

1 1 Motor Competence and Health

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5 1 **Motor Competence and its Effect on Positive **Developmental** Trajectories of Health**

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5 44 **Key Points**

- 6 45 1. A positive relationship exists between motor competence and physical activity across
7 46 childhood.
8 47 2. The strength of associations between MC and both cardiorespiratory endurance and
9 48 muscular strength/endurance tends to increase from childhood into adolescence.
10 49 3. Motor competence is both a precursor and a consequence of weight status and
11 50 demonstrates an inverse relationship across childhood and adolescence.
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14 53 **Abstract**

15 54 In 2008, Stodden and colleagues took a unique developmental approach toward addressing the
16 55 potential role of motor competence in promoting positive or negative trajectories of physical
17 56 activity, health-related fitness, and weight status. The conceptual model proposed synergistic
18 57 relationships among physical activity, motor competence, perceived motor skill competence,
19 58 health-related physical fitness, and obesity with associations hypothesized to strengthen over
20 59 time. At the time the model was proposed limited evidence was available to support or refute the
21 60 model hypotheses. Over the past six years there has been a significant increase in the number of
22 61 investigations that have explored these relationships. Thus, it is an appropriate time to examine
23 62 published data that directly or indirectly relate to specific pathways noted in the conceptual
24 63 model. Evidence indicates that motor competence is positively associated with perceived
25 64 competence and multiple aspects of health (i.e., physical activity, cardiorespiratory fitness,
26 65 muscular strength, muscular endurance and a healthy weight status). However, questions related
27 66 to the increased strength of associations across time and antecedent/consequent mechanisms
28 67 remain. An individual's physical and psychological development is a complex and multifaceted
29 68 process that synergistically evolves across time. Understanding the most salient factors that
30 69 influence health and well-being and how relationships among these factors change across time is
31 70 a critical need for future research in this area. This knowledge could aid in addressing the
32 71 declining levels of physical activity and fitness along with the increasing rates of obesity across
33 72 childhood and adolescence.
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5 81 **Motor Competence and its Effect on Positive Developmental Trajectories of Health**

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8 82 1. Introduction
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11 83 Promoting and sustaining health-enhancing physical activity (PA), health-related physical
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13 84 fitness (HRF), and healthy body weight in children and adolescents is a global pursuit. Over the
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15 85 past few decades, a wealth of research has been conducted in an attempt to alleviate the
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17 86 disturbing trends in these health domains. However, research indicates that these interventions
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19 87 have had limited success [1–4]. Largely unexplored is the understanding of how the development
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21 88 of multiple health-related variables may synergistically impact each other to promote either
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23 89 positive or negative trajectories of health. Conceptualizing this complex problem using a
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25 90 developmental framework may provide valuable insight as to why researchers have had limited
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27 91 success in increasing PA and HRF and decreasing obesity rates.
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34 92 In 2008, Stodden et al. [5] suggested that previous research had “...failed to consider the
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36 93 dynamic and synergistic role that motor competence (MC) plays in the initiation, maintenance,
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38 94 or decline of physical activity...” (p. 90). Motor Competence is a global term used in this paper
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40 95 to reflect various terminologies that have been used in previous literature (i.e., motor proficiency,
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42 96 motor performance, fundamental movement/motor skill, motor ability, and motor coordination)
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44 97 to describe goal-directed human movement. Using a unique developmental approach, a
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46 98 conceptual model was proposed by Stodden and colleagues [5] that addresses the potential role
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48 99 that the development of MC may have on promoting either positive or negative trajectories of
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51 100 PA and weight status (see Fig. 1). In addition, HRF and perceived motor skill competence were
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53 101 suggested as mediating variables in the model. While different causal pathways are hypothesized
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56 102 across different phases of childhood, the development of reciprocal relationships and increasing
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5 103 strengths of associations among the variables across time are critical assumptions within this
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7 104 model. The synergistic nature of relationships among variables is suggested to promote either
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9 105 positive or negative trajectories of PA, HRF, and weight status across childhood and into
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11 106 adolescence. Ultimately, the lack of an adequate foundation of MC may be linked to a
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13 107 hypothetical “proficiency barrier” [6] where low-MC individuals may not demonstrate health-
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15 108 enhancing levels of PA and HRF later in life [7]. These low-skilled individuals may also be at
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17 109 greater risk for obesity across childhood and adolescence. Overall, the model provides a testable
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19 110 framework focusing on multiple individual, behavioral, and psychological constraints.
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25 111 -----INSERT FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE-----
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28 112 It is imperative to note that indirect support for the development of actual MC is evident
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30 113 in many theoretical models as it relates to the development of positive health-enhancing
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32 114 behaviors across the lifespan. When examining health behavior change, prominent theories
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34 115 consider an individual’s psychological disposition to be physically active. Many of these
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36 116 theories, including Self-Determination Theory [8], Achievement Goal Theory [9], Theory of
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38 117 Planned Behavior [10], the Transtheoretical Model [11], and Social Cognitive Theory [12]
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40 118 address some form of an individual’s perceptions of competence, physical capability, or self-
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42 119 efficacy. Perceptions of competence and/or self-efficacy, which are situated within the context of
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44 120 an individual’s actual competence (either globally or specific to an activity), are noted as
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46 121 important factors for promoting engagement in various leisure physical activities [5]. In addition,
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48 122 these psychological factors support other psychological health outcomes that are critical for
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50 123 promoting a positive environment of social interaction and acceptance in childhood, which also
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52 124 are important to promote PA [13]. For instance, obese youth are more likely than healthy-weight
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54 125 peers to encounter psychosocial problems such as lower health-related quality of life, anxiety,
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5 126 poor self-esteem, depression, lower social competence, and negative family interactions [14–17].
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7 127 Additionally, physical literacy has emerged as a prominent theoretical paradigm since 2008 [18].
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9 128 The focus of physical literacy is on the development of self and social awareness, self-regulation
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11 129 and responsible decision making to foster overall personal well-being. In turn, this reinforces the
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13 130 notion of the integration of physical, psychological, and social traits and behaviors for healthy
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15 131 development. The physically literate individual is a physically educated person with the ability to
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17 132 use these skills in everyday life and who has the disposition towards purposeful physical activity
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19 133 as an integral part of daily living [19]. Therefore, when addressing long-term behavioral change,
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21 134 the linkage of positive psychological and social development, which is related to an individual's
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23 135 belief in their actual competence, should be valued.

1.1. Importance of Motor Competence

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33 137 A majority of psychology-based behavior change theories address the concept of
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35 138 individual perceptions of competence from a motivation standpoint. However, it is also essential
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37 139 to understand the importance of actual MC and its relationship to PA, HRF, and weight status
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40 140 from both a movement and developmental perspective. Childhood is a critical time for the
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42 141 development of MC [20], which enables children and adolescents to successfully participate in
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44 142 various types of PA [20, 21]. For example, successful participation in many structured and non-
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46 143 structured activities, games, and sports (e.g., hopscotch, cricket, four-square, tennis, basketball,
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48 144 dance, etc.) demands a certain degree of competence in many fundamental motor skills (e.g.,
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50 145 running, catching, throwing, hopping, balance, and striking). However, multiple enabling and
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52 146 disabling constraints are present across childhood and adolescence that influence a child's
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54 147 developmental trajectory. Biological and environmental constraints [22] affect changes in growth
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57 148 and MC, and these constraints can either positively or negatively affect PA participation. There
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5 149 is a clear connect between the environmental context (e.g., aspects of the home, school, culture,
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7 150 psychological and social influences) to MC and this connection is supported by
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10 151 Bronfenbrenner’s Ecological Systems [23], Gibson’s Ecological Perspective [24] and Newell’s
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12 152 Constraints Model [25]. One common thread among these approaches is that the human system
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14 153 is not pre-wired for ontogenetically-defined skilled movement behaviors. Rather, these behaviors
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17 154 are adaptable properties promoted through complex interactions of biological, psychological,
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19 155 instructional, and environmental constraints that change across time. One important distinction
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22 156 noted in this paper is that development is age-related and not age-determined. Thus, the
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24 157 expression of different phases of physical, cognitive, social and psychological development
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27 158 across childhood (which for the purposes of this paper will be generally defined as: early
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29 159 childhood [2-5 years], middle childhood [6-9 years], late childhood [10-13 years] and
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32 160 adolescence [14-18 years]) can be ambiguous and are relative to the development of an
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34 161 individual child. It is also important to understand that the development and learning of MC is a
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36 162 process that ultimately results in a relatively permanent change in an individual’s behavioral
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39 163 capability [26–29]. This is in contrast to PA level, HRF, and weight status, which are more
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41 164 adaptable and/or transient outcomes.

44 165 Recent meta-analyses and reviews highlight the idea that motor skills need to be taught
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46 166 and reinforced and do not develop “naturally” or automatically over time [30–32]. Robinson et
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49 167 al. [29, 33–35] found that children who are directed by specialists to learn motor skills display
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51 168 greater increases in MC compared to children who engage in free play. Robinson and colleagues
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54 169 [29, 33, 34] also note that the instructional approach used to teach motor skills along with basic
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56 170 learning principles and the amount and context of experiences influence the stability of MC.
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59 171 Thus, it is important to foster continued learning and development of MC through practice and
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172 participation in developmentally appropriate activities that demand more advanced movement
173 patterns and higher levels of performance in a variety of movement contexts [21, 27–29].

