Journal Pre-proof

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PII: S2095-2546(24)00020-6
DOI: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jshs.2024.02.003
Reference: JSHS 926

To appear in: *Journal of Sport and Health Science*

Received date: 18 October 2023
Revised date: 24 December 2023
Accepted date: 18 January 2024

Please cite this article as: Mairead Ryan , Luiza I.C. Ricardo , Nicole Nathan , Riikka Hofmann , Esther van Sluijs , Are school uniforms associated with gender inequalities in physical activity? A pooled analysis of population-level data from 135 countries/regions, *Journal of Sport and Health Science* (2024), doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jshs.2024.02.003

Highlights

- Gender inequalities in youth physical activity are not explained by country/region-level school uniform policies. Findings remain consistent when analyses are restricted to device-measured data.
- However, among primary school-aged children, greater gender inequalities in physical activity are observed in countries/regions where school uniforms are common.
- The association between school uniform policies and gender inequalities in youth physical activity is largest in high-income countries/regions.
- Compliance with physical activity guidelines is lower in countries/regions where school uniforms are common compared to countries/regions where uniforms are less commonly worn.

Original article

Are school uniforms associated with gender inequalities in physical activity? A pooled analysis of population-level data from 135 countries/regions

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Running title: School uniforms and physical activity gender gap

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Received 18 October 2023; revised 24 December 2023; accepted 18 January 2024

Abstract

***Background*:** We assessed whether school uniforms are associated with population-level gender inequalities in physical activity, and whether associations differ by school level, country/region income, and assessment method.

***Methods*:** An ecological study design was employed. We collected data about global uniform practices using an online survey. We searched for country/region-level estimates of school-aged youth meeting physical activity guidelines from international surveillance studies. Study selection was conducted in duplicate using a systematic process, and a random sample of all data was checked to ensure extraction and pooling processes were accurate. We calculated absolute and relative gender inequalities in physical activity for each country. Linear

regression examined associations between country/region-level uniform practices (binary yes/no exposure variable) and country/region-level gender inequalities in physical activity guideline compliance (absolute and relative inequalities). We investigated moderation by school level, stratified analyses by income group, and repeated primary analyses using device-measured data.

***Results*:** Pooling data from 135 countries/regions (n = 1,089,852), we found no association between population-level uniform practices and gender inequalities in physical activity across all ages (absolute: β = –0.2; 95% confidence interval (95%CI): –1.7 to 1.3, p = 0.74; relative: β = 0.1; 95%CI: –0.1 to 0.2, p = 0.51). Subgroup analysis suggested a positive association in primary school settings (absolute: β = 4.3; 95%CI: –0.0, 8.6, p = 0.05). Among high-income countries, absolute inequalities were significantly greater in countries/regions with uniform practices (N = 37) compared to those without (N = 48) (9.1 (SD: 3.6) *vs* 7.8 percentage points (SD: 4.3)). Repeating analyses using device-measured data (n = 32,130; N = 24) did not alter our primary finding. From initial descriptive statistics, we found that in countries/regions where a majority of schools (>50%) reportedly use uniforms, there was lower compliance with physical activity guidelines among all genders (median: 16.0%, IQR: 13.2–19.9, N = 103) compared to generally non-uniform countries/regions (median: 19.5%, IQR: 16.4–23.5, N = 32) (z = 3.04, p = 0.002). (N = countries, regions and studies represented; n = sample size or participants included).

***Conclusion*:** School uniforms are associated with greater gender inequalities in physical activity in primary school settings and in high-income countries. Our population-level findings warrant testing using individual-level data across contexts.

