## **REVIEW**



# **Impact of resistance training on fatigue among breast cancer patients undergoing chemotherapy: a systematic review and meta‑analysis**

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## **Abstract**

**Purpose** The effects of aerobic exercise interventions for reducing fatigue after cancer treatment are well-established, and the effect of resistance training remains uncertain. Therefore, this systematic review and meta-analysis aim to analyze the effect of resistance training and combined resistance and endurance training on cancer-related fatigue (CRF) in breast cancer patients. **Methods** A systematic search for randomized controlled trials (RCTs) was conducted on the PubMed, SPORTDiscus, Embase, and Cochrane databases, focusing on the effect of supervised resistance training and combined supervised resistance and endurance training on CRF. Random-effect models were employed for calculating the standardized mean difference (SMD). Risk of bias was assessed with risk of bias 2 (RoB2), and certainty of evidence was judged according to the GRADE approach.

**Results** A total of 9 RCTs with 1512 participants were included, and data from 866 participants in 8 RCTs were used for the meta-analysis. The risk of bias was deemed low in seven studies, while one study exhibited attrition bias, and one showed possible selection bias. Resistance training probably reduce the total fatigue (SMD= −0.30, 95% CI −0.52, −0.08, p=0.008), with individual studies showing small effects on physical and emotional CRF. A combined resistance and endurance training reduce total fatigue (SMD=  $-0.34$ , 95% CI  $-0.51$ ,  $-0.17$ , p= 0.0001), with individual studies indicating moderate effects on physical fatigue, in daily life fatigue, and small effects on emotional and cognitive CRF.

**Conclusion** Both supervised resistance training and combined resistance and endurance training have a small effect on total CRF. There is a trend towards an influence of intensity, with higher intensity potentially resulting in lower total CRF.

**Keywords** Breast cancer · Cancer-related fatigue · Resistance training · Endurance training

# **Introduction**

In the year 2022, 2.3 million people worldwide were diagnosed with breast carcinoma [1, 2]. The prognosis varies based on the cancer stage at the time of diagnosis, with a recurrence incidence after 5 years of less than 3% for patients in stage I and between 37 and 47% for those in stage III [3]. Treatment guidelines recommend a combination of surgery, chemotherapy, radiation therapy, and systemic adjuvant therapy [4]. These various medical interventions are associated with a multitude of adverse effects [5, 6]. One particularly

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 $\boxtimes$  Jasmin Lange Jasmin.lange@edu.dhgs-hochschule.de burdensome side effect is cancer-related fatigue (CRF). CRF affects 56–95% patients with breast cancer during chemotherapy and is accompanied by impairments in daily life [7–9]. Moreover, CRF is characterized by excessive exhaustion unrelated to physical activity and disproportionate to prior efforts [10]. CRF combines physical symptoms with cognitive impairments, affecting concentration, attention, and daily motivation, while also encompassing emotional issues like exhaustion and mood swings [11, 12]. Forty percent of the patients continue to experience excessive fatigue after completion of therapy [8, 13]. The development of this side effect correlates with physical, psychological, social, cognitive, and behavioral factors [13]. Additionally, associations with physical activity have been identified, as well as links to mitochondrial dysfunction and dysregulation of the hypothalamus–pituitary–adrenal axis [8, 14–16].

Given these circumstances, the importance of physical activity during cancer treatment is increasingly emphasized.

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It could be demonstrated that higher levels of activity are associated with enhanced quality of life [17–20]. Resistance training, in particular, plays a significant role. It prevents the development or progression of sarcopenia [21] and triggers a transient change in sex hormones, insulin, inflammatory cytokines, and stress hormones [22]. Patients report on a personal level an improved subjective energy level and reduced stress [23]. Considering the current state of research, there is a clear endorsement of physical activity and training during chemotherapy, radiation therapy and even in cancer-survivorship [19, 20, 24]. This review focuses on chemotherapy, due to the extensive systematic side effects, especially on the muscular level  $[21]$ , and the high prevalence rates of CRF. Patients undergoing chemotherapy often tend to reduce their physical activity, leading to a loss of muscle strength and alterations in the cross-sectional area of type I muscle fibers [15, 21]. Additionally, patients treated with anthracyclines exhibit lower strength and increased muscular fatigue, attributed to the mode of action causing muscle atrophy, a lower number of satellite cells, and a reduction in motor innervation  $[21, 25]$ . In the Cochrane review by Cramp and Byron-Daniel, while a reduction in fatigue was observed with aerobic training before and after cancer treatment, no clear statements regarding resistance training and its dosage were provided at that time [24]. A closer examination reveals that most studies on CRF interventions are conducted after the completion of medical treatment, despite the high prevalence during chemotherapy administration [7, 8, 14, 15, 26]. The aim of this work is to investigate the impact of resistance training and the combination of resistance and endurance training on the development or manifestation of CRF when the intervention is implemented during chemotherapy in breast cancer patients.

