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**Abstract**

*Background and Objective:*  
 One in five preschool children are overweight/obese, and increased weight status over time increases the risks of poorer future health. Motor skill competence may be a protective factor, giving children the ability to participate in health-enhancing physical activity. Yet, we do not know when the relationship between motor competence and weight status first emerges or whether it is evident across the body mass index spectrum. This study examined the association between motor skill competence and body mass index in a multi-country sample of 5545 preschoolers (54.36 ± 9.15 months of age; 50.5% boys) from eight countries.

*Methods:*  
 Quantile regression analyses were used to explore the associations between motor skill competence (assessed using the Test of Gross Motor Development, Second/Third Edition) and quantiles of body mass index (15th; 50th; 85th; and 97th percentiles), adjusted for sex, age in months, and country.

*Results:*  
 Negative associations of locomotor skills, ball skills, and overall motor skill competence with body mass index percentiles ( $p < 0.005$ ) were seen, which became stronger at the higher end of the body mass index distribution (97th percentile). Regardless of sex, for each raw score point increase in locomotor skills, ball skills, and overall motor skill competence scores, body mass index is reduced by 8.9%, 6.8%, and 5.1%, respectively, for those preschoolers at the 97th body mass index percentile onwards.

*Conclusions:*  
 Public health policies should position motor skill competence as critical for children's obesity prevention from early childhood onwards. Robust longitudinal and experimental designs are encouraged to explore a possible causality pathway between motor skill competence and body mass index from early childhood.

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**Footnote Information**      The online version contains supplementary material available at <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40279-023-01929-7>.

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# Motor Competence and Body Mass Index in the Preschool Years: A Pooled Cross-Sectional Analysis of 5545 Children from Eight Countries

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## Abstract

**Background and Objective** One in five preschool children are overweight/obese, and increased weight status over time increases the risks of poorer future health. Motor skill competence may be a protective factor, giving children the ability to participate in health-enhancing physical activity. Yet, we do not know when the relationship between motor competence and weight status first emerges or whether it is evident across the body mass index spectrum. This study examined the association between motor skill competence and body mass index in a multi-country sample of 5545 preschoolers (54.36 ± 9.15 months of age; 50.5% boys) from eight countries.

**Methods** Quantile regression analyses were used to explore the associations between motor skill competence (assessed using the Test of Gross Motor Development, Second/Third Edition) and quantiles of body mass index (15th; 50th; 85th; and 97th percentiles), adjusted for sex, age in months, and country.

**Results** Negative associations of locomotor skills, ball skills, and overall motor skill competence with body mass index percentiles ( $p < 0.005$ ) were seen, which became stronger at the higher end of the body mass index distribution (97th percentile). Regardless of sex, for each raw score point increase in locomotor skills, ball skills, and overall motor skill competence scores, body mass index is reduced by 8.9%, 6.8%, and 5.1%, respectively, for those preschoolers at the 97th body mass index percentile onwards.

**Conclusions** Public health policies should position motor skill competence as critical for children's obesity prevention from early childhood onwards. Robust longitudinal and experimental designs are encouraged to explore a possible causality pathway between motor skill competence and body mass index from early childhood.

## Key Points

In preschool age children, there are already significant negative associations between motor skill competence (locomotor, ball, and total scores) and body mass index.

These associations became stronger for those preschoolers who are classified as obese, regardless of sex.

Developing preschoolers' motor skill competence is recommended as part of a comprehensive approach to improving healthy weight status development.

## 1 Background

Childhood obesity is a serious public health concern, with adverse consequences for health and well-being. In 2016, the number of boys and girls aged 5–19 years with obesity, as measured by the body mass index (BMI), were estimated to be approximately 74 and 50 million, respectively [1]. According to the World Health Organization, 39 million under 5-year-old individuals were overweight or obese in 2020 [2]. This represents serious implications for future generations, as early childhood is a critical time for the development of obesity, with BMI trajectories being established by 5 years of age [3, 4], and obesity in childhood extending into adolescence and adulthood [5].

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45 A conceptual model described by Stodden et al. [6] sug-  
 46 gested that healthy (or risky) weight status might be partially  
 47 the consequence of a positive (or negative) spiral of physi-  
 48 cal activity (PA) engagement driven by motor competence  
 49 (MC), a latent concept that reflects the degree of proficient  
 50 performance in motor skills, the underlying mechanisms,  
 51 and PA engagement. This model suggests that during early  
 52 childhood, a positive relationship between MC and PA might  
 53 lead to a healthy weight status, providing the basis for a  
 54 positive trajectory of health for children and across the life  
 55 course. Moreover, an age-appropriate level of MC is critical  
 56 not only for a healthy BMI [7], but also for developing and  
 57 maintaining adequate physical fitness levels [8, 9], executive  
 58 functions and academic achievement [10, 11], psychological,  
 59 emotional and social outcomes [11], and PA [12].