174 At the time the model by Stodden et al. [5] was published, limited research was available
175 to indicate whether hypotheses of the proposed model were plausible. In the six years since this
176 paper was published, research in this area has greatly expanded and thus, it is an opportune time
177 to revisit the data that both directly or indirectly relate to the model hypotheses and determine
178 whether the hypotheses are supported from a developmental perspective. **Therefore, the purpose**
179 **of this narrative review is to explore the direct and indirect synergistic relationships among**
180 **motor competence and physical activity, health-related physical fitness, perceived motor skill**
181 **competence, and weight status. We generally focused on related articles published from 2008 –**
182 **2014 (i.e. published since the previous model by Stodden et al [5]), accessing relevant databases**
183 **including Academic Search Premier, CINAHL, PsychINFO, PubMed/Medline, ERIC, Cochrane,**
184 **SportDiscus, and also author references, to review articles that provided a balanced picture of the**
185 **literature.**

186 Recent systematic reviews [30, 36–39] relating to individual model pathways and key
187 cross-sectional, longitudinal, and experimental data are highlighted in subsequent sections to
188 provide a global picture of data relating to the model hypotheses. In addition, we cite emerging
189 evidence demonstrating that these factors are critical for promoting positive trajectories of
190 growth, development and health across childhood and for an individual's health and quality of
191 life.

192 2. Motor Competence and Physical Activity

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5 194 The Stodden et al. model [5] suggests PA in early childhood will initially promote the
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7 195 development of MC as basic motor patterns are developed through a variety of exploratory
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9 196 movement experiences. However, as children enter middle and late childhood, the model
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11 197 suggests the MC/PA relationship becomes more reciprocal due to the continued development and
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13 198 importance of more complex movement patterns (e.g., fundamental motor skills), which is
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15 199 suggested to augment success and the development of HRF and perceived competence (See
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17 200 sections 3 and 4). This progression fosters continued participation in a variety of physical
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19 201 activities as children enjoy success and are motivated to continue to improve. A lack of MC
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21 202 development is hypothesized to lead to a negative spiral of disengagement in PA as children lack
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23 203 the competence and confidence to move and will not enjoy participation in activities where they
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25 204 understand they will not be successful.
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32 205 While limited data on associations between MC and PA were available in 2008, recent
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34 206 investigations have shed additional light on this aspect of the model. When considering recent
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36 207 evidence, a picture begins to emerge that provides a deeper level of understanding about how the
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38 208 relationship between MC and PA changes over time. Three review articles have examined the
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40 209 relationship between MC (differentially defined) and PA in children and adolescents. Lubans et
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42 210 al. [36] reviewed 21 studies that included both product- and process-oriented assessments of MC
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44 211 (i.e., specifically fundamental motor skills) in relation to a variety of health-related outcomes,
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46 212 including PA. Of the 21 studies, 13 specifically examined the relationship between MC and PA.
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48 213 Twelve of the 13 studies found a positive association between MC and PA and this review
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50 214 concluded that a positive association between MC and PA exists. However, strengths of
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52 215 associations were not provided to describe the magnitude of associations. For the remainder of
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the paper, strength of associations will be defined as noted by Cohen [40]: 0.10-0.29 = low; 0.30-0.49 = moderate; and 0.50 and higher = strong.

Holfelder and Schott [37] also reviewed the relationship between MC and PA. Similar to Lubans et al. [36], product- and process-oriented assessments of MC were administered in the papers reviewed. However, Holfelder and Schott [37] review included measures of motor abilities, motor coordination, as well as fundamental motor skills, and found that 12 of the 23 studies had a positive associations between MC and PA ($r = .10$ to $r = .92$). The authors concluded that evidence suggests a cause-effect relationship between MC and PA, but the relationship has yet to be conclusively demonstrated as limited experimental data exists. Recently, Logan and colleagues [41] published a similar review that focused on only process-oriented assessments to measure MC (i.e., fundamental motor skills). Of the 13 studies noted in the review, 12 reported a positive correlation between MC and PA ($r = .20$ to $r = .55$) [41].

Two longitudinal studies appear to provide the support for the developmental trajectory hypothesis between MC and PA. Barnett and colleagues [26] found that object control skills in childhood accounted for 3.6% and 18.2% of participation in moderate-to-vigorous PA and organized PA, respectively, during adolescence. However, childhood locomotor skill competence was not related to adolescent PA. Additionally, Lopes et al. [42] found that children with high MC at age six demonstrated sustained high self-reported levels of PA after three years compared to children of low and moderate MC whom exhibited declines in PA over this time. It is important to note that whilst these longitudinal studies provide stronger evidence than cross sectional studies, only one found object-control skills in childhood explained a significant but small proportion of the variance in MVPA during adolescence [26]. Also, both studies collected PA via self-report rather than objective measures. Nevertheless, the follow up time for both

239 studies was extensive and considering all the other factors that have been shown to influence PA,
240 these studies still suggest a causal relationship between MC and PA. Furthermore, these findings
241 are supported by a recent RCT. The SCORES multi-component school intervention resulted in
242 improvements in fundamental motor skill competence and maintenance of PA levels in the
243 intervention group compared to a decline in the control group [43].

244 Overall, data strongly supports a positive relationship between MC and PA across
245 childhood. Data indicate low to moderate associations from early childhood through middle
246 childhood years. During adolescence, there are simply not enough studies to make any
247 reasonable conclusions about the relationship between MC and PA strengthening over time. In
248 addition, methodological issues limit the ability to compare findings across studies. PA in
249 previous studies has been assessed in many different ways (i.e., self-report questionnaires,
250 objective measures such as pedometers and accelerometers, and direct observation). PA is also
251 operationalized differently in terms of intensity, steps, leisure participation and patterns
252 throughout the day (i.e. weekday versus weekend e.g. Fowweather et al. [44]). MC also was
253 measured using many different assessments (i.e., qualitative and quantitative outcomes) that
254 emphasized a variety of aspects of the motor domain. Additionally, some MC assessment data
255 were norm- or criterion-referenced and individual or composite measures of a variety of MC
256 outcomes were noted in other studies. These measurement factors are important to consider for
257 future investigations. For example, one recent study reported no association between MC and PA
258 in middle childhood, with authors speculating this may have occurred because a) a majority of
259 the children were highly active (i.e., mean per day 1.5 hours) thus limiting the opportunity to
260 discriminate based on MC and b) there may have been a ceiling effect with the Test of Gross
261 Motor Development-2nd edition (TGMD-2) scoring based on the age of the children tested [45].

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262 Until a consensus is reached relative to MC and PA measurement methodology and
263 measures are consistently used in the literature, it will be difficult to examine whether changes in
264 strengths of associations occur across time. We recommend as a start that researchers use
265 assessments that have been used outside of their own country to collect MC data. If countries
266 only use their own specific instrument to assess MC it does not help to move the field forwards.
267 We suggest that both process (e.g. the TGMD) and product measures (e.g. the
268 Körperkoordination Test für Kinder) of MC will provide a more comprehensive assessment of
269 MC than either alone. Further reliability and validity studies of these more well used instruments
270 in a range of countries will mean we will be better able to compare children's MC across the
271 globe and compare the findings. Furthermore, as the objective measurement of PA improves and
272 becomes more sophisticated it is possible that pattern recognition will help isolate the aspects of
273 PA behavior that link to MC by accurately identifying activity recognition and activity level
274 assessment [46]. In summary, evidence indicates there is a positive association between MC and
275 PA. However, the strength of associations across developmental time remains unclear.

276 3. Motor Competence and Health-related Fitness

277 The relationship between MC and multiple aspects of HRF (i.e., cardiorespiratory fitness,
278 muscular strength, muscular endurance and flexibility) has a storied history [47]. Explaining
279 associations between these two distinct yet related constructs is multifaceted as complex
280 neuromuscular function is inherently integrated within both constructs [48]. In essence, many
281 MC and HRF tests commonly promoted in youth populations involve complex goal-directed
282 movements that require concentric and eccentric muscle actions that produce moderate to high
283 force, speed, precision or a combination of these attributes.

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5 284 The Stodden et al. model [5] suggests that the development of MC will initially promote
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7 285 HRF in early childhood and, in middle and late childhood, HRF would mediate the relationship
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9 286 between MC and PA as increased fitness would hypothetically facilitate continued engagement
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11 287 in PA for longer periods. While no studies have directly addressed the mediating aspect of the
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13 288 model, a recent review article [39] generally noted strong evidence of a positive association
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15 289 between MC and cardiorespiratory fitness ($r = 0.32$ to $r = 0.57$) and muscular strength/endurance
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17 290 ($r = 0.27$ to $r = 0.68$) in childhood and adolescence. Data on flexibility were limited and results
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19 291 were inconclusive. Only a few studies in this review noted null associations between MC and
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21 292 either cardiorespiratory endurance or muscular strength/endurance and these were generally in
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23 293 younger children. As noted by the model hypotheses, the strength of associations between MC
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25 294 and both cardiorespiratory endurance and muscular strength/endurance tends to increase from
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27 295 childhood (null to moderate correlations) into adolescence (mostly moderate correlations) [39].
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29 296 Evidence does support that these associations may be sustained even into young adulthood
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31 297 (moderate correlations) [7, 49].
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39 298 While most evidence demonstrates that these trends are cross-sectional, recent
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41 299 longitudinal and experimental data provide stronger scientific evidence for associations among
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43 300 these variables in both childhood and adolescence [50–53]. Both direct (i.e., improved
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45 301 neuromuscular function) and indirect associations (i.e., motivation and choice of participation in
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47 302 various types of physical activities) suggests a synergistic mechanism may be the most plausible
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49 303 explanation to understand the increased strength of associations between these factors across
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51 304 childhood and into adolescence [48]. Finally, maturational status [54] and its association with
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53 305 MC and HRF is important to address in future research. Maturation is the timing (e.g., specific
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55 306 maturational events like the appearance of secondary sex characteristics) and tempo (e.g., rate at
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5 307 which maturation progresses - how quickly or slowly an individual goes through sexual
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7 308 maturity) of progress toward a mature biological state that occurs in all tissues, organs, and organ
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9 309 systems, affecting enzymes, chemical compositions, and functions [55]. However, maturation
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11 310 may have a limited impact on different aspects of MC, as Freitas et al. [56] noted that the
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14 311 influence of maturation (i.e., skeletal age interacting with body size) has a negligible influence
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17 312 on MC in children aged 7-10 years.