# **Methods**

The execution and reporting of this systematic review adhere to the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) Protocol [27] and was registered in Prospero under the ID CRD42023444998.

## **Eligibility criteria**

Randomized controlled trials (RCTs) investigating the impact of resistance training or combined resistance and endurance training on cancer-related fatigue (CRF) in breast cancer patients during chemotherapy are included. The study includes participants aged 18 to 85 undergoing neoadjuvant or adjuvant chemotherapy for breast cancer, across all stages, including metastases. Participants should have no contraindications for resistance training or the comparison intervention and must be physically and cognitively capable of following the supervising therapist. The intervention involves (a) supervised resistance training or (b) the combination of supervised resistance training and endurance training, with results compared with a control group. Exclusion criteria encompass participants under 18 or over 85 years, breast cancer survivors, other treatments (e.g., radiation or anti-hormone therapy, or combined chemotherapy and radiation), and any other cancer types (e.g., lung or colon cancer). Additionally, any intervention not involving supervised resistance training or the combination of resistance training with endurance training leads to exclusion. Non-RCT study formats and supervised endurance training only are excluded, as a meta-analysis by Medeiros Torres et al. has already covered the latter during chemotherapy [28]. All individual studies had received approval from their local ethics committees.

## **Search strategy**

This systematic review includes studies published from 1994 until September 19, 2024. Systematic searches were conducted in PubMed/Medline, SPORTDiscus/EBSCO, Embase, and Cochrane databases until September 2024. No language limitations were applied. Reference lists of identified systematic reviews and meta-analyses were also examined for relevant RCTs [28, 40]. The search included all published studies from the inception of the database up until September 19, 2024.

## **Selection process**

Two authors (OK, JL) independently conducted data searches and article selection according to inclusion criteria. Screening of titles was followed by abstract screening, removing irrelevant articles and duplicates. The authors then read the full text of pre-selected studies to assess whether inclusion criteria were met. Data from included studies were recorded in a spreadsheet. OK and JL independently extracted data from the included studies, and conflicts not attributable to extraction errors were resolved by KB.

## **Data extraction and analysis**

During data collection, factors such as intervention groups, control groups, population characteristics divided in potential demographic moderators (including age, marital status) and potential clinical moderators (including weight or body mass index (BMI) and cancer stages), intervention factors (e.g., duration and intensity of the intervention), and fatigue scoring before and after the intervention were analyzed. Extracted information was used to create tables detailing the features of included studies and changes in CRF during interventions.

## **Statistical analysis**

For statistical analysis, data on CRF development for both intervention and control groups were extracted as the final mean at the end of the intervention, along with the corresponding standard deviation and the number of participants in each group. Studies not reporting data for the end of the intervention were not included in the meta-analysis, but individual values were reported narratively. The meta-analysis was performed using the RevMan Web program (The Cochrane Collaboration, 2022) [29]. The random effects model was utilized to calculate the standardized mean difference and the corresponding confidence interval, set at 95% CI. A significance level of  $p < 0.05$  indicates a statistically significant difference. Heterogeneity was assessed using  $I^2$ , following Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews categories, where  $I^2$  values of 0%, 25%, 50%, and 75% represent no, low, moderate, and high heterogeneity, respectively. Results were pooled using the standardized mean difference (SMD) with a 95% confidence interval. An SMD of 0.2 represents a low effect, while an SMD of 0.5 indicates a moderate effect, and an SMD > 0.8 is considered large. If no effect size is reported in individual studies, the effect size is calculated using Cohen's d from the available data. Cohen's d is assessed similarly to the standardized mean differences. Studies using the Functional Assessment of Chronic Illness Therapy-Fatigue (FACIT-F) or the Functional Assessment of Cancer Therapy-Anemia (FACT-An) for assessment converted values to negative, as their scoring is inverse to the scoring of other assessments, where higher values indicate lower CRF.