60 In 2010, Lubans et al. [13] provided early evidence of  
 61 a consistent inverse association between MC and weight  
 62 status. Recently, Barnett et al. [14] examined longitudinal  
 63 and experimental evidence for MC and health outcomes. In  
 64 this review, bidirectional relationships were explored, as it  
 65 is not only plausible that children who are less active will  
 66 have less opportunity to develop their MC, but also that chil-  
 67 dren who are heavier may find it challenging to engage in  
 68 certain physical activities and therefore, over time their MC  
 69 would be lower. Authors of this review reported that nine  
 70 studies investigated the pathway from weight status to MC,  
 71 and five studies investigated the reverse pathway. However,  
 72 only a single study comprised children in the preschool years  
 73 (age 5 years). The results highlighted a strong bi-directional  
 74 inverse association between children's MC and weight sta-  
 75 tus. However, neither of these reviews could quantify the  
 76 strength of the relationship between MC and BMI, deter-  
 77 mine when it first occurred, or identify if the relationship  
 78 was present across the BMI spectrum. In addition, the use of  
 79 different protocols for MC assessment have made synthesis  
 80 challenging.

81 Early childhood is a pivotal period for children to build  
 82 foundational movement capacities in order to then pro-  
 83 gress to context-specific PA application in middle child-  
 84 hood, adolescence, and adulthood [15]. Optimal early child  
 85 development is the basis of adult health and well-being. It  
 86 is also a critical component of the United Nations Sustain-  
 87 able Development Goals, and it is essential to enable every-  
 88 one to reach their full human potential [16]. Therefore, it is  
 89 critical to focus specifically on the MC-BMI association in  
 90 the preschool years (age 3–5 years), a crucial period for the  
 91 development of MC. Thus, this study examined the associa-  
 92 tion between MC and BMI in a pooled data of preschoolers  
 93 from eight countries, in which similar assessment protocols  
 94 were followed. We hypothesize that even at preschool ages,  
 95 a negative association between MC and BMI is observed and  
 96 that this association was likely to be more present for those  
 97 with unhealthy BMI. In the current review, we situate BMI

as the outcome variable and MC as the predictor, although  
 we acknowledge the potential reciprocal relationship.

## 2 Methods

### 2.1 Data Sources and Participants

This study represents a large multicenter collaboration  
 between motor development researchers from different coun-  
 tries. The targeted age range was 3–5 years, aligning with  
 the preschool age range in most countries. From December  
 2020 up to mid-September 2021, possible collaborators who  
 had used the Test of Gross Motor Development (TGMD,  
 Second or Third Edition) in preschoolers between 2010 and  
 2020, before the COVID-19 lockdown, were identified. The  
 TGMD is commonly used among preschool children [17],  
 and scores derived from it show good-to-excellent support  
 for a valid and reliable assessment in children and adoles-  
 cents [18, 19].

Methods to identify collaborators included: (i) an exten-  
 sive search on international databases (Web of Science,  
 PubMed, and Scopus) of the fundamental movement skills  
 or MC literature in preschool years and (ii) from a list of par-  
 ticipants' contacts of the International Motor Development  
 Research Consortium (<https://www.i-mdrc.com>), to identify  
 the relevant sources of information. Additionally, bibliog-  
 raphic references of the studies identified in the databases  
 were also searched to make the search more sensitive. A  
 total of 39 possible collaborators from 28 different countries  
 (Australia, Belgium, Brazil, Canada, Chile, China, Colomb-  
 ia, England, Finland, Germany, Greece, Indonesia, Iran,  
 Ireland, Italy, Macedonia, Malaysia, Mozambique, Nether-  
 lands, New Zealand, Norway, Portugal, Spain, South Korea,  
 South Africa, Turkey, USA, and Wales) were identified.

Initial contact was undertaken through e-mail to: (a) the  
 corresponding author of each study and (b) possible collabo-  
 rators identified through international networks that could  
 have microdata on the specific age range. This first contact  
 invited collaborators to participate in the study and to pro-  
 vide their data for analysis. Subsequently, a second e-mail  
 was sent to the corresponding author and to the last author  
 (when available) of the studies who did not respond to the  
 first e-mail sent in the previous step.