***Keywords*:** School policy; Clothing; Child; Adolescent; Accelerometer

1. Introduction

The World Health Organization (WHO) recommends children and adolescents aged 5–17 years engage in an average of 60 min of at least moderate-intensity physical activity per day across the week.[1] They also recommend that vigorous-intensity aerobic activities as well as muscle- and bone-strengthening activities are incorporated at least 3 days per week. Sedentary time should be limited, particularly if that time is not for school or work purposes.[1] These recommendations are based on a large body of evidence, suggesting that young people need this amount (frequency, duration, intensity) and type (aerobic, muscle-strengthening,

and bone-strengthening activities) of physical activity to meet their multiple physical, mental, and well-being needs.[2]

Studies are increasingly conducted in countries worldwide to assess population levels of physical activity among young people (e.g., using a survey or a device-based measure).[3,4] Surveillance studies, which typically focus on measuring young people's weekly moderate-to-vigorous intensity physical activity, play a crucial role in evaluating guideline compliance and, hence, the health status of young people. Findings from these studies indicate that many children and adolescents worldwide are not meeting the WHO physical activity guidelines.[5–9] While equalities in opportunities for individuals to be physically active vary within and between countries, gender disparities account for the largest proportion of observed global physical activity inequalities among both child and adolescent populations.[7–11] The individual and societal-level costs associated with physical inactivity and related gender inequalities are high.[12] Yet the reasons why girls are less likely than their male peers to meet physical activity guidelines throughout childhood and adolescence remain poorly understood.

Gender inequalities in physical activity appear early in life, typically between 2 and 6 years old,[3,13,14] at a time when children are usually entering education. Girls often report additional barriers to physical activity compared to boys in several settings in their lives, including school settings.[15–17] School policies, defined as "organisational statements or rules that are intended to influence behaviour",[18] may play a role. However, review-level evidence indicates that existing studies primarily focus on school policies related to extra-curricular sports, physical education (PE), and recess[19,20] which are periods that only account for a small portion of the whole school day. Moreover, extra-curricular sports are not accessible to many students,[21] and the physical activity students gain from PE class typically represents a fraction of their total recommended amount of moderate-to-vigorous intensity physical activity.[22,23] School policies and their association with gender inequalities in physical activity beyond high-income countries/regions are also understudied.[20]

School uniforms are common in many primary and secondary school settings globally.[24] While some researchers have explored their relationship with other outcomes[25–30] (e.g., academic achievement[27,31] and social behavior[28]), finding no or inconsistent correlations, studies examining associations with gender inequalities in physical activity are limited. Previous researchers who explored UK adolescent girls' experiences of physical activity at

school through the lens of comfort theory[32] found that female participants perceived their PE uniform as a barrier to physical activity.[17] They reported the design and fabric compromised their privacy, negatively impacting their sense of confidence and willingness to engage in specific PE movements (e.g., cartwheeling).[17] Whole–day school uniforms, for which items are often also segregated by gender, could similarly influence students' physical activity behavior. These uniforms are typically worn for longer periods than PE attire and during times when young people accrue a greater portion of their daily physical activity (e.g., during recess,[33] school travel[34,35]). Observational research studies have found that some girls perceive their whole-day uniforms as a barrier to break-time play[36,37] and school active travel.[38,39] Experimental evidence also suggests primary school-aged girls are more active and less sedentary on days when they are not wearing their regular uniform.[40,41] However, studies come from a limited number of high-income countries, report on small sample sizes, and focus solely on school-time physical activity. Associations between uniforms and total weekly physical activity, which is most strongly associated with health and educational benefits,[2] have not been explored.

We therefore aimed to use population-level data for all variables to determine associations between school uniforms and gender inequalities in physical activity, using country-level compliance with the WHO moderate-to-vigorous intensity physical activity guidelines as our outcome. We also assessed whether associations differ by school level, country/region income classification, and physical activity assessment method.

2. Methods

This study is reported in accordance with the STrengthening the Reporting of OBservational studies in Epidemiology (STROBE) statement for cross-sectional studies.[42]

2.1. Study design and data sources

We employed a cross-sectional design using published data on the proportion of children and adolescents meeting physical activity guidelines as the outcome. We then conducted an online survey to determine the use of school uniform practices among countries/regions with sex-stratified data on population-level estimates of physical activity guideline compliance. Based on data from the World Bank, we categorized children aged 6<12 years as primary school age and adolescents aged 12<18 years as secondary school age.[43] Further study

measures are detailed below. Operational definitions adopted for this study are outlined in Supplementary File 1.