## **Quality assessment**

Methodological quality assessment is conducted using GRADE (Grading and Recommendations, Assessment, Development, and Evaluation). The following areas are evaluated: risk of bias (via RoB 2), indirectness, inconsistency, imprecision, reporting bias, effect size, dose–response relationship, and direction of residual confounding. Possible assessments include "very low," "low," "moderate," and "high."

## **Results**

## **Study selection**

The search resulted in a total of 769 articles across the specified databases. After removing duplicates, 388 studies remained for screening, where titles and abstracts were examined based on the defined inclusion and exclusion criteria. This led to the exclusion of 365 studies (see Fig. 1). After full-text screening, 9 RCTs were included in this systematic review [30–38] conducted in Canada (2007, 2013) [30, 31], Germany (2015, 2024) [32, 33, 37], Portugal [38], the Netherlands (2015) [34, 35], and Sweden (2018) [36]. All interventions were supervised.

## **Study characteristics**

Overall, the review encompasses results from 1512 patients with an average age range of 49 to 56 years [30–38]. All studies assessed CRF values before, during and after ongoing chemotherapy. The meta-analysis includes data from 866 participants across 8 studies, as only the participants from the resistance training and control groups were included, reducing the total number of participants to 866 [30, 32–38]. Three studies also assessed fatigue levels after the end of chemotherapy [31, 35, 38]. The intervention periods ranged from 12 to 20 weeks [30, 32–34, 36, 37] or, in two studies, extended beyond the last chemotherapy cycle [31, 35].

Four studies examined resistance training [30, 32, 33, 37] compared with control groups, and five studies combined resistance training with endurance training [31, 34–36, 38]. Two studies implemented training education [35, 36]. Control groups received standard care [30, 33–35, 37, 38] or a combination of standard care with education [36]. One study used moderate endurance training as a control intervention [31]. Another study compared the effect of resistance training with muscle relaxation according to Jacobsen [32]. The characteristics of each study are presented in Table 1.

## **Outcome measurements**

Different assessments were utilized in the included studies to analyze CRF. One study used the Fatigue Assessment Questionnaire [32]. The Multidimensional Fatigue Inventory (MFI) was used by three studies [33–35]. Two of the three author groups additionally used the Fatigue Quality List in conjunction with MFI [34, 35]. The remaining studies analyzed fatigue using the Functional Assessment of Cancer Therapy-Anemia Scale [30], Piper Fatigue Scale [36], Functional Assessment of Cancer Therapy, the European Organisation for Research and Treatment of Cancer Quality of Life Questionnaire-Core 30 [37, 38], and the Trial Outcome Index-Fatigue [31]. Due to the diverse assessment methods, different fatigue values and domains are presented in the randomized studies. The authors captured values for total fatigue, physical fatigue, emotional/affective fatigue, and cognitive fatigue for this systematic review, as depicted in Tables 2 and 3. Due to the varied assessment methods, effect sizes are compared.

## **Fig. 1** Flowchart



## **Comparison of interventions**

All studies differ in the dosage of resistance and endurance training (see Table 4). For example, Mijwel et al. employed higher-dose resistance training (70–80% of estimated one-repetition maximum (1 RM)) combined with  $3 \times 3$  min high-intensity interval training (HIIT) at a rate of perceived exertion of 16–18 [36]. In contrast, Travier et al. used an intensity range of 45–75% of 1 RM combined with interval training changing in intensity below the ventilatory threshold [34]. Van Waart et al. implemented resistance training with  $2 \times 8$  repetitions at 80% of 1 RM and 30 min of endurance training at 50–80% of maximum workload [35]. Courneya et al. dosed their combined resistance and endurance training with 2 sets aerobic endurance training per week [31]. The intensity of endurance training was not specified in this study [31]. In contrast to the others, Antunes et al. used the 12 repetition maximum for 3 sets in combination of an aerobic endurance training on 65 to 85% heart rate reserve [38]. In summary, two strategies were selected in the described studies [31, 34–36, 38]. On one hand, endurance training was conducted according to the HIIT (high-intensity interval training) principle with higher subjective exertion [36]. On the other hand, training at the aerobic threshold was chosen [31, 34, 35, 38]. Even in studies where resistance training alone was performed, the intensities varied, but they all fell within the hypertrophy and strength gain range [30, 32, 33]. Schmidt et al. conducted resistance training