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20 313 4. Motor Competence and Perceived Competence
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23 314 Perceived competence refers to an individual's perception of their actual movement
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25 315 capabilities [57] and is highlighted in the Stodden et al. model [5] as an important factor that
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28 316 mediates the role between actual MC and PA. In other words, there is an indirect relationship
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30 317 between MC and PA through an individual's perception of their competence. For this to occur,
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33 318 perceived competence needs to be associated with actual MC and PA. Associations are purported
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35 319 to increase in strength as children age as the development of a child's cognitive ability to
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38 320 accurately assess their competence becomes more established in middle childhood. Thus, middle
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40 321 childhood is proposed to be a critical time where the positive or negative trajectories of PA,
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42 322 HRF, and weight status (related to MC) begin to diverge. At the time the model was published,
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45 323 limited evidence was cited to support this [58, 59]. More recent work provides additional support
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48 324 regarding the differential role of perceived competence as it relates to both actual MC and PA in
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50 325 children and adolescence.

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53 326 A recent systematic review by Babic et al. [38] noted that perceived competence had the
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55 327 strongest relationship to PA compared to other aspects of self-concept. This review also found
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58 328 age moderated the relationship. Both of these findings align with the Stodden et al. [5]
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60 329 hypotheses. However this review only included one study of perceived competence in children
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5 330 with the remainder in adolescents and found that the strongest association was in early
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7 331 adolescence, not later adolescence. Sex was not found to be a moderator in the Babic et al review
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9 332 [38], although studies in children have found the relationship between perceived competence and
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11 333 PA did differ according to sex. For example, in older Portuguese boys (aged 8-10 years) there
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14 334 was an association between perceived competence and self-report PA, but not for girls [60].
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17 335 During early childhood, evidence of positive associations between perceived and actual
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19 336 MC has been noted across various cultures including Canadian [61], American [34], and German
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21 337 children [62]. In contrast, a study in young Brazilian children found no relationship [63]. It is
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24 338 difficult to truly ascertain strengths of association between perceived competence and actual
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27 339 competence as assessments of perceived competence do not closely align with assessments of
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29 340 MC in terms of particular skill domains [64] or even general measures of self-concept [38]. For
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31 341 instance, surveys assessing physical self-perceptions tend to include broader questions relating to
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34 342 general competency in the physical domain [65, 66] as opposed to assessments of actual MC that
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36 343 might be targeted to particular competence sub-domains such as object control and locomotor
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39 344 competence [67]. It is likely that children at different levels of cognitive development may have
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41 345 different perceptions of their ability in specific physical domains (e.g., MC, PA, or HRF) and
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44 346 future research should explore the alignment of actual competence and perceived competence
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46 347 assessments [64]. Two recent Australian articles do align measures of actual and perceived
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49 348 object control skill competence in young children, finding positive associations [68, 69], but
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51 349 further research is needed to see if the strength of association differs for different skill or activity
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53 350 types and across age.
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56 351 There is also preliminary support for perceived competence as a mediator. Barnett et al.
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59 352 found perceived competence mediated children's object control competence (but not locomotor
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competence) and self-report PA during the adolescence years six years later [70]. In addition, perceived competence mediated object control competence and self-report PA in adolescence, and this relationship also worked in the reverse direction (when PA was the predictor) [71] providing support for the model in that these pathways may be reciprocal. However a recent study in young children did not find this to be the case [72], which follows the model hypothesis that relationships between these constructs emerge as children age. Babic et al's systematic review did note that whilst there is sufficient evidence to conclude a bi-directional relationship between PA and physical self-concept, that future researchers could seek to further explore mediation analyses [38].

5. Motor Competence and Weight Status

As initially hypothesized, an important outcome of the model is the development of a healthy or unhealthy weight status [5]. Research documenting associations between MC and various measures of weight status has increased substantially since 2008. Evidence from several cross-sectional studies with large samples of children, adolescents and young adults clearly demonstrates an inverse association ($r = -0.20$ to $r = -0.62$) between both factors using various MC and weight status measures [7, 42, 73–76]. In addition, differences in MC levels of overweight/obese children as compared to healthy weight peers are more evident in tasks requiring manipulation of total body mass [74, 77, 78]. Inverse associations between MC and weight status emerge at pre-school age [76, 79, 80], and become stronger during elementary school years [42, 75]. Beyond this age, evidence is less conclusive. Some studies indicate that the strength of association tends to decline again with puberty into adolescence [42, 73], whereas others found strong(er) correlations in adolescents [81] and young adults [7] as compared to childhood.

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5 376 Many authors have stressed the crucial need for longitudinal and experimental research to
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7 377 examine a possible antecedent/consequent mechanism between MC and weight status. One
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9 378 explanation is that excess mass impedes stabilization and/or propulsion of the body, promoting
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11 379 lower actual and perceived MC, which decreases the likelihood of overweight/obese individuals
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13 380 being physically active [59, 82–85]. It has been suggested that the weight status of infants (i.e.,
14
15 381 being overweight) is related to motor development impairment [86]. Likewise, body mass index
16
17 382 was noted to be an important predictor of future MC in childhood [85, 87]. Alternatively,
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19 383 children’s MC level was also suggested to be a significant predictor of adiposity [85, 88–90].
20
21 384 Unfortunately, no experimental designs can corroborate causal pathways.
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27 385 Diverse pathways of MC across childhood and adolescence are associated with higher or lower
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29 386 levels of PA and that pathway also may assist in the development of differential trajectories of
30
31 387 weight status over time. Most studies reporting an adverse association between MC and weight
32
33 388 status did not adjust for PA, but when PA was taken into account its role turned out to be rather
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35 389 limited [84, 85, 88, 91]. A longitudinal study by D’Hondt et al. [87] demonstrated an
36
37 390 increasingly widening gap in gross motor coordination with overweight and obese children
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39 391 showing poor MC as well as reduced age-related progress compared to normal-weight peers.
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41 392 Children’s body mass index at baseline negatively predicted and explained 37.6% of the variance
42
43 393 in gross motor coordination over time, while participation in organized sports were a positive
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45 394 predictor. D’Hondt et al. [85] also found that the level of MC negatively influences body mass
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47 395 index overtime while baseline physical activity did not mediate the adverse relationship between
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49 396 weight status and MC. Unfortunately, no longitudinal evidence on associations of MC and
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51 397 weight status is available in early childhood or adolescent age ranges. However, the strongest
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5 398 inverse correlations reported between MC and a measure of weight status (i.e., %body fat) were
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7 399 in young adults aged 18-25 ($r = 0.56$ to $r = 0.73$) [7].
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10 400 Based on the available data, MC may be considered both as a precursor and a
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12 401 consequence of weight status in childhood. As hypothesized in Stodden et al.[5] this reciprocal
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15 402 relationship is likely to be synergistically influenced by PA, HRF, and perceived competence
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17 403 leading to a variety of individual trajectories across developmental time as noted by Rodrigues
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19
20 404 and colleagues [92]. Additional longitudinal research (including evidence from intervention
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22 405 studies) should take into account any additional variables (including but not limited to diet,
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25 406 genetics, growth, and maturation) that may influence the inverse associations between MC and
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27 407 weight status throughout childhood, adolescence and (young) adulthood, and examine the
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30 408 individual developmental pathways of change conceptualized in the original model [5].
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32 409 6. Future Directions 33 34