2.2 Physical activity data

2.2.1. Identification of eligible studies

We searched 8 international surveillance initiatives for studies reporting population estimates of the percentage of boys and girls aged 6–17 years meeting physical activity guidelines.[44] Studies had to report on: (a) the country/region from which participants were sampled, (b) the age/age range of participants, (c) the year(s) of data collection, (d) the method used to assess physical activity (survey/device-measured), and (e) the guideline/reference used to estimate total physical activity (e.g., compliance with 2020 WHO guidelines).[1]

Thereafter, we applied inclusion and exclusion criteria to screen out studies that did not report data addressing our research questions. Studies had to report the percentages of children and adolescents meeting physical activity guidelines by gender or provide sufficient information for this to be calculated. Participants had to be sampled from the general population. In instances where study authors reported device-measured data and did not publish guideline compliance by gender, we contacted them and requested this data. Following the aforementioned screening exercise, we still found that few studies reported on device-measured data. We therefore contacted the authors of the largest international surveillance initiative of device-measured physical activity[45] and requested unpublished data on guideline compliance by gender.

2.2.2. Study selection

If multiple studies reported on the same country/region and school-age category (e.g., 3 studies reporting on primary school-aged children in Germany), we selected only 1 study for inclusion. We used a hierarchy to prioritize study inclusion at the country/region level (Supplementary File 2). All study selection decisions were conducted independently by 2 members of the team. Disagreements were resolved via discussion by referring back to primary sources. Studies not selected for inclusion are listed in Supplementary File 3 with reason codes.

2.2.3. Data coding

If single studies reported multiple prevalence estimates for different age groups, we combined these into school age categories of interest using formulae outlined in the Cochrane Handbook.[46] We used averages if sample sizes were not reported. If data on guideline compliance by gender crossed our school age categories of interest (e.g., participants aged 8–12), samples were categorized as "primary" or "secondary" based on study participants' reported median age. An exception was the "Health Behaviour in School-aged Children" study, in which study participants aged 11 were categorized as "primary" or "secondary" based on the mean secondary school starting age in that country/region.[43]

2.3. School uniform practices

We conducted an online survey to determine school uniform practices in countries/regions with eligible physical activity data. To minimize error, 2 respondents per country/region were sought. We obtained survey responses through various channels, including social media advertisements, international societies and university mailing lists, inquiries made to embassies, high commissions, and consulates, and personal and professional contacts of the researchers. Survey participants were asked (a) whether the majority (>50%) of primary and secondary schools in that country/region use uniforms or not (response options: yes/no/don't know) and (b) whether practices had significantly changed in the past decade. All data were collected between April and September 2022 using Qualtrics. Survey questions are outlined in Supplementary File 4. Where more than 2 responses were available for a given country/region and responses differed, the response supported by the majority was taken. Single responses were also accepted. Where exactly 2 responses were available and responses differed, data were coded as missing. Where data were unavailable or we solely received "don't know" responses, data were also coded as missing.

2.4. Income classification

Countries and regions were assigned income classifications based on groupings calculated by the World Bank.[47] We used income classifications from the year in which the largest proportion of physical activity data were collected or projected[5]: 2016.

2.5. Data extraction and checking

All data extraction was conducted by 1 member of the team. A random sample (10%) of the combined dataset (i.e., with population-level physical activity compliance estimates, uniform

survey data, income classifications, *etc*.) was independently checked by a second member to assess the accuracy of the extraction and pooling process (inter-rater agreement = 94.8%). In addition, all data extracted from physical activity surveillance studies reporting on secondary sources (i.e., the Global Matrix Study[6]) were checked by 1 member of the team against primary study sources where available.

2.6. Statistical analysis

We calculated absolute and relative gender inequalities in physical activity for each country/region with corresponding physical activity and school uniform data. Absolute inequalities were calculated by subtracting the percentage of girls meeting physical activity guidelines from the percentage of boys meeting physical activity guidelines. Relative inequalities were calculated by dividing the percentage of boys meeting physical activity guidelines by the percentage of girls meeting physical activity guidelines. Descriptive statistics were calculated for categorical and continuous variables. Means and standard deviations (SDs), or medians and interquartile ranges (IQR) are reported based on the distribution of physical activity outcomes. Mann-Whitney *U* tests were performed to compare median values between independent groups when the assumptions of parametric tests were not met.