From those 39 possible collaborators, responses were  
 obtained from 34 contacts (response rate = 87.2%). From  
 the 34 responders, data sets of 16 could not be incorpo-  
 rated into the study because (a) there was no local ethics  
 approval for data sharing; (b) the sample size was less  
 than 100 participants; (c) the age range was inappropriate;  
 and (d) there was a lack of strict adherence to the  
 TGMD protocol (i.e., did not administer the entire proto-  
 col). Thus, this study pooled data from 18 collaborators



147 from eight different countries (Australia, Belgium, Brazil,  
 148 China, England, Italy, Spain, and USA), located in three  
 149 of the six World Health Organization regions (East Asia  
 150 and Pacific, Europe and Central Asia, and Latin America  
 151 and the Caribbean), and comprising two country-specific  
 152 income levels, according to the World Bank (high and  
 153 upper-middle) [20].

154 Data from each of the collaborators were inserted into a  
 155 template Excel file comprising the following information:  
 156 age in months; sex; BMI; individual skill scores; locomotor,  
 157 ball skills subscale scores, and total scores. Then, data were  
 158 shared, and securely stored in a cloud store administered by  
 159 Coventry University (UK). Data sets from the same country  
 160 were merged to facilitate the analysis, thereby operational-  
 161 izing a country-specific condition as a unit of clustering. The  
 162 pooled data included 5545 preschoolers, both boys and girls  
 163 aged 3–5 years. A flow diagram presenting details about the  
 164 datasets included is shown in Fig. 1.

165 The smallest country samples were from England  
 166 ( $n = 146$ ) and Spain ( $n = 103$ ), while the largest samples  
 167 were from Australia ( $n = 1284$ ) and Italy ( $n = 1338$ ). Almost  
 168 all the countries have data from varying locations, with the  
 169 exception of Spain and England. Three participating coun-  
 170 tries (Brazil, China, and USA) provided information from  
 171 both the Second and Third Editions of the TGMD protocol.  
 172 Detailed information is available in Table 1 of the Electronic  
 173 Supplementary Material (ESM) (see Table 2).

174 The Strengthening the Reporting of Observational Studies  
 175 in Epidemiology (STROBE) guidelines for cross-sectional

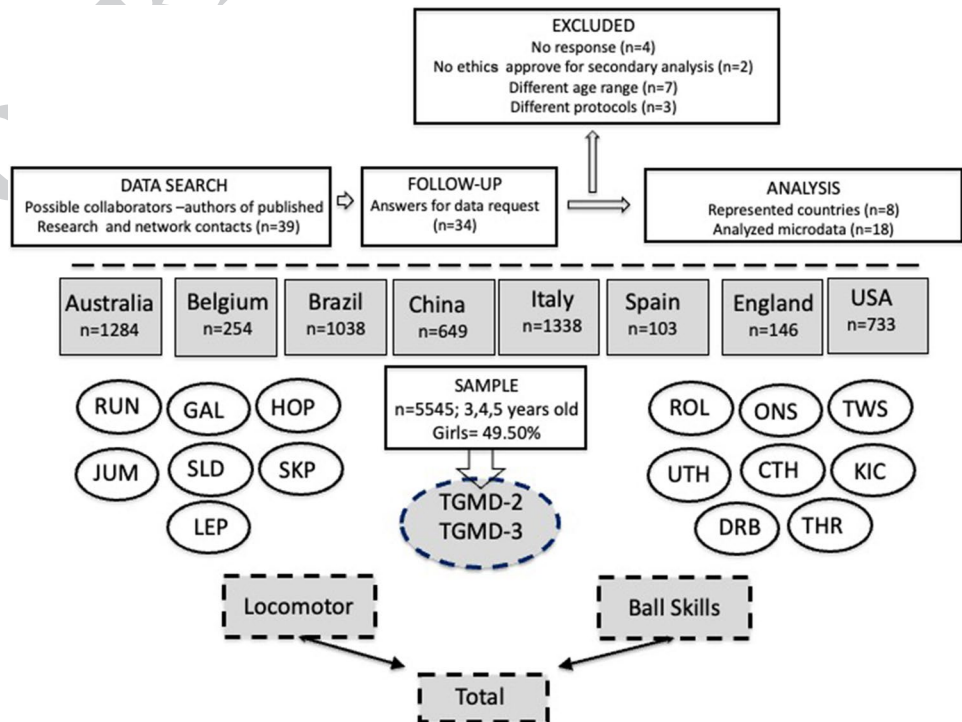
176 studies were adhered to for the current study [21]. Ethics  
 177 committees in their respective countries approved all the  
 178 main studies, ensuring the written informed consents from  
 179 all parents/guardians were provided for the original study,  
 180 and took responsibility for permission for sharing data for  
 181 the secondary analysis (detailed information is provided in  
 182 Table 1 of the ESM).

