

1 **Association of muscle strength and cardiorespiratory fitness with all-cause and cancer-specific**
2 **mortality in patients diagnosed with cancer: a systematic review with meta-analysis**

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28 **Abstract**

29 *Objectives:* To examine the association between muscle strength and cardiorespiratory fitness (CRF)
30 with all-cause and cancer-specific mortality in patients diagnosed with cancer, and if these associations
31 are affected by type and/or stage of cancer.

32 *Design:* Systematic review with meta-analysis.

33 *Data source:* Five bibliographic databases were searched to August 2023.

34 *Results:* Forty-two studies were included ($n = 46,694$). Overall, cancer patients with high muscle
35 strength or CRF levels (when dichotomised as high vs. low) presented a significant reduction in risk of
36 all-cause mortality by 31 to 46% compared to those with low physical fitness levels. Similarly, a
37 significant 11% reduction was found for change per unit increments in muscle strength. In addition,
38 muscle strength and CRF were associated with a 8 to 46% reduced risk of all-cause mortality in patients
39 with advanced cancer stages, and a 19 to 41% reduced risk of all-cause mortality was observed in lung
40 and digestive cancers. Lastly, unit increments in CRF were associated with a significant 18% reduced
41 risk of cancer-specific mortality.

42 *Conclusion:* High muscle strength and CRF were significantly associated with lower all-cause mortality
43 risk. In addition, increases in CRF were associated with a reduced risk in cancer-specific mortality.
44 These fitness components were especially predictive in patients with advanced cancer stages as well
45 as in lung and digestive cancers. This highlights the importance of assessing fitness measures for
46 predicting mortality in cancer patients. Given these findings, tailored exercise prescriptions to improve
47 muscle strength and CRF in patients with cancer may contribute to reducing cancer-related mortality.

48 **Keywords:** Muscle strength, cardiorespiratory fitness, mortality, survival, cancer

49 **What is already known**

- 50 - Many systematic reviews have examined the association between muscle strength and/or
51 cardiorespiratory fitness (CRF) and the risk of all-cause cancer mortality in apparently healthy
52 individuals. These reviews followed participants prospectively from baseline to cancer
53 diagnosis and death to evaluate the association. To date, there is no available research
54 investigating whether these physical fitness components are associated with a lower risk of
55 mortality in individuals who have been diagnosed with cancer. Additionally, the associations
56 between these components and cancer-specific mortality remain to be determined.

57 **What are the new findings**

- 58 - This review identified 42 prospective observational cohort studies, including 47,000 patients
59 with any form of cancer and stage, examining muscle strength and CRF.
- 60 - Cancer patients diagnosed with any form of cancer and stage with high muscle strength or
61 cardiorespiratory fitness levels presented a significant reduction of the risk of all-cause
62 mortality compared to those with low physical fitness levels. In addition, physical fitness
63 components were significant predictors of all-cause mortality in patients with advanced
64 cancer stages as well as in lung and digestive cancers.
- 65 - Increments in cardiorespiratory fitness were associated with a significant reduced risk of
66 cancer-specific mortality.
- 67 - Gaps in the current literature includes the limited evidence available for cancer-specific
68 mortality and for certain forms of cancer (e.g., brain).

69 **1. Introduction**

70 Cancer is a major global health challenge, contributing significantly to both morbidity and mortality
71 [1]. In 2022, there were 20 million new cases and 9.7 million cancer deaths worldwide, with a trend
72 expected to increase in the coming decades [1]. Progress in cancer prevention, diagnosis and
73 treatment have reduced overall mortality rates, however side-effects of cancer treatments (e.g.,
74 cardiotoxicity and muscle loss), presence of comorbidities (e.g., cardiovascular diseases [CVD]),
75 increases in body fatness, and lack of physical activity, are thought to contribute to mortality in patients
76 with cancer [2-4].

77 To determine the risk of mortality, measures of physical fitness have been widely investigated in
78 different clinical populations, including cancer [5-7]. Indeed, muscle strength and cardiorespiratory
79 fitness (CRF) are two of the most studied components of physical fitness due to their strong association
80 with CVD and all-cause cancer mortality [8, 9], and therefore, widely used for observational
81 prospective studies [10, 11]. When considering assessments for muscle strength, several assessment
82 modes have been employed. The most commonly used are the handgrip strength (HGS) and knee
83 extension tests, which are both time- and cost-effective, provide estimates of overall muscle strength,
84 and strong predictive values for mortality [12], making these ideal for large-scale epidemiological
85 research. Other studies have also utilised assessment modes such as isokinetic dynamometry, which
86 can provide quantification of muscle strength over the entire range of motion at a set velocity, although
87 this requires specialized equipment, and therefore, is less used in cohort studies [13]. For CRF, both
88 maximal and submaximal tests have been utilized. These include the cardiopulmonary exercise test
89 (CPET), which is considered the gold standard, offering a direct measure of maximal oxygen uptake
90 (VO₂max) and also a robust indicator of CRF and mortality risk [8]. Similarly, submaximal tests such as
91 the 6-minute walking test (6MWT) have also been widely employed and provide valuable insights of
92 CRF, especially for those with lower fitness levels initially [14]. This test is suitable because it is easier
93 to administer and is indicated in populations where maximal testing may not be feasible.

94 When examining physical fitness and mortality risk, higher muscle strength has been associated with
95 a significant reduction in the risk of all-cause mortality in healthy adults by 21%, CVD mortality by 15%,
96 and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) mortality by 27% [5, 10, 15]. When cancer is
97 considered, Garcia-Hermoso et al. [12] found a very low (i.e., 2-3%), and barely significant, association
98 between muscle strength and cancer mortality. However, it should be noted that muscle strength
99 assessment was performed before the diagnosis of cancer in healthy subjects who were followed
100 prospectively over time. Subsequently, Ezzatvar et al. [16] observed in patients with cancer that higher
101 muscle strength levels were significantly associated with a 39% lower risk of all-cause mortality. In

102 addition, they found that a 5 kilogram (kg) increase in muscle strength was significantly correlated with
103 a lower risk of all-cause mortality by 15%. Of note though, the study included only older cancer
104 patients (i.e., > 60 years of age), limiting the translation of these findings to other age ranges.

105 In line with the findings observed in muscle strength, higher CRF levels have been shown to be
106 correlated with a significant lower risk of all-cause, CVD, as well as COPD mortality by 42%, 56% and
107 62%, respectively, in healthy adults [17, 18]. When investigating the relationship between CRF and risk
108 of cancer death, Schmid et al. [9] found that the risk of mortality was significantly reduced in healthy
109 individuals with higher CRF. Subsequently, and to the best of our knowledge, only one systematic
110 review has examined the relationship between CRF and cancer mortality in adult patients already
111 diagnosed with cancer [19]. The authors observed a significant 48% reduced risk of all-cause mortality
112 when comparing patients with higher vs. lower CRF. Furthermore, they also found a significant 18%
113 decrease in all-cause mortality risk per 1-metabolic equivalent (MET) increment. However, it should
114 be acknowledged that some limitations including population (e.g., childhood cancer) and data analysis
115 were noted which, in turn, may have limited the interpretation of the results.