Linear regression was used to explore associations between country/region-level uniform practices (binary yes/no exposure variable) and country/region-level gender inequalities in self-reported physical activity (absolute and relative inequalities, measured in percentage points and ratio, respectively). We obtained cluster-robust standard errors using the "vce (cluster clustvar)" Stata command to account for instances where data were available for both primary and secondary school settings in a single country/region. All models were checked for assumptions necessary for linear regressions (residual and Q-Q plots). A set of pre-planned models were run with interaction terms between the exposure (country/region-level uniform practices) and the following moderators: school level (primary *vs.* secondary) and income classification grouping. Countries/regions with missing data on the moderators were excluded from interaction analyses. The majority of countries/regions with a low-, lower-middle-, or upper-middle-income classification were reported to use uniforms, precluding meaningful interaction analyses. We therefore present stratified summary statistics. To assess whether associations were affected by physical activity assessment method, we repeated primary analyses using device-measured data. For all analyses Stata was used (Version16.1;

StataCorp LLC, College Station, TX, USA). The level of statistical significance was set at an alpha level of 5% (2-tailed).

3. Results

3.1. Characteristics of countries/regions included

Data on both physical activity and uniform practices were available for 135 countries and regions. See Supplementary File 5 for a flow chart showing data availability, selection, and inclusion at each stage. Table 1 summarizes the sample characteristics of all countries/regions represented by physical activity assessment method. Here we focus on our primary outcome of interest: self-report measured physical activity. While countries/regions from all income grouping classifications were represented, a higher proportion of high-income countries/regions was represented (71.8% of all countries/regions with a high-income classification in 2016 were included (N = 78 countries), 64.3% of countries/regions with an upper-middle-income classification (N = 56), 54.7% of countries/regions with a lower-middle-income classification (N = 53), and 29.0% of countries/regions with a low-income classification (N = 31)).

3.2. School uniform practices

In a majority of countries, school uniform practices were reported as common in primary (77.0%) and secondary (76.3%) school settings. A small number of countries/regions reported changes to uniform practices in the previous 10 years. Changes were reported in primary school settings in 13 countries/regions (9.6%) and in secondary school settings in 8 countries/regions (5.9%). See Supplementary File 6 for further information.

3.3. Physical activity studies included

Sample characteristics of physical activity studies included are summarized in Table 2. Population-level estimates are based on self-reported data from 1,089,852 children and adolescents (median sample size per country/region: 3427). Studies largely reported on secondary school-aged students (78.2%).

3.4. Association between school uniform practices and gender inequalities in physical activity

Pooled self-reported data showed that guideline compliance was significantly lower in countries/regions with uniform practices (N = 103) (median: 16.0%, IQR: 13.2–19.9)

compared to those without (N = 32) (median: 19.5%, IQR: 16.4–23.5) (z = 3.04, p = 0.002, Mann-Whitney U test).

Across all countries, the mean difference between the percentage of boys and girls meeting physical activity guidelines (absolute inequalities) across all ages was 7.6 percentage points (SD: 4.8). Boys were 1.5 (SD: 0.4) times more likely to meet physical activity guidelines than girls (relative inequalities). Linear regression showed no association between country/region-level uniform practices and population gender inequalities in physical activity (absolute inequalities: β = –0.2, 95% confidence interval (95%CI): –1.7 to 1.3; relative inequalities: β = 0.1, 95%CI: –0.1 to 0.2) (Table 3).

3.5. Differences by school level, income classification, or assessment method

We found a significant interaction with school level (β = 5.9, 95%CI: 0.8–11.0), suggesting uniform use may be associated with greater gender inequalities in physical activity in primary school settings compared to secondary school settings. Subsequent stratified analyses suggested that, among primary school-aged children, absolute gender inequalities in physical activity guideline compliance were 4.3 percentage points higher in countries/regions with uniform practices compared to those without (95%CI: –0.0 to 8.6) (Table 3).

In countries/regions with a high-income classification, absolute physical activity inequalities were greater in countries/regions with uniform practices (N = 37) compared to those without (N = 48) (9.1 (SD: 3.6) *vs* 7.8 percentage points (SD: 4.3) (z = –2.37, p < 0.02, Mann-Whitney U test). Among countries/regions with a low-, lower-middle, or upper-middle-income classification, differences in absolute physical activity inequalities between countries/regions with uniform practices (N = 74) compared to those without (N = 6) were negligible (6.8 (SD: 5.6) *vs*. 6.7 percentage points (SD: 2.6)).