35 410 Overall, there is a strong consensus that MC is positively associated with all health-
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38 411 related variables within the model [5]. Based on the research that has been published since 2008
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41 412 (see Figure 2), the model hypotheses have initial empirical support. Data for some pathways are
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43 413 stronger than others and some pathways have yet to be tested. Emerging evidence also indicates
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45 414 increasing strength in associations between MC and weight status (inverse), and HRF (direct)
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48 415 across childhood into adolescence, while associations between MC and PA and perceived
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50 416 competence are variable across time. In addition, perceived competence has been identified as a
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53 417 potential mediator (as noted in the model) in the MC and PA pathway.
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55 418 To promote future research as it relates to Figure 2, there are several model hypotheses
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58 419 that have yet to be confirmed and warrant exploration. The original model [5] situated HRF as a
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5 420 mediator between MC and PA. This is yet to be confirmed empirically. PMC was also situated as
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7 421 a mediator and there is emerging evidence of this hypothesis, although further research could
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9 422 seek to explore this aspect further. Whilst there has been research on perceived physical
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11 423 competence (in terms of general physical perceptions) and actual MC, there is less research on
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13 424 perceived MC and actual MC, so the specificity of these relationships could be further
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15 425 investigated. In terms of MC and PA, future studies may wish to examine different contexts of
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17 426 PA. It seems plausible that MC will only be related to discrete time periods for PA, and perhaps
18
19 427 the nature of the association between MC/PA is diluted by examining daily averages of PA
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21 428 outcomes (which includes periods such as school that tend to encourage sedentary behavior). For
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23 429 example, weekday and weekend variations [44], or focusing on segments on the day that are
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25 430 critical periods for PA such as recess and afterschool [93] may help to further illuminate the
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27 431 relationship between MC and PA.
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34 432 Following the developmental underpinnings of this model, data from a few studies
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36 433 indicate that object control/manipulation skills may be more salient predictors of PA [26, 93] and
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38 434 HRF [48, 52, 53], in later childhood and early adolescence. However, data support that
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40 435 locomotor skills are critical during the early childhood years for PA [33, 94]. This aligns with
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42 436 motor development literature as locomotor skills generally develop earlier than object
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44 437 control/manipulation/ball skills. Further examination of this question is important as some MC
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46 438 test batteries are limited in their testing of object control/manipulation skills (i.e.,
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48 439 Körperkoordination Test für Kinde, Movement Assessment Battery for Children, Bruininks-
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50 440 Oseretsky Test of Motor Proficiency). In addition, measurement issues are important to address
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52 441 as there is a wide variety of PA, MC, perceived competence, and weight status assessments used
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54 442 in the literature, which makes it difficult to accurately ascertain the strength of associations
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5 443 across age. However, longitudinal data [39, 42, 85, 87] does provide valuable insight on the
6
7 444 hypothesized positive or negative developmental trajectories PA, HRF, and weight status based
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9 445 on the tracking of MC levels.
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12 446 Recent years have seen an increased interest in the area of cognitive function/health.
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15 447 Research clearly supports the positive benefits of PA on cognitive function and emerging
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17 448 evidence supports the connection of MC to cognition [95–104]. This connection seems intuitive
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20 449 based on the complex and multilevel cognitive involvement inherent in neuromotor “learning.”
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22 450 A growing body of literature also indicates cognitive/executive function (e.g., attentional control,
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25 451 working memory, and inhibition) [95, 97, 98, 101–103] and academic performance [96, 97, 99,
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27 452 105] is positively associated with cardiorespiratory fitness, weight status, as well as PA in youth
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30 453 and adults.
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32
33 454 A review from Haapala [106] examined associations between MC and aspects of
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35 455 cognitive function and academic achievement. Ten of the included articles focused on some
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38 456 aspects of MC and eight studies noted positive associations between MC and cognitive tests that
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40 457 included tasks for IQ, attention, inhibitory control, item memory and academic performance.
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42 458 More specifically, correlational studies indicate children with higher levels of MC exhibit higher
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45 459 order cognitive function [107], working memory, and processing speed [108] as well as various
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47 460 measures of academic achievement [109–111]. Haapala and colleagues recently found children,
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50 461 ages 6 – 8 years, with poor motor skill competence also exhibited worse cognition and this
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52 462 relationship was more pronounced in boys [112]. The effect of motor skill interventions on
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55 463 cognitive and executive functioning is limited, but emerging findings are also positive [113–
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57 464 115]. Examining whether improved cognition and executive function outcomes in children result
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59 465 from both persistent PA (i.e., due to the act of PA) as well as cognitive neural development
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5 466 associated with various types of context-specific motor development warrants further attention
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7 467 [116–118]. In addition, if the strength of associations between MC and HRF, weight status as
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9 468 well as PA increase across time, would the associations between MC and cognitive factors also
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11 469 increase across developmental time?
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15 470 -----INSERT FIGURE 2 ABOUT HERE -----
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18 471 Specifically related to the demonstration of positive or negative developmental
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20 472 trajectories is an untested hypothesis relating to a “proficiency barrier.” In 1980, Seefeldt [6]
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22 473 proposed the idea of a critical level of MC that would be related to participation in activities
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24 474 requiring the application of MC. Thus, if an individual were below this proficiency barrier, they
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26 475 may be at greater risk for decreased PA and HRF. A recently published paper by Malina [54]
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28 476 also noted this topic was related to a “top ten” question for understanding the development of
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30 477 obesity. Limited preliminary data indirectly support the proficiency barrier hypothesis with
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32 478 young adults. Only 3 percent of a sample of 18-25 year olds with “low” MC demonstrated
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34 479 “good” fitness, as defined by a composite measure of muscular strength, muscular endurance and
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36 480 cardiorespiratory endurance [49]. Thus, Seefeldt’s proficiency barrier hypothesis is a logical and
37
38 481 critically important extension of the positive or negative trajectory hypotheses of the Stodden et
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40 482 al. model [5], not only for PA, HRF and weight status, but also for long-term health-related
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42 483 outcomes. To our knowledge, the association of MC to long-term health outcomes has not been
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44 484 addressed in the MC literature [3]. As a greater percentage of the population is approaching
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46 485 elderly status, would the development of MC (analogous to functional capacity) in childhood and
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48 486 adolescence promote long-term functional capacity, independence and decreased chronic disease
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50 487 and all-cause mortality in an aging population? As noted previously in section 1 and 1.1, the
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52 488 development and learning of MC is associated with a relatively permanent change in behavior
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21 Motor Competence and Health

and MC can be defined as an individual's capacity to coordinate and control their center of mass and extremities in a gravity-based environment [7]. Thus, highly developed MC in childhood/adolescence has the potential to foster lifelong functional independence and quality of life.

7. Conclusions

Based on the increased interest of the scientific community and data linking MC to various aspects of health across childhood, adolescence, and young adulthood, further testing of the specific hypotheses (i.e., differential trajectories and causal pathways) within the model is warranted. We believe this approach should continue to be tested, modified, or adapted to examine its feasibility and predictive utility. As noted in many cross-sectional and longitudinal studies, demonstrating antecedent/consequent relationships among variables in the model remains speculative without well-conducted experimental evidence. Interventions targeting young children should be initiated during the early childhood years as MC and PA behaviors should be established early in life and they often track into the adult years.

Collectively, children's physical and psychological development is a complex labyrinth of biological, environmental, psychosocial, and behavioral factors that synergistically evolve across developmental time. Additionally, rationale for causal pathways in the model may not be unidirectional across time. These are two critical features that separate it from other theoretical models that are used as paradigms to promote various aspects of health. Understanding the most salient factors that influence health and well-being of individuals and how relationships among these factors change across time is a worthwhile endeavor that should be approached in both a developmental and systematic manner.

22 Motor Competence and Health

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18 523 paper that includes drafting and revising the article. All authors approved the final manuscript
19 524 and agree to be accountable for all aspects of the work. Specifically, authors worked
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21 526

22 527 Dr. Robinson: the Introduction, perceived competence, and future directions/conclusion
23 528 sections.

24 529 Dr. Stodden: the Introduction, health-related fitness, and future directions/conclusion sections.

25 530 Dr. Barnett: the physical activity and perceived competence sections along with the
26 531 development of Figure 2.

27 532 Dr. Lopes: the weight status and future directions/conclusion sections.

28 533 Dr. Logan: the physical activity section.

29 534 Dr. Rodrigues: the weight status and health-related fitness sections.

30 535 Dr. D'Hondt: the weight status section.
31 536
32 537
33 538

34 539 **References**
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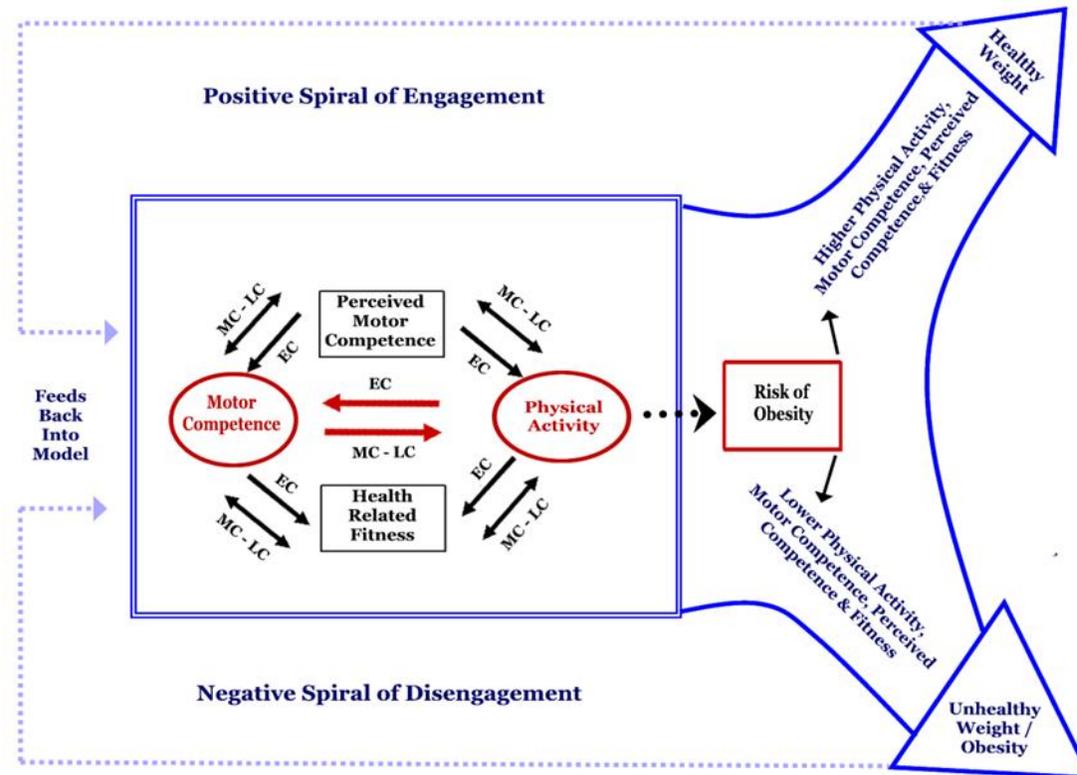


Figure 1. Developmental model proposed by Stodden et al. (reference) hypothesizing developmental relationships between motor competence, health-related physical fitness, perceived motor competence, physical activity and risk of obesity.

Note: EC = early childhood, MC = middle childhood, LC = late childhood.

A developmental perspective on the role of motor skill competence in physical activity: An emergent relationship, Stodden et al, *Quest*.
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Figure 1. Legend.