116 Therefore, it remains unknown whether higher muscle strength and CRF are associated with lower risk
117 of mortality in patients already diagnosed with cancer. Furthermore, considering the lack of studies
118 investigating cancer-specific mortality, it has still to be determined the association between physical
119 fitness components and death caused by cancer. Indeed, previous systematic reviews that have
120 explored the association between muscle strength and/or CRF with all-cause cancer mortality [15, 20,
121 21] were conducted in apparently healthy individuals before the diagnosis of cancer. In fact, such
122 studies followed prospectively individuals to cancer diagnosis and death to estimate the risk of cancer
123 mortality. As a result, we undertook the first meta-analysis to investigate the association between
124 physical fitness components measured after cancer diagnosis with all-cause and cancer-specific
125 mortality. Moreover, no studies have investigated the association between muscle and/or CRF and
126 mortality in different cancer types (e.g., breast, lung, prostate, etc.) or stages (e.g., early-stage vs.
127 advanced). This is of utmost relevance when considering the increased risk of mortality in advanced
128 cancer stages [22]. Consequently, exploring the association between physical fitness, cancer stage and
129 mortality may help to inform how exercise interventions are conducted to mitigate the risk of mortality
130 at different stages. Thus, the aims of this systematic review with meta-analysis were two-fold: 1) to
131 examine the association between muscle strength and CRF with all-cause and cancer-specific mortality
132 in adults already diagnosed with any form of cancer; 2) to determine whether the association of
133 muscle strength and CRF with all-cause and cancer-specific mortality were affected by type and/or
134 stage of cancer.

135

136 **2. Methods**

137 All procedures undertaken in the present study were conducted in compliance with the guidelines
138 outlined by the Cochrane Back Review Group [23], adhering to the reporting standards established in
139 the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses statement (PRISMA) [24, 25],
140 and registered with the International Prospective Register of Systematic Reviews (PROSPERO:
141 CRD42023448143).

142 ***2.1. Search strategy and study selection procedure***

143 A systematic search was conducted in PubMed, CINAHL, SPORTDiscus, Web of Science, and Embase
144 from inception to August 1st, 2023. The search strategy is presented in the supplementary materials.
145 In addition, a manual search of references in all retrieved studies was undertaken to detect potentially
146 eligible articles for inclusion. During the screening phase, titles and abstracts were first independently
147 evaluated following the eligibility criteria for population and study design. Eligibility was independently
148 and separately assessed by two authors (selected from FB, VN, UC, and EV), with disagreement
149 resolved by a third author (FB). When abstracts did not provide sufficient information, they were
150 selected for full-text evaluation. Full-text articles meeting criteria were retrieved and read
151 independently by the reviewers and assessed for study inclusion.

152 ***2.2. Eligibility criteria***

153 For the current review, we included prospective observational cohort studies assessing the association
154 between muscle strength and/or CRF with mortality in patients with cancer. Primary outcomes were
155 all-cause and cancer-specific mortality, defined as time between assessment and death for any cause
156 (i.e., all-cause mortality) or for cancer (i.e., cancer-specific mortality), including any duration of the
157 follow-up. The inclusion criteria were: (a) adult patients (i.e., ≥ 18 years of age) diagnosed with any
158 type of cancer; (b) prospective studies assessing any form of muscle strength and/or CRF; and (c)
159 studies investigating all-cause and cancer-specific mortality. Exclusion criteria were: (a) studies not
160 reporting data regarding the variables of interest; (b) studies reporting data as odds ratio; and (c)
161 studies written in a language other than English. Regarding physical fitness components, we included
162 studies using: a) cut-off value approach to categorize participants into two distinct groups based on
163 the variable of interest (patients categorized as either having high or low muscle strength or CRF based
164 on a predefined cut-off point, e.g., muscle strength > 19.1 kg vs. those with muscle strength < 19 kg),
165 allowing us to compare outcomes between these two groups (i.e., high vs. low); and b) changes per
166 unit increment approach to measure the variable of interest based on the change in muscle strength

167 or CRF, without categorizing into distinct groups (e.g., we examined how each unit increment in
168 physical fitness such as per 1-MET increment was associated with mortality).

169 **2.3. Data extraction**

170 Data extraction was independently and separately performed by two authors (selected from VN, LM,
171 GQ, and EB), with disagreement resolved by a third author (FB). Study information, including sample
172 size, age, BMI, cancer type, stage and treatment, study design, follow-up, physical fitness measured
173 (i.e., muscle strength and/or CRF), method of assessment, and cut-off values were collected along with
174 the outcomes of interest (i.e., all-cause and cancer-specific mortality). Hazard ratio (HR) for all-cause
175 and cancer-specific mortality with their associated dispersion values such as 95% confidence intervals
176 (CI) or standard errors (SE) from univariable and multivariable analyses, when available, and the
177 number of covariates included in the multivariable models were extracted. Authors were contacted in
178 case of missing data and, if no response was received, the respective studies were excluded from the
179 analysis to ensure data integrity.

180 **2.4. Study quality assessment**

181 The quality of the study was assessed using the Newcastle-Ottawa Quality Assessment Scale (NOS) for
182 cohort studies [26]. The NOS evaluates studies based on three criteria: selection of cohort groups,
183 comparability of cohorts, and the ascertainment of outcome of interest. The NOS assigns a star rating
184 in each domain, with a maximum of nine stars indicating the highest quality [26]. The study quality
185 assessment for all included studies was independently and separately performed by two authors (VN
186 and GQ) with disagreements resolved by a third author (FB), if required.