Using device-measured physical activity guideline compliance as the outcome did not alter our primary findings; we found no association between country/region-level uniform practices and population gender inequalities across both school levels (absolute inequalities: β = –2.2 percentage points, 95%CI: –10.8 to 6.4; relative inequalities: β = –1.1, 95%CI: –2.3 to 0.1) (Table 3).

4. Discussion

Few studies have examined whether school uniforms are associated with gender inequalities in physical activity or have examined evidence beyond high-income country/region contexts. Utilizing pooled data from 135 countries, we found evidence that the common use of school uniforms is associated with lower compliance with international physical activity guidelines among school-aged children and adolescents. We found no association between country/region-level school uniform practices and gender inequalities in physical activity across all school levels, but evidence showed an association with greater gender inequalities in primary school settings. We also found preliminary evidence that associations between uniforms and gender inequalities in physical activity may be greater in high-income countries/regions than in countries/regions with other income classifications.

Our finding that uniforms are associated with lower compliance with physical activity guidelines regardless of gender is a novel contribution to the literature. This was not a pre-defined research question, but its emergence from initial descriptive statistics potentially highlights a crucial gap. To date, boys have been reported not to perceive uniforms as a barrier to their physical activity[17,37–39] or have been excluded from studies prompting participants to consider their role.[36] Previous quantitative evidence suggests boys accumulate more vigorous-intensity physical activity[40] and are less sedentary[41] during recess when not wearing their regular uniform, but these studies did not report an association with total school-time physical activity. We examined associations between uniforms and physical activity guideline compliance across the week. Our findings suggest that associations between uniforms and physical activity beyond school hours and across genders may have been overlooked and underestimated.

Our findings indicate uniforms are associated with greater gender inequalities in physical activity at the population level in primary but not secondary school settings. These age-based findings may be explained by greater gender inequalities among younger children,[3] lower overall physical activity levels among secondary school-aged adolescents, and marked differences in how and where children and adolescents accrue their physical activity. For example, primary school-aged children accrue more of their physical activity from sporadic movements throughout the day, during which they may be wearing their uniform, whereas adolescents accrue a greater proportion of their total physical activity from structured

activities (e.g., PE, sport),[48] during which they may be encouraged or required to change. Primary school-aged children may also gain a larger proportion of their total physical activity from active and risky play (e.g., hanging, balancing from heights, jumping). This may present greater challenges for girls if they are required or expected to wear skirts and dresses as part of their school uniform. Our findings are supported by experimental research[40,41] but limited by power.[17] Broader socio-cultural factors may also be driving some of the relationship. For example, uniforms are a legacy of colonialism in many countries/regions represented in this study. Hence, they may serve as a proxy measure for some other shared cultural practice, value, or school policy associated with gender inequalities in physical activity. Further research is therefore recommended on what may be driving the relationship between school uniforms and physical activity among primary school-aged children.

This is the first known study to examine associations between school uniforms and global gender inequalities in physical activity. Studies in which girls report uniforms as a barrier to physical activity have largely come from a limited number of high-income countries/regions (i.e., Australia[36,37,40,41] and New Zealand[38,39]). Our findings suggest associations between uniforms and gender inequalities in physical activity may be greater in high-income countries/regions than in countries/regions with other income classifications. This may reflect differences in gender-specific barriers and facilitators to physical activity across contexts. We grouped countries/regions with a low, lower-middle, or upper-middle income classification into a single category as there was limited variation in uniform practices among these countries/regions. We recognise these groupings may also mask significant differences between countries/regions with the same income classification.[49] Our findings should therefore be interpreted with caution.

4.1 Strengths and limitations

This study addresses calls to examine gender inequalities in physical activity among young people.[50] We pooled a large number of studies from international physical activity surveillance initiatives and used a rigorous method to select the best data to answer our research questions. We also report on unpublished data from the most comprehensive, high quality, and large-scale surveillance initiative of harmonized device-measured physical activity to overcome data availability limitations. Study selection was conducted in duplicate using a systematic process, and a random sample of all data was checked to ensure extraction and pooling processes were accurate. All data reported in surveillance studies using

secondary sources were cross-checked. Finally, we report novel country/region-level data about the prevalence of uniform practices; this can be used in future research.