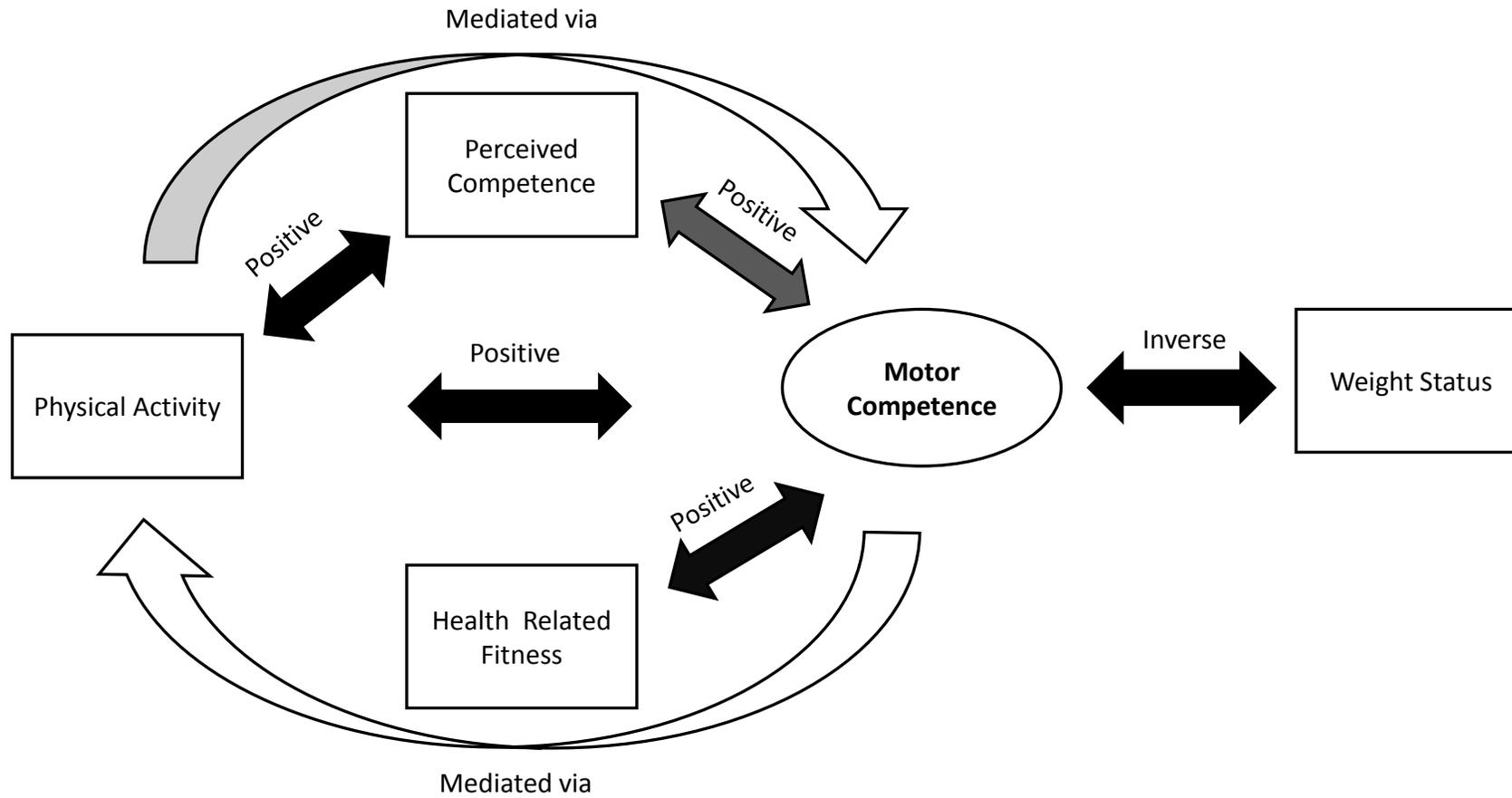


Figure 2. Research consensus on motor competence and health-related variables.

Key to Arrows:

Black: Extensively tested: consistent relationship

Dark Grey: Moderately tested: variable relationship

Partial Grey: Partially tested: some evidence

White: Limited testing

Note* See direction of relationship above arrows

Figure 2. Legend.

1 1 Motor Competence and Health

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5 1 **Motor Competence and its Effect on Positive Developmental Trajectories of Health**

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9 3 Vitor P. Lopes⁴, Samuel W. Logan⁵, Luís Paulo Rodrigues⁶, & Eva D'Hondt^{7,8}

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25 17
26 18 **Short title:** Motor competence and health

27 19
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29 21 **Word Count:** 5614

1 2 Motor Competence and Health
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5 44 **Key Points**

- 6 45 1. A positive relationship exists between motor competence and physical activity across
7 46 childhood.
8 47 2. The strength of associations between MC and both cardiorespiratory endurance and
9 48 muscular strength/endurance tends to increase from childhood into adolescence.
10 49 3. Motor competence is both a precursor and a consequence of weight status and
11 50 demonstrates an inverse relationship across childhood and adolescence.
12 51
13 52

14 53 **Abstract**

15 54 In 2008, Stodden and colleagues took a unique developmental approach toward addressing the
16 55 potential role of motor competence in promoting positive or negative trajectories of physical
17 56 activity, health-related fitness, and weight status. The conceptual model proposed synergistic
18 57 relationships among physical activity, motor competence, perceived motor skill competence,
19 58 health-related physical fitness, and obesity with associations hypothesized to strengthen over
20 59 time. At the time the model was proposed limited evidence was available to support or refute the
21 60 model hypotheses. Over the past six years there has been a significant increase in the number of
22 61 investigations that have explored these relationships. Thus, it is an appropriate time to examine
23 62 published data that directly or indirectly relate to specific pathways noted in the conceptual
24 63 model. Evidence indicates that motor competence is positively associated with perceived
25 64 competence and multiple aspects of health (i.e., physical activity, cardiorespiratory fitness,
26 65 muscular strength, muscular endurance and a healthy weight status). However, questions related
27 66 to the increased strength of associations across time and antecedent/consequent mechanisms
28 67 remain. An individual's physical and psychological development is a complex and multifaceted
29 68 process that synergistically evolves across time. Understanding the most salient factors that
30 69 influence health and well-being and how relationships among these factors change across time is
31 70 a critical need for future research in this area. This knowledge could aid in addressing the
32 71 declining levels of physical activity and fitness along with the increasing rates of obesity across
33 72 childhood and adolescence.
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5 81 **Motor Competence and its Effect on Positive Developmental Trajectories of Health**
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8 82 1. Introduction
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11 83 Promoting and sustaining health-enhancing physical activity (PA), health-related physical
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13 84 fitness (HRF), and healthy body weight in children and adolescents is a global pursuit. Over the
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15 85 past few decades, a wealth of research has been conducted in an attempt to alleviate the
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17 86 disturbing trends in these health domains. However, research indicates that these interventions
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19 87 have had limited success [1–4]. Largely unexplored is the understanding of how the development
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21 88 of multiple health-related variables may synergistically impact each other to promote either
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23 89 positive or negative trajectories of health. Conceptualizing this complex problem using a
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25 90 developmental framework may provide valuable insight as to why researchers have had limited
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27 91 success in increasing PA and HRF and decreasing obesity rates.
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34 92 In 2008, Stodden et al. [5] suggested that previous research had “...failed to consider the
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36 93 dynamic and synergistic role that motor competence (MC) plays in the initiation, maintenance,
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38 94 or decline of physical activity...” (p. 90). Motor Competence is a global term used in this paper
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40 95 to reflect various terminologies that have been used in previous literature (i.e., motor proficiency,
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42 96 motor performance, fundamental movement/motor skill, motor ability, and motor coordination)
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44 97 to describe goal-directed human movement. Using a unique developmental approach, a
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46 98 conceptual model was proposed by Stodden and colleagues [5] that addresses the potential role
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48 99 that the development of MC may have on promoting either positive or negative trajectories of
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51 100 PA and weight status (see Fig. 1). In addition, HRF and perceived motor skill competence were
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53 101 suggested as mediating variables in the model. While different causal pathways are hypothesized
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56 102 across different phases of childhood, the development of reciprocal relationships and increasing
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4 Motor Competence and Health

103 strengths of associations among the variables across time are critical assumptions within this
104 model. The synergistic nature of relationships among variables is suggested to promote either
105 positive or negative trajectories of PA, HRF, and weight status across childhood and into
106 adolescence. Ultimately, the lack of an adequate foundation of MC may be linked to a
107 hypothetical “proficiency barrier” [6] where low-MC individuals may not demonstrate health-
108 enhancing levels of PA and HRF later in life [7]. These low-skilled individuals may also be at
109 greater risk for obesity across childhood and adolescence. Overall, the model provides a testable
110 framework focusing on multiple individual, behavioral, and psychological constraints.

-----INSERT FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE-----

112 It is imperative to note that indirect support for the development of actual MC is evident
113 in many theoretical models as it relates to the development of positive health-enhancing
114 behaviors across the lifespan. When examining health behavior change, prominent theories
115 consider an individual’s psychological disposition to be physically active. Many of these
116 theories, including Self-Determination Theory [8], Achievement Goal Theory [9], Theory of
117 Planned Behavior [10], the Transtheoretical Model [11], and Social Cognitive Theory [12]
118 address some form of an individual’s perceptions of competence, physical capability, or self-
119 efficacy. Perceptions of competence and/or self-efficacy, which are situated within the context of
120 an individual’s actual competence (either globally or specific to an activity), are noted as
121 important factors for promoting engagement in various leisure physical activities [5]. In addition,
122 these psychological factors support other psychological health outcomes that are critical for
123 promoting a positive environment of social interaction and acceptance in childhood, which also
124 are important to promote PA [13]. For instance, obese youth are more likely than healthy-weight
125 peers to encounter psychosocial problems such as lower health-related quality of life, anxiety,

5 Motor Competence and Health

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5 126 poor self-esteem, depression, lower social competence, and negative family interactions [14–17].
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7 127 Additionally, physical literacy has emerged as a prominent theoretical paradigm since 2008 [18].
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10 128 The focus of physical literacy is on the development of self and social awareness, self-regulation
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12 129 and responsible decision making to foster overall personal well-being. In turn, this reinforces the
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14 130 notion of the integration of physical, psychological, and social traits and behaviors for healthy
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17 131 development. The physically literate individual is a physically educated person with the ability to
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19 132 use these skills in everyday life and who has the disposition towards purposeful physical activity
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22 133 as an integral part of daily living [19]. Therefore, when addressing long-term behavioral change,
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24 134 the linkage of positive psychological and social development, which is related to an individual's
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27 135 belief in their actual competence, should be valued.