187 **2.5. Statistical analysis**

188 The extracted HR from univariable and multivariable models on the association of muscle strength and
189 CRF with all-cause and cancer-specific mortality were log-transformed as well as their 95% CI to be
190 included in a random-effects model with inverse variance weighting. For cut-off analyses, muscle
191 strength and CRF were dichotomized using predefined cut-off points reported in the original studies
192 (e.g., muscle strength > 19.1 kg vs. < 19.0 kg, or CRF > 16.1 mL/kg/min vs. < 16.0 mL/kg/min). When
193 data were stratified into tertiles or quartiles, the lowest and highest stratification levels were
194 considered for analyses. In addition, for changes per unit increment analyses, we examined studies
195 reporting changes in muscle strength or CRF per unit increment (e.g., per 1-MET increase in CRF or kg
196 increase in muscle strength). A p -value ≤ 0.05 was considered statistically significant. Heterogeneity
197 between studies was assessed by using the I^2 statistic and the p value from χ^2 -based Cochran's Q test.
198 High heterogeneity was defined by a threshold p -value of 0.1 or I^2 values greater than 50%. Outliers

199 were examined using sensitivity analysis by omitting one study at a time (leave-one-out method). To
200 check for publication bias, contour-enhanced funnel plots of log HR against its SE were generated and
201 explored using Egger's regression asymmetry test when more than 10 studies were available [27].
202 Subgroup analyses, when available, were provided for: 1) cancer stage, classified as proportion of early
203 (i.e., stage 0 to 2) vs. advanced cancer (i.e., stage 3 to 4); 2) cancer type, classified as a single cancer
204 type (e.g., lung) or group of cancers in the same system (i.e., digestive) [28, 29]. Analyses were
205 conducted using the Review Manager (RevMan) software from the Cochrane Collaboration (version
206 5.4, Copenhagen: The Nordic Cochrane Centre) and the package 'metafor' from R (R Core Team, 2020)
207 [30].

208 **2.6. Equity, diversity and inclusion statement**

209 Our research team was diverse in terms of gender and included researchers at various career stages.
210 We stratified our results by cancer stage and type, which helped us recognize the need for greater
211 diversity in this area of research. This stratification also enabled us to discuss the overall
212 generalizability of our findings.

213

214 **3. Results**

215 A total of 2702 studies were retrieved from our search, with 1903 potential records retained for
216 screening after duplicate removals. After excluding 1721 records due to their irrelevance to the
217 research question, 182 were considered eligible for full-text assessment (Figure 1). A total of 42 articles
218 investigating muscle strength and/or CRF on all-cause and cancer-specific mortality in adult patients
219 with cancer were subsequently included in the meta-analyses [31-72].

220 *****Figure 1*****

221 **3.1. Participants and intervention characteristics**

222 A total of 46,694 adult patients with cancer participated in the included studies; median age was 64
223 years (interquartile range [IQR]: 58.8, 70.5 years) and median BMI was 24.8 kg/m² (IQR: 22.7, 26.6
224 kg/m²). From the 42 studies, 26 were on multiple cancer types, nine related to lung cancer, two related
225 to gastric cancer, and one each on pancreatic, breast, glioma, colon, and bladder cancer. Regarding
226 physical fitness assessment, muscle strength was measured in 24 studies, whilst CRF in 16 studies, and
227 only two studies examined both (Supplementary Table 1). Thirty-five studies adopted cut-off values,
228 measuring high vs. low levels of muscle strength and/or CRF, whilst 12 studies examined changes as
229 per unit increment. Overall, all-cause mortality was investigated in all studies, both all-cause and

230 cancer-specific mortality were assessed in two studies, and cancer-specific mortality only in one study
231 [31-72].

232 For muscle strength, all studies adopted the HGS test [31-33, 35, 36, 41-43, 46, 48-60, 62, 64, 69, 70].
233 Cut-off values (i.e., high vs. low) were used in 19 studies [31-33, 35, 36, 42, 43, 46, 51-60, 62, 64, 69,
234 70], whilst analyses on changes per unit increment in muscle strength were used in seven studies [41,
235 42, 48-51, 54]. When examining cut-off values, low muscle strength was classified according to either:
236 kg from < 13 to < 25.1 kg in women and from < 19.87 to < 40.2 kg in men, HGS test used in the Fried
237 frailty phenotype index, age-dependent cut-offs, and percentile from $\leq 10^{\text{th}}$ to < 25th; whilst kg was
238 adopted for changes as per unit increment.

239 For CRF, 14 studies used the CPET [34, 37-40, 44, 45, 48, 61, 63, 65, 70, 72] and four utilized the 6MWT
240 [47, 66-68]. Cut-off values (i.e., high vs. low) were used in 13 studies [34, 37, 39, 40, 44, 47, 61, 63, 65-
241 68, 70, 72], whilst analyses on changes per unit increment in CRF were used in seven studies [34, 38,
242 39, 45, 48, 71, 72]. When analysing cut-off values from the CPET, low CRF was classified according to
243 either: peak oxygen uptake (VO₂peak) from < 13 to < 16 mL/kg/min, < 60 to < 80% VO₂peak, based on
244 a MET value, and minute ventilation (VE) to carbon dioxide output (VCO₂) VE/VCO₂ ≥ 31 ; whilst, low
245 CRF from cut-off values derived from the 6MWT were set according to distance, from < 358.5 to < 400
246 meters. Changes as per unit increment was measured according to VO₂peak, MET and distance
247 increments, respectively.

248 Regarding quality assessment, the median total score was seven out of nine in the NOS, with scores
249 ranging from four to nine points. The score of each study is shown in Supplementary Table 2.

250 **3.2. Muscle strength – All-cause mortality**

251 **3.2.1. Main model and subgroup analyses for cut-off values**

252 **Main model.** Twenty-two studies were undertaken for muscle strength on all-cause mortality (Figure
253 2) [31-33, 35, 36, 42, 43, 46, 51-60, 62, 64, 69, 70]. For the multivariable model, cancer patients with
254 high muscle strength levels had a significant 31% reduced risk of all-cause mortality (HR = 0.69; 95%CI
255 = 0.61 to 0.78; $p < 0.001$) compared to those with low muscle strength levels. Heterogeneity was $I^2 =$
256 67%, and no outliers were identified. Results were similar when data were derived from the
257 univariable model (HR = 0.58; 95%CI = 0.51 to 0.56; $p < 0.001$). No publication bias was observed ($t =$
258 -1.68 to -0.34; $p = 0.12$ to 0.74) (Supplementary Figure 7).

259 **Cancer stage.** Twenty-two studies were undertaken for muscle strength on all-cause mortality
260 (Supplementary Figure 1) [31-33, 35, 36, 42, 43, 46, 51-60, 62, 64, 69, 70]. For the multivariable model
261 in studies including a large proportion of patients with advanced cancer, those with high muscle

262 strength levels had a significant 23 to 46% reduced risk of all-cause mortality (50 to 75% of patients
 263 with advanced cancer: HR = 0.77; 95%CI = 0.71 to 0.84; $p < 0.001$; $I^2 = 26\%$ and $> 75\%$ of patients with
 264 advanced cancer: HR = 0.54; 95%CI = 0.38 to 0.75; $p < 0.001$; $I^2 = 78\%$) compared to those with low
 265 muscle strength levels, while a non-significant association was observed for studies involving a large
 266 proportion of patients with early-stage cancer ($< 50\%$ of patients with advanced cancer: HR = 0.67;
 267 95%CI = 0.41 to 1.09; $p = 0.11$; $I^2 = 37\%$). Results were similar for studies including a large proportion
 268 of patients with advanced cancer (50 to 75% of patients with advanced cancer: HR = 0.64; 95%CI =
 269 0.57 to 0.73; $p < 0.001$; $I^2 = 65\%$ and $> 75\%$ of patients with advanced cancer: HR = 0.50; 95%CI = 0.40
 270 to 0.64; $p < 0.001$; $I^2 = 83\%$), but not for early-stage cancer ($< 50\%$ of patients with advanced cancer:
 271 HR = 0.62; 95%CI = 0.50 to 0.77; $p < 0.001$; $I^2 = 0\%$) derived from the univariable model.