We acknowledge that causation cannot be inferred as we aimed to maximize geographic coverage, and international surveillance initiatives predominantly employ cross-sectional designs. Countries/regions with a high-income classification are over-represented. The greatest burden of disease associated with physical inactivity is felt in middle-income countries,[51] and a rapidly increasing proportion of the global child and adolescent population are not based in high-income countries.[52] Surveillance initiatives also use measures of physical activity that have solely been tested in a small number of high-income countries; their validity, reliability, and cultural appropriateness beyond these contexts remain unknown.[53] Hence, our findings may reflect differential bias in the measures used. We only included studies reporting on children and adolescents sampled from the general population. This may have led to biased guideline compliance estimates as many subgroups were inadvertently excluded (e.g., children and adolescents with additional health and educational needs). We sought 2 uniform survey participants per country/region to minimize error, and there was a high level of within-country/region agreement. However, the survey was only offered in English, which may have introduced response bias. We also used a binary variable to assess majority uniform practices at the country/region level; our results may underestimate associations in contexts with significant within-country/region variability. We were unable to stratify our analysis by socio-economic position but acknowledge evidence of socio-economic inequalities in physical activity within genders, particularly among primary school-aged children.[21] As evidence suggests country/region-level measures of gender inequality (e.g., Gini coefficient) are not globally positively associated with gender inequalities in physical activity,[54] we did not include them as covariates in our analyses. Wider within country/region-level factors, including climate, were also not included based on a similar lack of evidence.

4.2 Future studies

Given the costs of physical inactivity,[12] and data to suggest over 75% of the 135 countries represented in this study reportedly employ uniforms across primary and secondary school settings, our findings warrant further investigation. Student-level data is needed to explore the associations we identified in different contexts. While small-scale studies provide support for our findings,[40,41] the generalizability of our findings may be subject to biases associated with

population-level studies, including ecological fallacy.[55] Future studies should assess specific features (e.g., clothing design and fabric/footwear) that facilitate or restrict physical activity. A dose-response association analysis is also recommended. Mechanisms of action underlying the relationship identified between school uniforms and gender inequalities in physical activity among primary school-age children should be explored; the limited number of known qualitative[17] and mixed-methods studies have focused on PE uniforms and physical activity behaviors among UK female adolescents (e.g., considering their socio-cultural impacts).[56] Gender minority groups also require greater attention. Future studies could address this research gap as changes are made to the binary measures currently used in most physical activity surveillance studies. Finally, associations between school policies and other components of the WHO guidelines (e.g., muscle-strengthening activities)[1] warrant investigation as they are increasingly measured in population surveillance studies.

5. Conclusion

Regular physical activity is important for all young people, regardless of their gender, cultural background, or socioeconomic status. Though educational settings represent a potential venue to promote population health, our findings suggest school uniform policies, common in many countries, may be restricting students' physical activity within and beyond the school day. Future studies should include student-level measures of uniform wear time and physical activity intensity across the week to enable a better assessment of the influence uniforms have on child and adolescent health.

Data availability

Country/region-level data about uniform practices are reported in Supplementary File 6. The majority of physical activity data we analyzed are publicly available. Further details are provided in Supplementary File 7. Device-measured data can be made available to researchers upon request; please email the corresponding author.

Acknowledgments

We would like to thank individuals for their participation in our online survey as well as the study authors who responded to our data requests. This work was supported by the Economic and Social Research Council (ES/P000738/1), the Medical Research Council (MC_UU_00006/5), the University of Cambridge, and the National Health and Medical

Research Council (GS2000053). The funders had no role in designing the study, analyzing the data, or writing the manuscript.