1.1. Importance of Motor Competence

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33 137 A majority of psychology-based behavior change theories address the concept of
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35 138 individual perceptions of competence from a motivation standpoint. However, it is also essential
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38 139 to understand the importance of actual MC and its relationship to PA, HRF, and weight status
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40 140 from both a movement and developmental perspective. Childhood is a critical time for the
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42 141 development of MC [20], which enables children and adolescents to successfully participate in
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45 142 various types of PA [20, 21]. For example, successful participation in many structured and non-
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47 143 structured activities, games, and sports (e.g., hopscotch, cricket, four-square, tennis, basketball,
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50 144 dance, etc.) demands a certain degree of competence in many fundamental motor skills (e.g.,
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52 145 running, catching, throwing, hopping, balance, and striking). However, multiple enabling and
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55 146 disabling constraints are present across childhood and adolescence that influence a child's
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57 147 developmental trajectory. Biological and environmental constraints [22] affect changes in growth
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59 148 and MC, and these constraints can either positively or negatively affect PA participation. There
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6 Motor Competence and Health

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5 149 is a clear connect between the environmental context (e.g., aspects of the home, school, culture,
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7 150 psychological and social influences) to MC and this connection is supported by
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9 151 Bronfenbrenner’s Ecological Systems [23], Gibson’s Ecological Perspective [24] and Newell’s
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11 152 Constraints Model [25]. One common thread among these approaches is that the human system
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14 153 is not pre-wired for ontogenetically-defined skilled movement behaviors. Rather, these behaviors
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17 154 are adaptable properties promoted through complex interactions of biological, psychological,
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19 155 instructional, and environmental constraints that change across time. One important distinction
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22 156 noted in this paper is that development is age-related and not age-determined. Thus, the
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24 157 expression of different phases of physical, cognitive, social and psychological development
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27 158 across childhood (which for the purposes of this paper will be generally defined as: early
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29 159 childhood [2-5 years], middle childhood [6-9 years], late childhood [10-13 years] and
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32 160 adolescence [14-18 years]) can be ambiguous and are relative to the development of an
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34 161 individual child. It is also important to understand that the development and learning of MC is a
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36 162 process that ultimately results in a relatively permanent change in an individual’s behavioral
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39 163 capability [26–29]. This is in contrast to PA level, HRF, and weight status, which are more
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41 164 adaptable and/or transient outcomes.

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44 165 Recent meta-analyses and reviews highlight the idea that motor skills need to be taught
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47 166 and reinforced and do not develop “naturally” or automatically over time [30–32]. Robinson et
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49 167 al. [29, 33–35] found that children who are directed by specialists to learn motor skills display
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52 168 greater increases in MC compared to children who engage in free play. Robinson and colleagues
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54 169 [29, 33, 34] also note that the instructional approach used to teach motor skills along with basic
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57 170 learning principles and the amount and context of experiences influence the stability of MC.
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59 171 Thus, it is important to foster continued learning and development of MC through practice and
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7 Motor Competence and Health

172 participation in developmentally appropriate activities that demand more advanced movement
173 patterns and higher levels of performance in a variety of movement contexts [21, 27–29].

174 At the time the model by Stodden et al. [5] was published, limited research was available
175 to indicate whether hypotheses of the proposed model were plausible. In the six years since this
176 paper was published, research in this area has greatly expanded and thus, it is an opportune time
177 to revisit the data that both directly or indirectly relate to the model hypotheses and determine
178 whether the hypotheses are supported from a developmental perspective. Therefore, the purpose
179 of this narrative review is to explore the direct and indirect synergistic relationships among
180 motor competence and physical activity, health-related physical fitness, perceived motor skill
181 competence, and weight status. We generally focused on related articles published from 2008 –
182 2014 (i.e. published since the previous model by Stodden et al [5]), accessing relevant databases
183 including Academic Search Premier, CINAHL, PsychINFO, PubMed/Medline, ERIC, Cochrane,
184 SportDiscus, and also author references, to review articles that provided a balanced picture of the
185 literature.

186 Recent systematic reviews [30, 36–39] relating to individual model pathways and key
187 cross-sectional, longitudinal, and experimental data are highlighted in subsequent sections to
188 provide a global picture of data relating to the model hypotheses. In addition, we cite emerging
189 evidence demonstrating that these factors are critical for promoting positive trajectories of
190 growth, development and health across childhood and for an individual’s health and quality of
191 life.

192 2. Motor Competence and Physical Activity

8 Motor Competence and Health

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5 194 The Stodden et al. model [5] suggests PA in early childhood will initially promote the
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7 195 development of MC as basic motor patterns are developed through a variety of exploratory
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10 196 movement experiences. However, as children enter middle and late childhood, the model
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12 197 suggests the MC/PA relationship becomes more reciprocal due to the continued development and
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14 198 importance of more complex movement patterns (e.g., fundamental motor skills), which is
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17 199 suggested to augment success and the development of HRF and perceived competence (See
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19 200 sections 3 and 4). This progression fosters continued participation in a variety of physical
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22 201 activities as children enjoy success and are motivated to continue to improve. A lack of MC
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24 202 development is hypothesized to lead to a negative spiral of disengagement in PA as children lack
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27 203 the competence and confidence to move and will not enjoy participation in activities where they
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29 204 understand they will not be successful.

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32 205 While limited data on associations between MC and PA were available in 2008, recent
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34 206 investigations have shed additional light on this aspect of the model. When considering recent
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37 207 evidence, a picture begins to emerge that provides a deeper level of understanding about how the
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39 208 relationship between MC and PA changes over time. Three review articles have examined the
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42 209 relationship between MC (differentially defined) and PA in children and adolescents. Lubans et
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44 210 al. [36] reviewed 21 studies that included both product- and process-oriented assessments of MC
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47 211 (i.e., specifically fundamental motor skills) in relation to a variety of health-related outcomes,
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49 212 including PA. Of the 21 studies, 13 specifically examined the relationship between MC and PA.
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51 213 Twelve of the 13 studies found a positive association between MC and PA and this review
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54 214 concluded that a positive association between MC and PA exists. However, strengths of
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56 215 associations were not provided to describe the magnitude of associations. For the remainder of
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5 216 the paper, strength of associations will be defined as noted by Cohen [40]: 0.10-0.29 = low; 0.30-
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 7 217 0.49 = moderate; and 0.50 and higher = strong.
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10 218 Holfelder and Schott [37] also reviewed the relationship between MC and PA. Similar to
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 12 219 Lubans et al. [36], product- and process-oriented assessments of MC were administered in the
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 15 220 papers reviewed. However, Holfelder and Schott [37] review included measures of motor
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 17 221 abilities, motor coordination, as well as fundamental motor skills, and found that 12 of the 23
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 20 222 studies had a positive associations between MC and PA ($r = .10$ to $r = .92$). The authors
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 22 223 concluded that evidence suggests a cause-effect relationship between MC and PA, but the
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 24 224 relationship has yet to be conclusively demonstrated as limited experimental data exists.
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 27 225 Recently, Logan and colleagues [41] published a similar review that focused on only process-
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 30 226 oriented assessments to measure MC (i.e., fundamental motor skills). Of the 13 studies noted in
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 32 227 the review, 12 reported a positive correlation between MC and PA ($r = .20$ to $r = .55$) [41].
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35 228 Two longitudinal studies appear to provide the support for the developmental trajectory
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 37 229 hypothesis between MC and PA. Barnett and colleagues [26] found that object control skills in
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 40 230 childhood accounted for 3.6% and 18.2% of participation in moderate-to-vigorous PA and
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 42 231 organized PA, respectively, during adolescence. However, childhood locomotor skill
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 44 232 competence was not related to adolescent PA. Additionally, Lopes et al. [42] found that children
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 46 233 with high MC at age six demonstrated sustained high self-reported levels of PA after three years
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 49 234 compared to children of low and moderate MC whom exhibited declines in PA over this time. It
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 52 235 is important to note that whilst these longitudinal studies provide stronger evidence than cross
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 54 236 sectional studies, only one found object-control skills in childhood explained a significant but
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 57 237 small proportion of the variance in MVPA during adolescence [26]. Also, both studies collected
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 59 238 PA via self-report rather than objective measures. Nevertheless, the follow up time for both
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10 Motor Competence and Health

239 studies was extensive and considering all the other factors that have been shown to influence PA,
240 these studies still suggest a causal relationship between MC and PA. Furthermore, these findings
241 are supported by a recent RCT. The SCORES multi-component school intervention resulted in
242 improvements in fundamental motor skill competence and maintenance of PA levels in the
243 intervention group compared to a decline in the control group [43].

244 Overall, data strongly supports a positive relationship between MC and PA across
245 childhood. Data indicate low to moderate associations from early childhood through middle
246 childhood years. During adolescence, there are simply not enough studies to make any
247 reasonable conclusions about the relationship between MC and PA strengthening over time. In
248 addition, methodological issues limit the ability to compare findings across studies. PA in
249 previous studies has been assessed in many different ways (i.e., self-report questionnaires,
250 objective measures such as pedometers and accelerometers, and direct observation). PA is also
251 operationalized differently in terms of intensity, steps, leisure participation and patterns
252 throughout the day (i.e. weekday versus weekend e.g. Fowweather et al. [44]). MC also was
253 measured using many different assessments (i.e., qualitative and quantitative outcomes) that
254 emphasized a variety of aspects of the motor domain. Additionally, some MC assessment data
255 were norm- or criterion-referenced and individual or composite measures of a variety of MC
256 outcomes were noted in other studies. These measurement factors are important to consider for
257 future investigations. For example, one recent study reported no association between MC and PA
258 in middle childhood, with authors speculating this may have occurred because a) a majority of
259 the children were highly active (i.e., mean per day 1.5 hours) thus limiting the opportunity to
260 discriminate based on MC and b) there may have been a ceiling effect with the Test of Gross
261 Motor Development-2nd edition (TGMD-2) scoring based on the age of the children tested [45].