272 **Cancer type.** Seven studies were undertaken for muscle strength on all-cause mortality
 273 (Supplementary Figure 2) [31, 43, 53, 55-57, 62]. For the multivariable model in digestive cancer (i.e.,
 274 gastric [$n = 4$], colorectal [$n = 3$]), cancer patients with high muscle strength levels had a significant
 275 41% reduced risk of all-cause mortality (HR = 0.59; 95%CI = 0.38 to 0.94; $p = 0.03$; $I^2 = 0\%$) compared
 276 to those with low muscle strength levels. For lung cancer ($n = 3$), cancer patients with high muscle
 277 strength levels had a significant 19% reduced risk of all-cause mortality (HR = 0.81; 95%CI = 0.73 to
 278 0.90; $p < 0.001$; $I^2 = 0\%$) compared to those with low muscle strength levels. Results were similar when
 279 data were derived from the univariable model for digestive (HR = 0.62; 95%CI = 0.49 to 0.77; $p < 0.001$;
 280 $I^2 = 0\%$) and lung cancer (HR = 0.74; 95%CI = 0.67 to 0.81; $p < 0.001$; $I^2 = 0\%$).

281 *****Figure 2*****

282 **3.2.2. Main model and subgroup analyses for changes per unit increment**

283 **Main model.** Seven studies were undertaken for muscle strength on all-cause mortality (Figure 3) [41,
 284 42, 48-51, 54]. For the multivariable model, unit increments in muscle strength in cancer patients were
 285 associated with a significant 11% reduction in the risk of all-cause mortality (HR = 0.89; 95%CI = 0.82
 286 to 0.97; $p = 0.005$). Heterogeneity was $I^2 = 94\%$, and no outliers were identified. Results were similar
 287 when data were derived from the univariable model (HR = 0.94; 95%CI = 0.88 to 0.99; $p = 0.03$).

288 **Cancer stage.** Five studies were undertaken for muscle strength on all-cause mortality (Supplementary
 289 Figure 3) [41, 42, 49, 51, 54]. For the multivariable model in studies including a large proportion of
 290 patients with advanced cancer, unit increments in muscle strength were associated with a significant
 291 8 to 20% reduction in the risk of all-cause mortality (50 to 75% of patients with advanced cancer: HR
 292 = 0.80; 95%CI = 0.78 to 0.83; $p < 0.001$; $I^2 = 0\%$ and $> 75\%$ of patients with advanced cancer: HR = 0.92;
 293 95%CI = 0.87 to 0.98; $p = 0.009$; $I^2 = 85\%$). Results were similar for studies with 50 to 75% of patients
 294 with advanced cancer (HR = 0.90; 95%CI = 0.88 to 0.93; $p < 0.001$; $I^2 = 0\%$), but not for $> 75\%$ of patients

295 with advanced cancer derived from the univariable model (HR = 0.92; 95%CI = 0.81 to 1.05; $p = 0.21$;
296 $I^2 = 92\%$).

297 **Cancer type.** There was an insufficient number of studies to examine changes per unit increment in
298 muscle strength on all-cause mortality, when stratifying by cancer type.

299 *****Figure 3*****

300 **3.3. Cardiorespiratory fitness – All-cause mortality**

301 **3.3.1. Main model and subgroup analyses for cut-off values**

302 **Main model.** Thirteen studies were undertaken for CRF on all-cause mortality (Figure 4) [34, 37, 39,
303 40, 44, 47, 61, 63, 65-68, 70]. For the multivariable model, cancer patients with high CRF levels had a
304 significant 46% reduced risk of all-cause mortality (HR = 0.54; 95%CI = 0.38 to 0.84; $p = 0.005$)
305 compared to those with low CRF levels. Heterogeneity was $I^2 = 90\%$, and no outliers were identified.
306 Results were similar when data were derived from the univariable model (HR = 0.64; 95%CI = 0.53 to
307 0.79; $p < 0.001$; $I^2 = 86\%$). An effect on publication bias was observed ($t = -4.28$; $p < 0.05$)
308 (Supplementary Figure 8).

309 **Cancer stage.** Six studies were undertaken for CRF on all-cause mortality (Supplementary Figure 4) [39,
310 40, 44, 63, 65, 67]. For the multivariable model in studies including a large proportion of early-stage
311 cancer, a non-significant association was observed for cancer patients with high CRF levels and the risk
312 of all-cause mortality (< 50% of patients with advanced cancer: HR = 0.79; 95%CI = 0.53 to 1.19; $p =$
313 0.26 ; $I^2 = 50\%$) compared to those with low CRF levels. Results differed when data were derived from
314 the univariable model (< 50% of patients with advanced cancer: HR = 0.82; 95%CI = 0.69 to 0.98; $p =$
315 0.03 , $I^2 = 77\%$).

316 **Cancer type.** Ten studies were undertaken for CRF on all-cause mortality (Supplementary Figure 5)
317 [37, 39, 44, 61, 63, 65-68, 70]. For the multivariable model in lung cancer ($n = 5$), cancer patients with
318 high CRF levels had a significant 31% reduced risk of all-cause mortality (HR = 0.69; 95%CI = 0.50 to
319 0.96; $p = 0.03$; $I^2 = 73\%$) compared to those with low CRF levels. Results were similar when data were
320 derived from the univariable model for lung cancer (HR = 0.65; 95%CI = 0.47 to 0.91; $p = 0.01$; $I^2 =$
321 81%). For digestive and haematologic cancer only the univariable models were available and a non-
322 significant association was observed for cancer patients with high CRF levels and the risk of all-cause
323 mortality for digestive (HR = 0.86; 95%CI = 0.67 to 1.09; $p = 0.20$; $I^2 = 67\%$) and haematologic cancer
324 (HR = 0.28; 95%CI = 0.07 to 1.08; $p = 0.06$; $I^2 = 62\%$) compared to those with low CRF levels.