of 10–12 repetitions at 60–75% of 1 RM and 75 min of









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with 3 sets of  $8-12$  repetitions at  $60-80\%$  of 1 RM  $[32]$ . Schmidt, Weisser et al. investigated the intervention with a load of 10 exercises, each with 20 repetitions at 50% of hypothetical 1 RM [33]. Courneya et al. dosed their resistance training with 2 sets of 8–12 repetitions at 60–70% of estimated 1 RM [31], and Gerland et al. used an intensity of one set of 10 to 15 reps followed by 2 sets of 8–12 reps at 70 to 80% h1RM [37].

# **Comparison of effect sizes**

Overall, six studies reported effect sizes for the conducted interventions [30–32, 34–36]. One study only presents outcome numbers of the Multidimensional Fatigue Inventory (MFI) preand post-testing [31]. Another study presented only the posttest results of the EORTC QLQ-C30 without any effect size [37, 38]. Regarding the comparison of effect sizes, the included studies were divided into two groups: the first analysis group comprises studies with resistance training as the conducted intervention [30, 32, 33, 37], and the second analysis group includes all randomized studies that conducted a combination of resistance and endurance training [31, 34–36, 38].

## **Effects of resistance training**

In total, four out of the nine studies implemented resistance training [30, 32, 33, 37], of which three studies determined the adjusted mean change for total fatigue [30, 32, 37], and one study assessed physical, emotional/affective, and cognitive fatigue [32]. While one study achieved a small effect  $(ES = 0.45)$  regarding total fatigue  $[32]$ , the effect of the second study was very small  $(ES = 0.12)$  [30]. The third study did not report any effect size [37]. In the intergroup comparison, the three studies did not show significant differences. Combining the effect sizes for total fatigue results in an overall effect of  $ES = -0.30$  (95% CI − 0.52 to − 0.08) (see Fig. 2). Examining the individual effect of resistance training on physical fatigue revealed a significant difference  $(p=0.05)$  between the intervention group and the control group, with a small effect on physical fatigue  $(ES = 0.45)$ . However, very small effects  $(ES = 0.3 \text{ and } ES = 0.08)$  and no statistical significance  $(p=0.41$  and  $p > 0.99$ ) were reported for emotional/affective fatigue and cognitive fatigue, respectively [32] (see Table 2). Due to insufficient data, no metaanalysis was conducted for these domains.

# **Effects of combined resistance and endurance training**

In total, five studies implemented a combined intervention of resistance and endurance training [31, 34–36, 38]. Each of the five studies investigated total fatigue, while

training; *ET*, endurance training; *UC*, usual care; *HRR*, heart rate reserve



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*Reps*, repetitions; *h1RM*, hypothetical one repetition maximum; *min*, minutes; *HIIT*, high-intensity interval training; *RPE*, rate of perceived exertion; *RT*, resistance training; *AT*, aerobic training; *VO2peak*, peak oxygen uptake

three studies additionally examined physical and cognitive fatigue [31, 34–36, 38]. Furthermore, one of the five included studies analyzed daily life or behavior-related and emotional/affective fatigue [36]. Regarding total fatigue, one study only provides baseline values before the intervention, making it impossible to calculate effect size and therefore could not be included in the meta-analysis [31]. Combining the effects for total fatigue yields an effect size of  $ES = -0.34$  (95% CI – 0.51 to – 0.17) (see Fig. 3). Comparing the effect sizes of the combined resistance and endurance training interventions of the other three studies with control groups reveals an effect size range from ES =  $-0.23$  [34] to ES =  $-0.51$  [36].

**Table 4** Intervention characteristics

Two studies analyzed the effect of combined resistance and endurance training on physical fatigue [35, 36] (see Table 3). Statistically significant changes were achieved with small (ES =  $-0.48$ ; *p* = 0.03) to moderate effects (ES = 0.63, *p* < 0.001) [35, 36]. Regarding daily life-related or behaviorrelated fatigue, a moderate effect with  $ES = -0.62$  ( $p < 0.01$ ) was achieved. When considering emotional/affective fatigue, the effect was lower ( $ES = -0.46$ ;  $p = 0.07$ ), as was the effect on cognitive fatigue (ES =  $-0.42$ ;  $p = 0.05$  and ES = 0.1;  $p=0.44$ ) [34, 35] (see Table 3). Due to the limited amount of data and studies investigating physical, emotional, and cognitive fatigue, no meta-analysis was conducted for these subgroups.