11 Motor Competence and Health

262 Until a consensus is reached relative to MC and PA measurement methodology and
263 measures are consistently used in the literature, it will be difficult to examine whether changes in
264 strengths of associations occur across time. We recommend as a start that researchers use
265 assessments that have been used outside of their own country to collect MC data. If countries
266 only use their own specific instrument to assess MC it does not help to move the field forwards.
267 We suggest that both process (e.g. the TGMD) and product measures (e.g. the
268 Körperkoordination Test für Kinder) of MC will provide a more comprehensive assessment of
269 MC than either alone. Further reliability and validity studies of these more well used instruments
270 in a range of countries will mean we will be better able to compare children's MC across the
271 globe and compare the findings. Furthermore, as the objective measurement of PA improves and
272 becomes more sophisticated it is possible that pattern recognition will help isolate the aspects of
273 PA behavior that link to MC by accurately identifying activity recognition and activity level
274 assessment [46]. In summary, evidence indicates there is a positive association between MC and
275 PA. However, the strength of associations across developmental time remains unclear.

276 3. Motor Competence and Health-related Fitness

277 The relationship between MC and multiple aspects of HRF (i.e., cardiorespiratory fitness,
278 muscular strength, muscular endurance and flexibility) has a storied history [47]. Explaining
279 associations between these two distinct yet related constructs is multifaceted as complex
280 neuromuscular function is inherently integrated within both constructs [48]. In essence, many
281 MC and HRF tests commonly promoted in youth populations involve complex goal-directed
282 movements that require concentric and eccentric muscle actions that produce moderate to high
283 force, speed, precision or a combination of these attributes.

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5 284 The Stodden et al. model [5] suggests that the development of MC will initially promote
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7 285 HRF in early childhood and, in middle and late childhood, HRF would mediate the relationship
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9 286 between MC and PA as increased fitness would hypothetically facilitate continued engagement
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11 287 in PA for longer periods. While no studies have directly addressed the mediating aspect of the
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13 288 model, a recent review article [39] generally noted strong evidence of a positive association
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15 289 between MC and cardiorespiratory fitness ($r = 0.32$ to $r = 0.57$) and muscular strength/endurance
16
17 290 ($r = 0.27$ to $r = 0.68$) in childhood and adolescence. Data on flexibility were limited and results
18
19 291 were inconclusive. Only a few studies in this review noted null associations between MC and
20
21 292 either cardiorespiratory endurance or muscular strength/endurance and these were generally in
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23 293 younger children. As noted by the model hypotheses, the strength of associations between MC
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25 294 and both cardiorespiratory endurance and muscular strength/endurance tends to increase from
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27 295 childhood (null to moderate correlations) into adolescence (mostly moderate correlations) [39].
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29 296 Evidence does support that these associations may be sustained even into young adulthood
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31 297 (moderate correlations) [7, 49].
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39 298 While most evidence demonstrates that these trends are cross-sectional, recent
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41 299 longitudinal and experimental data provide stronger scientific evidence for associations among
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43 300 these variables in both childhood and adolescence [50–53]. Both direct (i.e., improved
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45 301 neuromuscular function) and indirect associations (i.e., motivation and choice of participation in
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47 302 various types of physical activities) suggests a synergistic mechanism may be the most plausible
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49 303 explanation to understand the increased strength of associations between these factors across
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51 304 childhood and into adolescence [48]. Finally, maturational status [54] and its association with
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53 305 MC and HRF is important to address in future research. Maturation is the timing (e.g., specific
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55 306 maturational events like the appearance of secondary sex characteristics) and tempo (e.g., rate at
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5 307 which maturation progresses - how quickly or slowly an individual goes through sexual
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7 308 maturity) of progress toward a mature biological state that occurs in all tissues, organs, and organ
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9 309 systems, affecting enzymes, chemical compositions, and functions [55]. However, maturation
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11 310 may have a limited impact on different aspects of MC, as Freitas et al. [56] noted that the
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14 311 influence of maturation (i.e., skeletal age interacting with body size) has a negligible influence
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17 312 on MC in children aged 7-10 years.

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20 313 4. Motor Competence and Perceived Competence
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23 314 Perceived competence refers to an individual's perception of their actual movement
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25 315 capabilities [57] and is highlighted in the Stodden et al. model [5] as an important factor that
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27 316 mediates the role between actual MC and PA. In other words, there is an indirect relationship
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29 317 between MC and PA through an individual's perception of their competence. For this to occur,
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32 318 perceived competence needs to be associated with actual MC and PA. Associations are purported
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35 319 to increase in strength as children age as the development of a child's cognitive ability to
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37 320 accurately assess their competence becomes more established in middle childhood. Thus, middle
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39 321 childhood is proposed to be a critical time where the positive or negative trajectories of PA,
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42 322 HRF, and weight status (related to MC) begin to diverge. At the time the model was published,
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44 323 limited evidence was cited to support this [58, 59]. More recent work provides additional support
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47 324 regarding the differential role of perceived competence as it relates to both actual MC and PA in
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49 325 children and adolescence.

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52 326 A recent systematic review by Babic et al. [38] noted that perceived competence had the
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55 327 strongest relationship to PA compared to other aspects of self-concept. This review also found
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57 328 age moderated the relationship. Both of these findings align with the Stodden et al. [5]
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60 329 hypotheses. However this review only included one study of perceived competence in children
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5 330 with the remainder in adolescents and found that the strongest association was in early
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7 331 adolescence, not later adolescence. Sex was not found to be a moderator in the Babic et al review
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9 332 [38], although studies in children have found the relationship between perceived competence and
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11 333 PA did differ according to sex. For example, in older Portuguese boys (aged 8-10 years) there
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14 334 was an association between perceived competence and self-report PA, but not for girls [60].
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17 335 During early childhood, evidence of positive associations between perceived and actual
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19 336 MC has been noted across various cultures including Canadian [61], American [34], and German
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21 337 children [62]. In contrast, a study in young Brazilian children found no relationship [63]. It is
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24 338 difficult to truly ascertain strengths of association between perceived competence and actual
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27 339 competence as assessments of perceived competence do not closely align with assessments of
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29 340 MC in terms of particular skill domains [64] or even general measures of self-concept [38]. For
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31 341 instance, surveys assessing physical self-perceptions tend to include broader questions relating to
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34 342 general competency in the physical domain [65, 66] as opposed to assessments of actual MC that
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36 343 might be targeted to particular competence sub-domains such as object control and locomotor
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39 344 competence [67]. It is likely that children at different levels of cognitive development may have
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41 345 different perceptions of their ability in specific physical domains (e.g., MC, PA, or HRF) and
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44 346 future research should explore the alignment of actual competence and perceived competence
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46 347 assessments [64]. Two recent Australian articles do align measures of actual and perceived
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49 348 object control skill competence in young children, finding positive associations [68, 69], but
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51 349 further research is needed to see if the strength of association differs for different skill or activity
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53 350 types and across age.
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56 351 There is also preliminary support for perceived competence as a mediator. Barnett et al.
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59 352 found perceived competence mediated children's object control competence (but not locomotor
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15 Motor Competence and Health

competence) and self-report PA during the adolescence years six years later [70]. In addition, perceived competence mediated object control competence and self-report PA in adolescence, and this relationship also worked in the reverse direction (when PA was the predictor) [71] providing support for the model in that these pathways may be reciprocal. However a recent study in young children did not find this to be the case [72], which follows the model hypothesis that relationships between these constructs emerge as children age. Babic et al's systematic review did note that whilst there is sufficient evidence to conclude a bi-directional relationship between PA and physical self-concept, that future researchers could seek to further explore mediation analyses [38].

5. Motor Competence and Weight Status

As initially hypothesized, an important outcome of the model is the development of a healthy or unhealthy weight status [5]. Research documenting associations between MC and various measures of weight status has increased substantially since 2008. Evidence from several cross-sectional studies with large samples of children, adolescents and young adults clearly demonstrates an inverse association ($r = -0.20$ to $r = -0.62$) between both factors using various MC and weight status measures [7, 42, 73–76]. In addition, differences in MC levels of overweight/obese children as compared to healthy weight peers are more evident in tasks requiring manipulation of total body mass [74, 77, 78]. Inverse associations between MC and weight status emerge at pre-school age [76, 79, 80], and become stronger during elementary school years [42, 75]. Beyond this age, evidence is less conclusive. Some studies indicate that the strength of association tends to decline again with puberty into adolescence [42, 73], whereas others found strong(er) correlations in adolescents [81] and young adults [7] as compared to childhood.