325 *****Figure 4*****

326 **3.3.2. Main model analyses for changes per unit increment**

327 **Main model.** Six studies were undertaken for CRF on all-cause mortality (Figure 5) [34, 38, 39, 45, 48,
328 71]. For the multivariable model, a non-significant association was observed for unit increments in
329 CRF in cancer patients and the risk of all-cause mortality (HR = 0.89; 95%CI = 0.76 to 1.04; $p = 0.13$).
330 Heterogeneity was $I^2 = 96\%$, and no outliers were identified. Results were similar when data were
331 derived from the univariable model (HR = 0.88; 95%CI = 0.76 to 1.02; $p = 0.09$; $I^2 = 95\%$).

332 *****Figure 5*****

333 **Cancer stage and type.** There was an insufficient number of studies to examine changes per unit
334 increment in CRF on all-cause mortality, when stratifying by cancer stage and type.

335 **3.4. Cardiorespiratory fitness – Cancer-specific mortality**

336 **3.4.1. Main model analyses for cut-off values**

337 **Main model.** Three studies were undertaken for CRF on cancer-specific mortality (Supplementary
338 Figure 6) [34, 63, 72]. For the multivariable model, a non-significant association was observed for
339 cancer patients with high CRF levels and the risk of cancer-specific mortality (HR = 0.34; 95%CI = 0.08
340 to 1.38; $p = 0.13$) compared to those with low CRF levels. Heterogeneity was $I^2 = 94\%$. Results were
341 similar when data were derived from the univariable model (HR = 0.51; 95%CI = 0.13 to 1.93; $p = 0.32$;
342 $I^2 = 96\%$).

343 **Cancer stage and type.** There was an insufficient number of studies to examine changes per unit
344 increment in CRF on cancer-specific mortality, when stratifying by cancer stage and type.

345 **3.4.2. Main model analyses for changes per unit increment**

346 **Main model.** Two studies were undertaken for CRF on cancer-specific mortality (Supplementary
347 Figure 6) [34, 72]. For the multivariable model, unit increments in CRF in cancer patients were
348 associated with a significant 18% reduction of the risk of cancer-specific mortality (HR = 0.82; 95%CI =
349 0.69 to 0.98; $p = 0.03$). Heterogeneity was $I^2 = 90\%$.

350 **Cancer stage and type.** There was an insufficient number of studies to examine changes per unit
351 increment in CRF on cancer-specific mortality, when stratifying by cancer stage and type.

352

353 **4. Discussion**

354 To the best of our knowledge, this is the first systematic review with meta-analysis examining the
355 association between muscle strength and/or CRF, measured after cancer diagnosis, on all-cause and
356 cancer-specific mortality in adults diagnosed with any form of cancer; and whether the association
357 were affected by type and/or stage of cancer. There are two important findings. First, both muscle

358 strength and CRF were significantly associated with a lower risk of all-cause and cancer-specific
359 mortality in patients with any form of cancer. Such findings were evident when analysing both the cut-
360 off values (i.e., high vs. low) as well as change per unit increment in physical fitness components.
361 Second, when considering cancer stage, muscle strength and CRF were significant predictors of all-
362 cause mortality especially in patients with advanced cancer, and physical fitness components were also
363 associated with a lower risk of mortality, specifically in lung and digestive system cancers. For cancer-
364 specific mortality, considering the lack of studies, analyses by type and/or stage of cancer could not be
365 performed. Collectively, such findings emphasize the importance of examining muscle strength and
366 CRF in clinical practice to determine the mortality risk in patients with cancer, especially those with
367 advanced cancer. Furthermore, implementing tailored exercise prescriptions to enhance muscle
368 strength and CRF in patients with cancer may help to reduce cancer-related mortality [73].

369

370 a. Muscle strength

371 Our meta-analysis showed that higher muscle strength (i.e., cut-off values) as well as change per unit
372 increment in muscle strength in patients with cancer resulted in a significant reduction in the risk of
373 all-cause mortality by 11 to 31% (HR = 0.69 to 0.89). These findings are in line with previous reviews in
374 apparently healthy subjects, observing that greater muscle strength is a significant predictor of all-
375 cause mortality [5, 15]. In contrast, Garcia-Hermoso et al. [12] found a lower risk reduction (i.e., 2-3%)
376 compared to our results (i.e., 11 to 31%), when examining cancer mortality risk. However, as
377 mentioned above, in this previous work muscle strength assessment was measured in healthy adults
378 before the diagnosis of cancer, whilst our meta-analysis included only studies which measured muscle
379 strength after a cancer diagnosis. Similarly, Ezzatvar et al. [16] observed that both cut-off values as well
380 as change per unit increment in muscle strength resulted in a significant reduction of the risk of all-
381 cause mortality by 15 to 39% in patients with cancer. However, the study was limited to older patients
382 with cancer (i.e., > 60 years), leaving other age ranges still to be investigated. Therefore, our study
383 expands on the current knowledge pertaining to the significant role of muscle strength in predicting
384 all-cause of mortality in any form and stage in adult patients with cancer. Unfortunately, we could not
385 perform the meta-analysis on cancer-specific mortality, owing to the lack of studies investigating
386 muscle strength and death related to cancer only. Our results were consistent in both the univariable
387 and multivariable models and, although, moderate to high heterogeneity was observed ($I^2 = 67$ to
388 94%), no outliers were observed and there were no effects on publication bias as well as, increasing
389 the confidence in our findings

390 In addition, we also observed that when sub-grouping by cancer stage, muscle strength was a strong
391 predictor for all-cause mortality, especially in patients with advanced cancer (i.e., stage 3 to 4). Indeed,
392 when the sample consisted of 50 to 75% or > 75% of patients with advanced cancer, cut-off values and
393 change per unit increment in muscle strength resulted in a significant reduction of all-cause mortality
394 by 8 to 46%. It is worth mentioning that such results were greater compared to the analyses performed
395 in samples where early-stage cancer was predominant (i.e., < 50% of patients with advanced cancer),
396 with a reduction in risk for all-cause mortality ranging from 10 to 33%. Our results are noteworthy
397 especially when considering the detrimental effects of advanced cancer stages, where decreased
398 muscle strength and mass, reduced CRF and heightened fatigue lead to poorer quality of life and
399 increased risk of death [74]. Our findings highlight that muscle strength could potentially be used in
400 clinical practice to determine mortality risk in cancer patients in advanced stages and, therefore,
401 muscle strengthening activities could be employed to increase life expectancy. Lastly, when available,
402 we also performed meta-analyses by cancer type. Only lung and digestive cancers were examined,
403 showing that greater muscle strength in these specific cancer patients was associated with a significant
404 reduction in all-cause mortality by 19 and 41%. Again, considering that lung, colorectal, liver and
405 stomach cancer are among the leading causes of cancer death [75], our results underscore the
406 relevance of muscle strength as a strong predictor of mortality in aggressive and highly prevalent forms
407 of cancer and may be a priority target for exercise prescription.

