, Trájer E, Tóth M. Relationship between physical activity, dietary intake and bone parameters in 10–12 years old Hungarian boys and girls. Cent Eur J Public Health. 2019;27(1):10–6.
- 45. Yamakita M, DaisukeAkiyama, YukaSato MS, KohtaYamagata Z. Association of objectively measured physical activity and sedentary behavior with bone stiffness in peripubertal children. J Bone Min Metab. 2019;37(6):1095–103.
- 46. Cheng L, Pohlabeln H, Ahrens W, Russo P, Veidebaum T, Chadjigeorgiou C, et al. Sex differences in the longitudinal associations between body composition and bone stiffness index in European children and adolescents. Bone. 2020;131:115162.
- 47. Cheng L, Pohlabeln H, Ahrens W, Lauria F, Veidebaum T, Chadjigeorgiou C, et al. Cross-sectional and longitudinal associations between physical activity, sedentary behaviour and bone stiffness index across weight status in European children and adolescents. Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act. 2020;17(1):54.
- 48. Zhu X, Zheng H. Factors influencing peak bone mass gain. Front Med. 2021;15:17.
- 49. Berger C, Goltzman D, Langsetmo L, Joseph L, Jackson S, Kreiger N, et al. Peak bone mass from longitudinal data: implications for the prevalence, pathophysiology, and diagnosis of osteoporosis. J Bone Min Res. 2010;25(9):1948–57.
- 50. Hernandez CJ. How can bone turnover modify bone strength independent of bone mass? Bone. 2008;42(6):1014–20.
- 51. Ammann P, Rizzoli R. Bone strength and its determinants. Osteoporos Int. 2003;14(Suppl 3):S13–8.
- 52. Bonjour JP, Theintz G, Law F, Slosman D, Rizzoli R. Peak bone mass. Osteoporos Int. 1994;4:7–13.
- 53. Saggese G, Baroncelli GI, Bertelloni S. Puberty and bone development. Best Pract Res Clin Endocrinol Metab. 2002;16:53–64.
- 54. Pérez-López FR, Chedraui P, Cuadros-López JL. Bone mass gain during puberty and adolescence: deconstructing gender characteristics. Curr Med Chem. 2010;17(5):453–66.
- 55. Robling AG, Burr DB, Turner CH. Recovery periods restore mechanosensitivity to dynamically loaded bone. J Exp Biol. 2001;204:3389–99.
- 56. Hoy CL, Macdonald HM, McKay HA. How does bone quality differ between healthy-weight and overweight adolescents and young adults? Clin Orthop Relat Res. 2013;471:1214–25.
- 57. Van Leeuwen J, Koes BW, Paulis WD, van Middelkoop M. Differences in bone mineral density between normal-weight children and children with overweight and obesity: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Obes Rev. 2017;18:526–46.
- 58. Fintini D, Cianfarani S, Cofini M, Andreoletti A, Ubertini GM, Cappa M, et al. The bones of children with obesity. Front Endocrinol (Lausanne). 2020;11:200.
- 59. Heidemann M, Holst R, Schou AJ, Klakk H, Husby S, Wedderkopp N, et al. The influence of anthropometry and body composition on children's bone health: the childhood health, activity and motor performance school (the CHAMPS) study, Denmark. Calcif Tissue Int. 2015;96:97–104.
- 60. Martins C, Silva G, Aires L, Lemos L, Mota J. Changes in physical activity and sedentary time are relatedto a better bone profile in youth: 3231 board #296 June 3, 2:00 PM - 3:30 PM. Med Sci Sports Exer. 2016;48(5S Suppl 1):923–4.

Publisher's note

Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.