## **Side effects of the intervention**

Four studies reported no unwanted effects during training [31, 32, 35, 36]. In four studies, no information regarding unwanted side effects could be extracted [33, 34, 37, 38]. In Courneya et al.'s study, participants reported various side effects, including dizziness, hypotension, nausea, weakness, and mild diarrhea, from which they quickly recovered [30]. They were all able to continue the study after the symptoms had subsided [30].

## **Certainty and risk of bias**

For the GRADE assessment, a total of nine studies were included, divided into a resistance training group [30, 32, 33, 37] and a combined resistance and endurance training group [31, 34–36, 38]. Limitations were imposed due to a wide confidence interval and a low to moderate participant count (see Table 5). The risk of bias was not considered severe. Due to the nature of training interventions, blinding of participants or intervention-conducting personnel is not possible. In seven



#### **Risk of bias legend**

(A) Random sequence generation (selection bias)

(B) Allocation concealment (selection bias)

(C) Blinding of participants and personnel (performance bias)

(D) Incomplete outcome data (attrition bias)

(E) Selective reporting (reporting bias)

(F) Other bias

**Fig. 2** Effects of resistance training on total fatigue

out of nine studies, an intention-to-treat analysis was planned despite a high dropout rate  $[30-32, 34-36, 38]$ , with two studies lacking this information [33, 37]. Due to the conducted education in two studies, a potential educational bias can be suspected, which could bias the results in a positive direction [35, 36]. Overall, the certainty was judged as low.

# **Discussion**

Our meta-analysis of 8 included studies, comprising a total of 866 breast cancer patients, revealed a low effect on the development and severity of overall cancer-related fatigue (CRF) compared with control groups. Importantly, there seems to be little difference between supervised resistance training and supervised combined resistance and endurance training. These findings align with results from other systematic reviews and meta-analyses. For instance, the systematic review by van Vulpen et al. in 2016, which analyzed the effects of resistance training and/or endurance training similar to our review, showed a significant low effect size of SMD =  $-0.22$  (95% CI,  $-0.38$  to  $-0.05$ ) [39]. Their review included 5 clinical studies with 784 participants [39]. Similarly, Furmaniak et al. achieved a comparable outcome in their review in 2016, encompassing 19 studies with 1698 women performing resistance and/or endurance training, calculating an effect size of  $ES = -0.28$  (95% CI,  $-0.41$ ) to − 0.16; *p* < 0.00001) [40]. On the contrary, Medeiros Torres et al. demonstrated in their systematic review in 2022 a slightly higher effect for supervised resistance training



#### **Risk of bias legend**

(A) Random sequence generation (selection bias)

(B) Allocation concealment (selection bias)

(C) Blinding of participants and personnel (performance bias)

(D) Incomplete outcome data (attrition bias)

(E) Selective reporting (reporting bias)