408 **b. Cardiorespiratory fitness**

409 We observed that high CRF levels (i.e., cut-off values) were significantly associated with a lower risk of
410 all-cause mortality by 46% (HR = 0.54) compared to low CRF levels, whilst no significant association
411 was found when analysing change per unit increment in CRF. Our findings are in line with previous
412 studies which observed that higher CRF was associated with lower risk of all-cause mortality [9, 20];
413 however, as with muscle strength, these studies were conducted in apparently healthy adults with CRF
414 measured before cancer diagnosis. To the best of our knowledge, only Ezzatvar et al. [19] have
415 investigated whether CRF was a predictor of mortality in patients already diagnosed with cancer. The
416 authors examined both cut-off values as well as changes per unit increments in CRF, finding a significant
417 decrease in mortality by 18 to 48%. However, some limitations should be considered. First, although
418 the inclusion criteria were studies in adult patients with cancer, the authors included one study in
419 children with cancer, who were assessed more than 26 years after their diagnosis [76], another
420 potential study examining CRF and mortality in cancer patients was not included [68], and a study
421 measuring cancer-specific mortality was included in the all-cause mortality analysis [72]. In addition,
422 it is unclear whether the authors examined univariable or multivariable models in the statistical
423 approach, leading to potential confounding factors in the analyses. Taken together, some bias may

424 have influenced the results that were provided by Ezzatvar et al. [19]. Therefore, our study expands on
425 the current knowledge about CRF and mortality in cancer patients, highlighting how greater CRF is
426 significantly associated with a reduction in all-cause mortality. Such results were confirmed in the
427 univariable model. However, it should be noted that heterogeneity (i.e., I^2) was high, ranging from 86
428 to 96% and there was an effect on publication bias. Furthermore, our meta-analysis is the first to
429 explore the association between CRF and cancer-specific mortality. Although very few studies were
430 found, unit increments in CRF resulted in a significant decrease in cancer-specific mortality by 18%,
431 whilst no significant associations were observed for cut-off values. However, more research is
432 necessary to clearly elucidate the association between CRF and cancer-specific mortality.

433 When considering cancer stage, only the sample mainly comprising patients with early-stage cancer
434 (i.e., < 50% of patients with advanced cancer) was available for sub-group analysis, showing no
435 significant associations in the multivariable model, while in the univariable model, there was a
436 significant reduction by 18% in all-cause mortality. The underlying reasons are not fully understood;
437 however, it can be speculated that the multivariable model included only three studies and very few
438 covariates (e.g., age, months since diagnosis, and physical performance status), whilst the univariable
439 model included six studies. In line with this, a significant reduction in all-cause mortality was observed
440 in lung cancer by 31 to 35%, after stratifying by cancer type in both models. This not only further
441 highlights the importance of CRF in the deadliest form of cancer (i.e., lung cancer) [77], but from a
442 practical standpoint, it also underscores the necessity to improve CRF to reduce the risk of mortality.
443 In contrast, no significant associations were observed for haematologic and digestive system cancers.
444 This may be related to the fact that lung cancer results in a greater deterioration in CRF than other
445 forms of cancer and, therefore, preserving CRF levels is of utmost importance when dealing with lung
446 cancer [78]; however, additional research is needed to explore the association between CRF and
447 different cancer types.

448 **c. Strength and limitations**

449 The strengths of the current study are: 1) a large number of studies ($n = 42$) and cancer patients
450 included ($n = 46,694$); 2) assessment of both univariable and multivariable models for all-cause and
451 cancer-specific mortality; and 3) subgroup analyses based on cancer stage and type. However, some
452 limitations should be considered. First, our study is limited by the inclusion of exclusively English
453 language publications, potentially leading to language bias and the omission of pertinent research
454 from non-English-speaking authors. In addition, only prospective cohort studies examining muscle
455 strength and/or CRF were included in our review. This limits determining causality of physical fitness
456 changes (e.g., decrease in muscle strength and/or CRF) after cancer-related treatment (e.g.,

457 chemotherapy) or side-effects (e.g., cancer-related fatigue, sarcopenia, change in body composition)
458 on all-cause and cancer-specific mortality. Second, when examining physical fitness components
459 different methods (e.g., CPET and 6MWT) and measures (e.g., kg force, Fried frailty phenotype index,
460 age-dependent cut-offs, etc) were adopted. In addition, computing different cut-off values together
461 (e.g., Fried frailty phenotype index and age-dependent cut-offs) may have somewhat reduced the
462 internal validity of our findings. Although there is no consensus regarding the threshold for cut-off
463 values, this should be considered when designing prospective studies examining the association
464 between physical fitness and cancer mortality. Finally, most studies lacked reporting of follow-up and
465 covariates for the multivariable models, which is a limitation that future empirical investigations should
466 aim to address.

467

468 **5. Conclusion**

469 In this systematic review with meta-analysis, we examined the association between muscle strength
470 and/or CRF on all-cause and cancer-specific mortality in patients diagnosed with cancer. We found that
471 cancer patients with high muscle strength or CRF levels presented a significant reduction of the risk of
472 all-cause mortality compared to those with low physical fitness levels. Similar results were also
473 observed when examining change per unit increments in muscle strength or CRF. Furthermore, muscle
474 strength and CRF were significant predictors of all-cause mortality, particularly of patients with
475 advanced cancer; and physical fitness components were also associated with reduced mortality risk in
476 lung and digestive system cancers. Lastly, unit increments in CRF were also associated with a significant
477 reduced risk of cancer-specific mortality. This underscores the importance of assessing physical fitness
478 in clinical practice for predicting mortality in cancer patients. Moreover, from a practical perspective,
479 implementing tailored exercise prescriptions to enhance muscle strength and CRF throughout the
480 cancer continuum may contribute to reducing cancer-related mortality.