4
5 376 Many authors have stressed the crucial need for longitudinal and experimental research to
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7 377 examine a possible antecedent/consequent mechanism between MC and weight status. One
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9 378 explanation is that excess mass impedes stabilization and/or propulsion of the body, promoting
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11 379 lower actual and perceived MC, which decreases the likelihood of overweight/obese individuals
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13 380 being physically active [59, 82–85]. It has been suggested that the weight status of infants (i.e.,
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15 381 being overweight) is related to motor development impairment [86]. Likewise, body mass index
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17 382 was noted to be an important predictor of future MC in childhood [85, 87]. Alternatively,
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19 383 children’s MC level was also suggested to be a significant predictor of adiposity [85, 88–90].
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21 384 Unfortunately, no experimental designs can corroborate causal pathways.
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27 385 Diverse pathways of MC across childhood and adolescence are associated with higher or lower
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29 386 levels of PA and that pathway also may assist in the development of differential trajectories of
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31 387 weight status over time. Most studies reporting an adverse association between MC and weight
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33 388 status did not adjust for PA, but when PA was taken into account its role turned out to be rather
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35 389 limited [84, 85, 88, 91]. A longitudinal study by D’Hondt et al. [87] demonstrated an
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37 390 increasingly widening gap in gross motor coordination with overweight and obese children
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39 391 showing poor MC as well as reduced age-related progress compared to normal-weight peers.
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41 392 Children’s body mass index at baseline negatively predicted and explained 37.6% of the variance
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43 393 in gross motor coordination over time, while participation in organized sports were a positive
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45 394 predictor. D’Hondt et al. [85] also found that the level of MC negatively influences body mass
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47 395 index overtime while baseline physical activity did not mediate the adverse relationship between
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49 396 weight status and MC. Unfortunately, no longitudinal evidence on associations of MC and
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51 397 weight status is available in early childhood or adolescent age ranges. However, the strongest
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5 398 inverse correlations reported between MC and a measure of weight status (i.e., %body fat) were
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7 399 in young adults aged 18-25 ($r = 0.56$ to $r = 0.73$) [7].
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10 400 Based on the available data, MC may be considered both as a precursor and a
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12 401 consequence of weight status in childhood. As hypothesized in Stodden et al.[5] this reciprocal
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15 402 relationship is likely to be synergistically influenced by PA, HRF, and perceived competence
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17 403 leading to a variety of individual trajectories across developmental time as noted by Rodrigues
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20 404 and colleagues [92]. Additional longitudinal research (including evidence from intervention
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22 405 studies) should take into account any additional variables (including but not limited to diet,
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25 406 genetics, growth, and maturation) that may influence the inverse associations between MC and
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27 407 weight status throughout childhood, adolescence and (young) adulthood, and examine the
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30 408 individual developmental pathways of change conceptualized in the original model [5].
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32 409 6. Future Directions 33 34

35 410 Overall, there is a strong consensus that MC is positively associated with all health-
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38 411 related variables within the model [5]. Based on the research that has been published since 2008
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40 412 (see Figure 2), the model hypotheses have initial empirical support. Data for some pathways are
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43 413 stronger than others and some pathways have yet to be tested. Emerging evidence also indicates
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45 414 increasing strength in associations between MC and weight status (inverse), and HRF (direct)
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48 415 across childhood into adolescence, while associations between MC and PA and perceived
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50 416 competence are variable across time. In addition, perceived competence has been identified as a
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53 417 potential mediator (as noted in the model) in the MC and PA pathway.
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55 418 To promote future research as it relates to Figure 2, there are several model hypotheses
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58 419 that have yet to be confirmed and warrant exploration. The original model [5] situated HRF as a
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5 420 mediator between MC and PA. This is yet to be confirmed empirically. PMC was also situated as
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7 421 a mediator and there is emerging evidence of this hypothesis, although further research could
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9 422 seek to explore this aspect further. Whilst there has been research on perceived physical
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11 423 competence (in terms of general physical perceptions) and actual MC, there is less research on
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14 424 perceived MC and actual MC, so the specificity of these relationships could be further
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17 425 investigated. In terms of MC and PA, future studies may wish to examine different contexts of
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19 426 PA. It seems plausible that MC will only be related to discrete time periods for PA, and perhaps
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22 427 the nature of the association between MC/PA is diluted by examining daily averages of PA
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24 428 outcomes (which includes periods such as school that tend to encourage sedentary behavior). For
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27 429 example, weekday and weekend variations [44], or focusing on segments on the day that are
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29 430 critical periods for PA such as recess and afterschool [93] may help to further illuminate the
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31 431 relationship between MC and PA.
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34 432 Following the developmental underpinnings of this model, data from a few studies
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37 433 indicate that object control/manipulation skills may be more salient predictors of PA [26, 93] and
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39 434 HRF [48, 52, 53], in later childhood and early adolescence. However, data support that
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42 435 locomotor skills are critical during the early childhood years for PA [33, 94]. This aligns with
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44 436 motor development literature as locomotor skills generally develop earlier than object
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47 437 control/manipulation/ball skills. Further examination of this question is important as some MC
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49 438 test batteries are limited in their testing of object control/manipulation skills (i.e.,
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51 439 Körperkoordination Test für Kinde, Movement Assessment Battery for Children, Bruininks-
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53 440 Oseretsky Test of Motor Proficiency). In addition, measurement issues are important to address
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56 441 as there is a wide variety of PA, MC, perceived competence, and weight status assessments used
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59 442 in the literature, which makes it difficult to accurately ascertain the strength of associations
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5 443 across age. However, longitudinal data [39, 42, 85, 87] does provide valuable insight on the
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7 444 hypothesized positive or negative developmental trajectories PA, HRF, and weight status based
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9 445 on the tracking of MC levels.
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12 446 Recent years have seen an increased interest in the area of cognitive function/health.
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15 447 Research clearly supports the positive benefits of PA on cognitive function and emerging
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17 448 evidence supports the connection of MC to cognition [95–104]. This connection seems intuitive
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20 449 based on the complex and multilevel cognitive involvement inherent in neuromotor “learning.”
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22 450 A growing body of literature also indicates cognitive/executive function (e.g., attentional control,
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25 451 working memory, and inhibition) [95, 97, 98, 101–103] and academic performance [96, 97, 99,
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27 452 105] is positively associated with cardiorespiratory fitness, weight status, as well as PA in youth
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30 453 and adults.
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33 454 A review from Haapala [106] examined associations between MC and aspects of
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35 455 cognitive function and academic achievement. Ten of the included articles focused on some
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38 456 aspects of MC and eight studies noted positive associations between MC and cognitive tests that
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40 457 included tasks for IQ, attention, inhibitory control, item memory and academic performance.
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42 458 More specifically, correlational studies indicate children with higher levels of MC exhibit higher
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45 459 order cognitive function [107], working memory, and processing speed [108] as well as various
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47 460 measures of academic achievement [109–111]. Haapala and colleagues recently found children,
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50 461 ages 6 – 8 years, with poor motor skill competence also exhibited worse cognition and this
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52 462 relationship was more pronounced in boys [112]. The effect of motor skill interventions on
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55 463 cognitive and executive functioning is limited, but emerging findings are also positive [113–
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57 464 115]. Examining whether improved cognition and executive function outcomes in children result
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59 465 from both persistent PA (i.e., due to the act of PA) as well as cognitive neural development
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5 466 associated with various types of context-specific motor development warrants further attention
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7 467 [116–118]. In addition, if the strength of associations between MC and HRF, weight status as
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9 468 well as PA increase across time, would the associations between MC and cognitive factors also
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11 469 increase across developmental time?
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15 470 -----INSERT FIGURE 2 ABOUT HERE -----
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18 471 Specifically related to the demonstration of positive or negative developmental
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20 472 trajectories is an untested hypothesis relating to a “proficiency barrier.” In 1980, Seefeldt [6]
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22 473 proposed the idea of a critical level of MC that would be related to participation in activities
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24 474 requiring the application of MC. Thus, if an individual were below this proficiency barrier, they
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26 475 may be at greater risk for decreased PA and HRF. A recently published paper by Malina [54]
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28 476 also noted this topic was related to a “top ten” question for understanding the development of
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30 477 obesity. Limited preliminary data indirectly support the proficiency barrier hypothesis with
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32 478 young adults. Only 3 percent of a sample of 18-25 year olds with “low” MC demonstrated
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34 479 “good” fitness, as defined by a composite measure of muscular strength, muscular endurance and
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36 480 cardiorespiratory endurance [49]. Thus, Seefeldt’s proficiency barrier hypothesis is a logical and
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38 481 critically important extension of the positive or negative trajectory hypotheses of the Stodden et
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40 482 al. model [5], not only for PA, HRF and weight status, but also for long-term health-related
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42 483 outcomes. To our knowledge, the association of MC to long-term health outcomes has not been
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44 484 addressed in the MC literature [3]. As a greater percentage of the population is approaching
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46 485 elderly status, would the development of MC (analogous to functional capacity) in childhood and
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48 486 adolescence promote long-term functional capacity, independence and decreased chronic disease
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50 487 and all-cause mortality in an aging population? As noted previously in section 1 and 1.1, the
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52 488 development and learning of MC is associated with a relatively permanent change in behavior
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21 Motor Competence and Health

and MC can be defined as an individual's capacity to coordinate and control their center of mass and extremities in a gravity-based environment [7]. Thus, highly developed MC in childhood/adolescence has the potential to foster lifelong functional independence and quality of life.

7. Conclusions

Based on the increased interest of the scientific community and data linking MC to various aspects of health across childhood, adolescence, and young adulthood, further testing of the specific hypotheses (i.e., differential trajectories and causal pathways) within the model is warranted. We believe this approach should continue to be tested, modified, or adapted to examine its feasibility and predictive utility. As noted in many cross-sectional and longitudinal studies, demonstrating antecedent/consequent relationships among variables in the model remains speculative without well-conducted experimental evidence. Interventions targeting young children should be initiated during the early childhood years as MC and PA behaviors should be established early in life and they often track into the adult years.

Collectively, children's physical and psychological development is a complex labyrinth of biological, environmental, psychosocial, and behavioral factors that synergistically evolve across developmental time. Additionally, rationale for causal pathways in the model may not be unidirectional across time. These are two critical features that separate it from other theoretical models that are used as paradigms to promote various aspects of health. Understanding the most salient factors that influence health and well-being of individuals and how relationships among these factors change across time is a worthwhile endeavor that should be approached in both a developmental and systematic manner.

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17 522 D'Hondt, & Rodrigues) worked collaboratively and provided substantial contribution to this
18 523 paper that includes drafting and revising the article. All authors approved the final manuscript
19 524 and agree to be accountable for all aspects of the work. Specifically, authors worked
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21 526

22 527 Dr. Robinson: the Introduction, perceived competence, and future directions/conclusion
23 528 sections.

24 529 Dr. Stodden: the Introduction, health-related fitness, and future directions/conclusion sections.

25 530 Dr. Barnett: the physical activity and perceived competence sections along with the
26 531 development of Figure 2.

27 532 Dr. Lopes: the weight status and future directions/conclusion sections.

28 533 Dr. Logan: the physical activity section.

29 534 Dr. Rodrigues: the weight status and health-related fitness sections.

30 535 Dr. D'Hondt: the weight status section.
31 536
32 537
33 538

34 539 **References**
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