(F) Other bias

**Fig. 3** Effects of combined resistance and endurance training on total fatigue



**Table 5** 

 $(SMD = -0.30, 95\% \text{ CI} - 0.46 \text{ to } -0.15, p = 0.000)$  and a much larger effect for combined resistance and endurance training (SMD =  $-1.13$ , 95% CI  $-2.09$  to  $-0.17$ ,  $p = 0.021$ ) on fatigue [28]. It is noteworthy that Medeiros Torres et al. included both chemotherapy and radiation therapy in the analysis of supervised resistance training and combined the effect of resistance and endurance training with mind–body exercises. Consequently, their meta-analysis comprises a larger number of included studies  $(n=20)$  and participants  $(n=1793)$  [28], differing from our meta-analysis, where we focused on supervised resistance training or the combination of supervised resistance and endurance training during chemotherapy, resulting in a more homogeneous number of participants and studies. The presented effects primarily pertain to total fatigue, as the limited available data did not allow for a meta-analysis regarding physical, emotional, cognitive, or daily life-related fatigue. However, upon examining the effects of individual studies, supervised combined resistance and endurance training seems to outperform supervised resistance training alone. The intervention group in the study by van Waart et al. exhibited a lower increase in fatigue with a moderate effect  $(ES = -0.63, p < 0.001)$ on physical fatigue [35]. Mijwel et al. also demonstrated a modest effect  $(ES = -0.42, p = 0.05)$  on cognitive fatigue [36]. The intensity of training appears to play a crucial role in the manifestation of symptoms, as highlighted by several studies. In the randomized controlled trial (RCT) by Travier et al., the data analysis revealed a comparatively lower effect, likely due to the lower intensity of the intervention applied [34]. This resulted in a modest reduction in physical fatigue (effect size  $[ES] = 0.3$ ) and no significant effect on cognitive fatigue ( $ES = 0.01$ ) [34]. In contrast, van Waart et al. and Mijwel et al. employed higher-intensity training regimens in their interventions, which demonstrated more substantial improvements in fatigue outcomes [35, 36]. This supports the notion that higher training intensity may lead to more pronounced benefits, as further evidenced by the RCT conducted by Demmelmaier et al., where participants experienced reduced physical fatigue with increased training intensity during (neo-)adjuvant therapies [41]. When comparing resistance training alone to a combination of resistance and endurance training during chemotherapy, no significant differences were found. However, combining both types of training seems to mitigate cancer-related fatigue (CRF) more effectively, addressing multiple contributing factors and resulting in a milder manifestation of symptoms.

The strength of our meta-analysis lies in the rigorous inclusion and exclusion criteria, enabling the isolated analysis of the effects of resistance training or combined resistance and endurance training during chemotherapy. Previous analyses pooled effects for both chemotherapy and radiation simultaneously. However, we showed that during chemotherapy, whether solely resistance training or a combination

of resistance and endurance training is performed, it appears to yield similar effects. Our strict inclusion and exclusion criteria facilitated the calculation of very high homogeneity  $(I^2 = 1\%$  and  $I^2 = 0\%$ ), allowing for a robust extrapolation of the results to other breast cancer patients undergoing chemotherapy. Furthermore, we conducted initial comparisons regarding intensity, suggesting that higher or more intense resistance training, as well as high-intensity interval training (HIIT), might have a stronger effect on milder CRF manifestation. Possible differences may arise due to the varying mechanisms of action of training at different intensities. It is assumed that HIIT (high-intensity interval training) exerts anti-inflammatory effects through the downward regulation of pro-inflammatory cytokines and the upward regulation of anti-inflammatory mediators [42]. Resistance training builds muscle strength, helping cancer patients regain lost muscle mass and strength due to treatment (e.g., chemotherapy, radiation), which often contributes to fatigue [21, 25]. Given the close alignment of the effect of resistance training and combined resistance training and endurance training facilitates shared decision-making for the patient [43], enabling an active role in therapy, leading to improved treatment adherence, higher patient satisfaction, and a better understanding of the disease and treatment [44–48]. In contrast to other meta-analyses, our analysis exhibits very high homogeneity both in the analysis of resistance training and in the analysis of combined resistance and endurance training, enhancing reproducibility for patients with breast cancer.

A significant limitation is the smaller number of included studies and participants due to highly restrictive inclusion criteria. While high homogeneity proves to be an advantage, it also limits the generalizability of our systematic review's findings to other cancer entities or other treatments. Consequently, our results cannot be extrapolated to other cancer conditions. A separate meta-analysis would be necessary for such an extension. Another weakness is the large 95% CI implying low certainty. The interpretability of the conducted meta-analyses is correspondingly limited, indicating a favorable trend of training interventions during chemotherapy, both in the form of resistance training and combined resistance and endurance training. To make more precise conclusions, additional data need to be collected, analyzed, and published.

# **Conclusion**

Both resistance training and combined resistance and endurance training can positively impact the development of CRF. We also observed a tentative influence of training intensity, suggesting that higher intensity might have a more positive effect in terms of milder CRF manifestation. More high-quality RCT are needed.

## **Consent for publication**

Not applicable.

**Author contribution** JL conceived the idea for this article and was one of the independent reviewers through all the stages of this systematic review.

OK and KB served as the third independent reviewer, resolving discrepancies not attributable to extraction errors, and, together with JL, conducted the methodological assessment of the included studies and critically revised the article.

All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

**Data availability** The datasets and materials used and/or analyzed during the current study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

## **Declarations**

**Consent to participate** Not applicable.

**Competing interest** The authors declare no competing interests.

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