Authors' contributions

MR conceived the study, drafted the protocol, screened all studies for selection, extracted all data, conducted analyses and drafted the manuscript; EvS conceived the study, drafted the protocol, and advised on analyses; LICR screened all studies for selection, checked a random sample of extracted data, cross-checked data from surveillance studies reporting on secondary sources against original studies where available, and advised on analyses; NN and RH helped interpret the data, and contributed and reviewed additional content. All authors contributed to the revision of the final paper and have approved the manuscript and provided consent for publication.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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Table 1. Sample characteristics of countries and regions represented (*N* = 135) by physical activity assessment method

	Self-report[a] *N* = 135		Device-measured[b] *N* = 24	
Countries/regions represented				
Income classification[c]				
Low	9	(6.7)	1	(4.2)
Lower-middle	29	(21.5)	-	-
Upper-middle	36	(26.7)	1	(4.2)
High	56	(41.5)	22	(91.7)
Uniform practices[d]				
Prevalent in >50% of primary schools				
Yes	104	(77.0)	7	(29.2)
No	31	(23.0)	17	(70.8)
Prevalent in >50% of secondary schools				
Yes	103	(76.3)	7	(29.2)
No	32	(23.7)	17	(70.8)
Physical activity data available, *N* (%)				
Primary school age only	2	(1.5)	4	(16.7)
Secondary school age only	98	(72.6)	5	(20.8)
Both school age settings	35	(25.9)	15	(62.5)

Note: Percentages may not total 100 due to rounding. *N* = countries, regions and studies represented; *n* = sample size or participants included.

[a] Countries/regions represented with self-report physical activity data; [b] countries/regions represented with device-measured physical activity data; [c] 2016 World Bank income classification groupings based on gross national income per capita, with no classification grouping assigned to 5countries/regions included (3.7%); [d] based on consensus from uniform survey data (*n* = 391 respondents).

Table 2. Sample characteristics of physical activity studies included (self-report and device-measured).

Physical activity studies *N* = 209	Self-report *N* = 170		Device-measured *N* = 39	
Sample characteristics				
Total *n*[a] (% female[b])	1,089,852	(51.4)	32,130	(51.3)
Study sample median (IQR)	2892	1710–4686	516	327–1111
Country/region sample median[c] (IQR)	3427	2087–5700	1003	457–1583
School level represented (%)				
Primary school age (6<12 years)	37	(21.8)	19	(48.7)
Secondary school age (12<18 years)	133	(78.2)	20	(51.3)
Year(s) of data collection[d] (range)	2005–2018		1997–2018	
% meeting guidelines (median (range))				
Primary school-aged boys	26.6	(5.8–80.0)	48.0	(12.5–96.3)
Primary school-aged girls	20.0	(2.8–66.2)	21.0	(6.0–87.0)
Secondary school-aged boys	19.6	(7.2–64.1)	35.0	(23.0–69.8)
Secondary school-aged girls	12.3	(5.3–55.0)	11.8	(2.0–52.1)

Note: *N* = countries, regions and studies represented; *n* = sample size or participants included.

[a] Data missing on total sample size from 3 self-report studies (1.8%) and 2 device-measured studies (5.1%); [b] data missing about total sample size or gender-specific sample size/percentage from 65 self-report studies (48.1%) and 8 device-measured studies (20.5%); [c] where uniform and physical activity data available for both school age settings; [d] indicates year(s) of physical activity data collection (or projection).

Abbreviation: IQR = interquartile range.

Table 3. Results of regression analyses, exploring associations between country/region-level uniform practices and population gender inequalities in physical activity guideline compliance.

		Absolute inequalities		**Relative inequalities**	
	***N*[a]**	***β***	**95%CI**	***β***	**95%CI**
Primary research question					
Uniform use (yes/no)	135	–0.2	(–1.7 to 1.3)	0.1	(–0.1 to 0.2)
Secondary research questions					
School level					
Interaction term	–	–	–	–	–
Uniform use × school level (ref: secondary)	135	5.9	(0.8–11.0)	0.3	(–0.1 to 0.7)
Stratified analysis					
Primary school age	37	4.3	(–0.0 to 8.6)	0.2	(–0.1 to 0.6)
Secondary school age	133	–1.6	(–3.3 to 0.6)	–0.1	(–0.3 to 0.1)
Uniform use (yes/no) (device-measured)	24	–2.2	(–10.8 to 6.4)	–1.1	(–2.3 to 0.1)

[a] Number of countries/regions represented in model.

Abbreviations: 95%CI = 95% confidence interval; *β* = beta coefficient.

Graphical abstract