481 Data sharing statement

482 The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon
483 reasonable request.

484 Contributors

485 FB is guarantor. FB conceived the study design, searched studies in the databases, extracted data, run
486 statistical analysis, elaborated results, and drafted the manuscript; PL conceived the study design, run
487 statistical analysis, and drafted the manuscript; VN conceived the study design, searched studies in the
488 databases, extracted data, and drafted the manuscript; LM, GQ, EB extracted data and drafted the
489 manuscript; UC, EV searched studies in the databases and drafted the manuscript; DAG, DRT, CB, and
490 RUN conceived the study design, edited and revised the manuscript. All authors have read and
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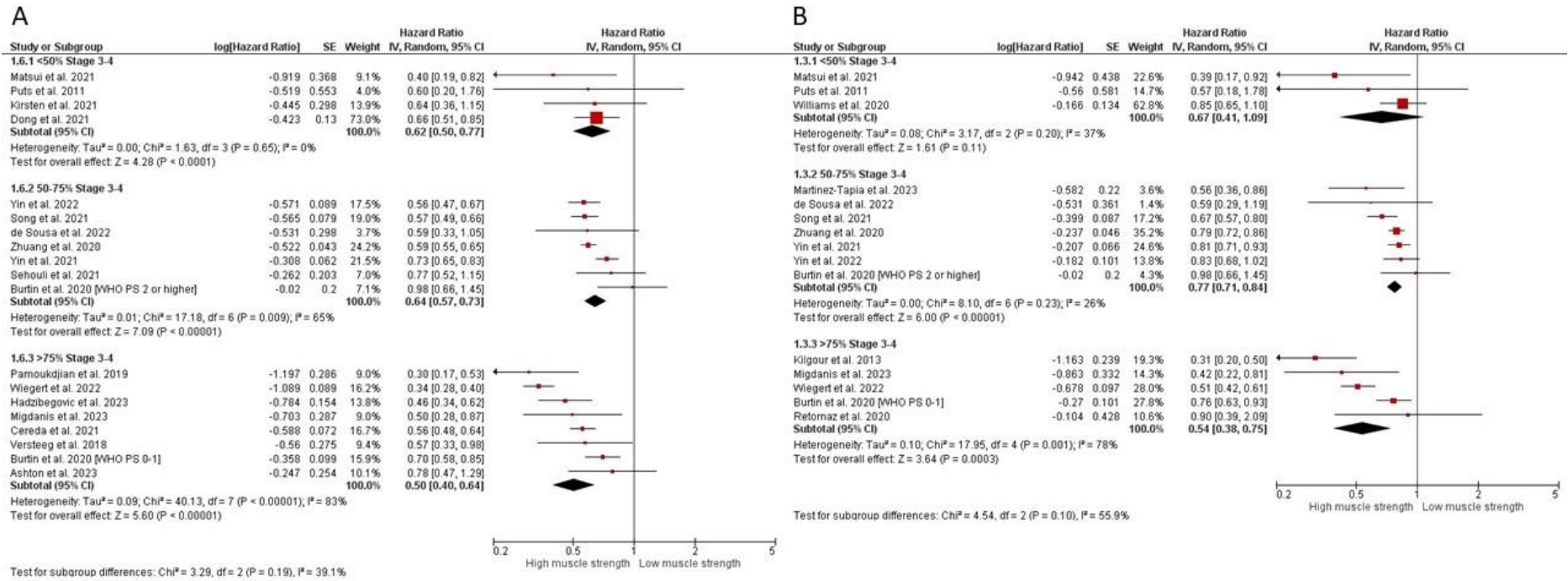


Figure 1. Association of high vs. low muscle strength levels (i.e., cut-off values) on all-cause mortality in patients with cancer according to cancer stage, univariable (A) and multivariable (B) models.

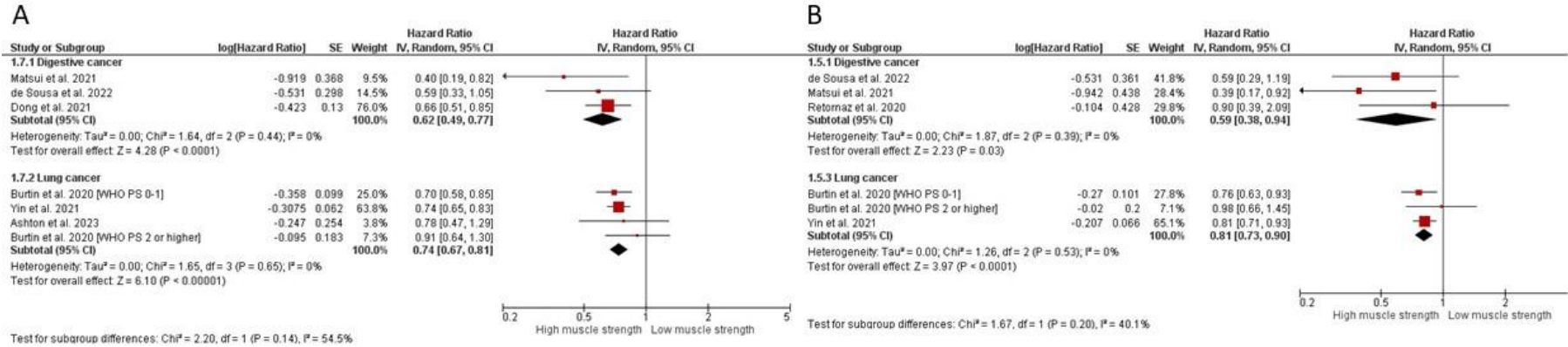


Figure 2. Association of high vs. low muscle strength levels (i.e., cut-off values) on all-cause mortality in patients with cancer according to cancer type, univariable (A) and multivariable (B) models.

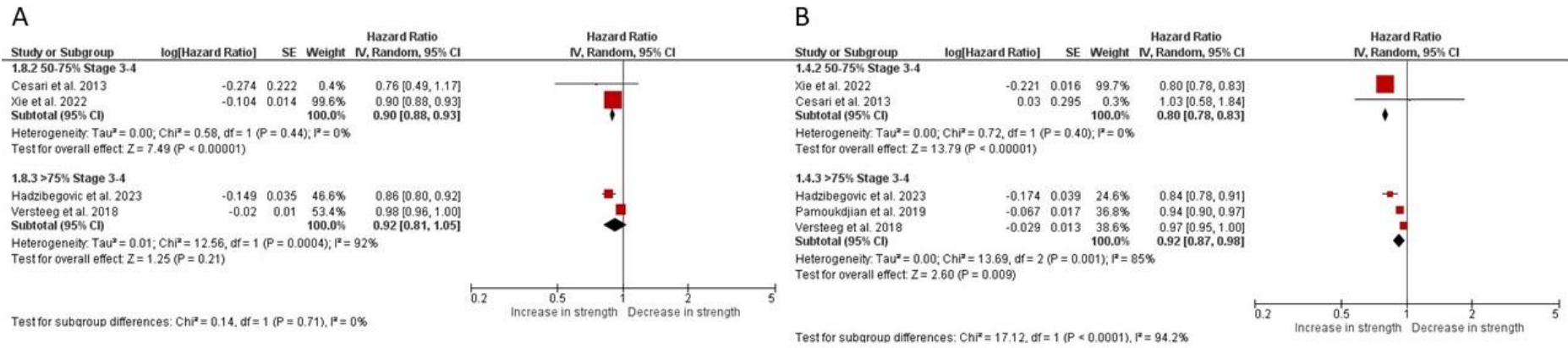


Figure 3. Association of changes per unit increments in muscle strength on all-cause mortality in patients with cancer according to cancer stage, univariable (A) and multivariable (B) models.

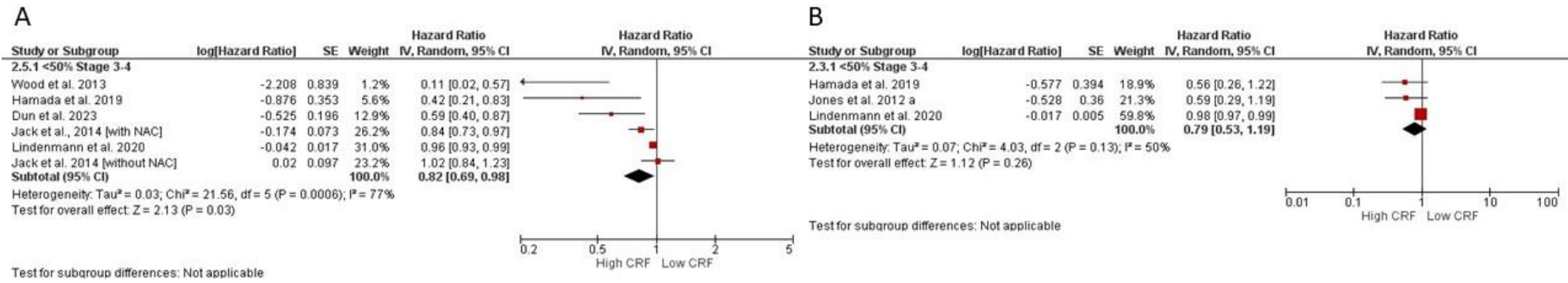


Figure 4. Association of high vs. low cardiorespiratory fitness levels (i.e., cut-off values) on all-cause mortality in patients with cancer according to cancer stage, univariable (A) and multivariable (B) models.

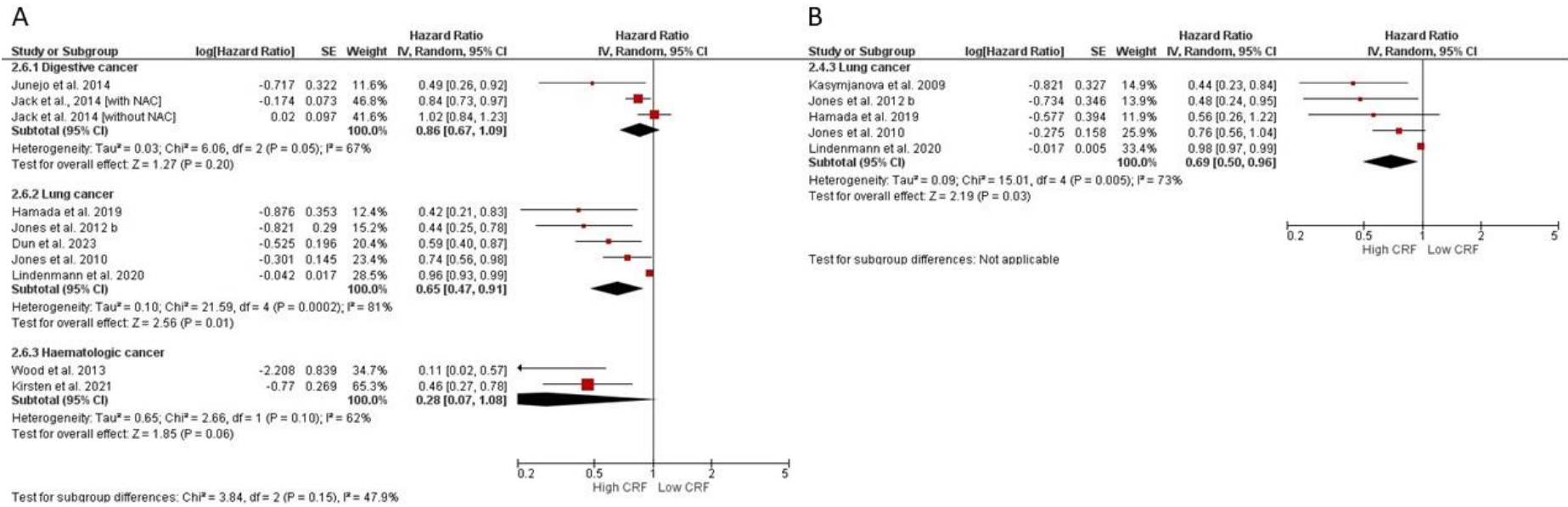


Figure 5. Association of high vs. low cardiorespiratory fitness levels (i.e., cut-off values) on all-cause mortality in patients with cancer according to cancer type, univariable (A) and multivariable (B) models.

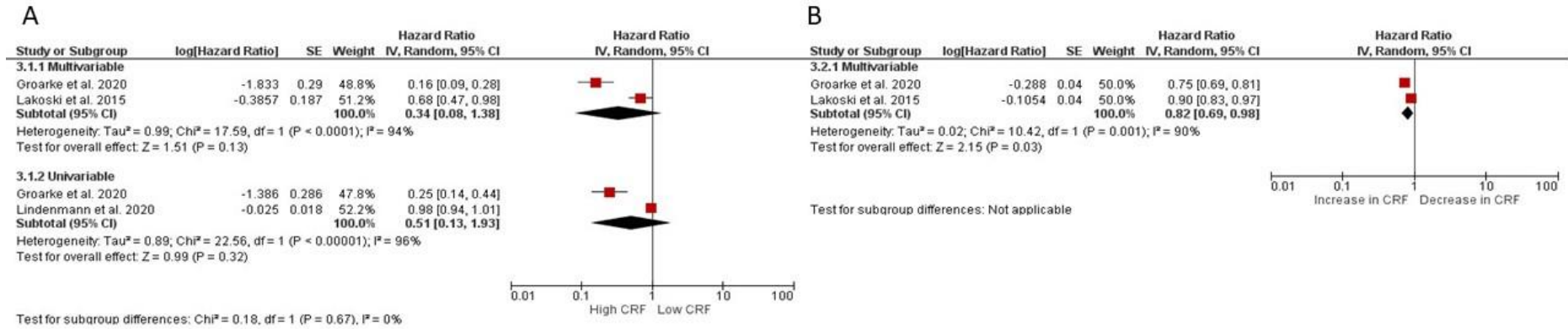


Figure 6. Association of high vs. low cardiorespiratory fitness levels (i.e., cut-off values - A) and changes per unit increments in CRF (B) on cancer-specific mortality in patients with cancer.