## 2.2 Independent Variable

183  
 184 Data on MC were shared by each country contact and  
 185 included the assessment protocol. For this, the TGMD-2  
 186 [22] and the TGMD-3 [23] were used. The TGMD evalu-  
 187 ates gross motor performance in children aged 3–10 years  
 188 and consists of a protocol to assess process-oriented fun-  
 189 damental movement skills during childhood, including in  
 190 preschool children. The TGMD includes a comprehensive  
 191 battery of gross motor skills comprising both locomotor and  
 192 ball skills. It can be used to identify children who are sig-  
 193 nificantly behind their peers in gross motor skills, to plan  
 194 programs to improve MC in those children showing delays,  
 195 and to assess changes as a function of increasing age, experi-  
 196 ence, instruction, or intervention [22–24].

197 The TGMD-2 consists of a two-factor test, with six loco-  
 198 motor skills (run, gallop, hop, leap, horizontal jump, and  
 199 slide) and six object control skills (two-hand strike, drib-  
 200 ble, catch, kick, overhand throw, and underhand roll). The  
 201 TGMD-3 test also consists of two factors, but with 13 total

**Fig. 1** Flowchart of procedures for data acquisition and variables of the study. *CTH* catch, *DRB* dribble, *GAL* gallop, *HOP* hop, *JUM* jump, *KIC* kick, *LEP* leap, *ONS* one hand strike, *ROL* roll, *RUN* run, *SKP* skip, *SLD* slide, *TGMD* Test of Gross Motor Development, *THR* throw, *TWS* two-hand strike, *UHT* underhand throw



**Table 1** Participants characteristics

Age	3 years		4 years		5 years		<i>d</i>
	<i>X</i> (SD)	<i>d</i>	<i>X</i> (SD)	<i>d</i>	<i>X</i> (SD)	<i>d</i>	
Sex	Boys ( <i>n</i> = 690)	Girls ( <i>n</i> = 649)	Boys ( <i>n</i> = 1107)	Girls ( <i>n</i> = 1230)	Boys ( <i>n</i> = 1004)	Girls ( <i>n</i> = 865)	
LOC	15.31 (8.70)	14.95 (8.70)	24.39 (10.54)	24.52 (10.75)	26.05 (9.26)	26.85 (9.00)	0.09
BALL	15.18 (8.52)	13.03 (7.90)*	23.41 (10.31)	21.21 (10.28)*	26.29 (9.68)	22.46 (8.75)*	0.41
Overall	30.49 (15.41)	27.98 (14.85)*	47.80 (19.07)	45.72 (19.03)*	52.34 (16.49)	49.31 (15.40)*	0.19
BMI	16.28 (1.86)	16.12 (2.04)	16.17 (2.05)	16.20 (2.06)	16.51 (2.28)	16.35 (2.56)	0.07
<i>N</i> (%) of children in WHO categories for BMI							
Under	56 (8.1%)	53 (8.3%)	79 (7.1%)	71 (5.80%)	49 (4.9%)	56 (6.5%)	
Normal	415 (60.2%)	421 (64.8%)	703 (63.5%)	839 (68.2%)	580 (57.8%)	563 (65.0%)	
Over	141 (20.4%)	116 (17.9%)	203 (18.3%)	200 (16.3%)	235 (23.4%)	160 (18.5%)	
Obese	78 (11.3%)	59 (9.1%)	122 (11.0%)	120 (9.8%)	140 (13.9%)	86 (10.0%)	

*BALL* ball skills, *BMI* body mass index, *d* Cohen's effect size, *LOC* locomotor skill score, *M* mean, *Over* overweight, *Overall* overall motor competence score, *SD* standard deviation, *Under* underweight, *WHO* World Health Organization

Student's *t* test for paired samples of sex comparison; significant difference: \*  $p < 0.001$

skills, six locomotor skills (run, gallop, hop, skip, horizontal jump, and slide), and seven ball skills (one-hand strike, two-hand strike, dribble, catch, kick, overhand throw, and underhand throw). Research examining the criterion validity of the TGMD-3 and the TGMD-2 showed nearly perfect correlations between performance on the locomotor, ball skills, and total TGMD scores (all  $r=0.98$ ) [23].

According to the procedures, children practiced each skill once and then had to perform each skill twice. For each trial, a child receives a score of "1" if the performance criteria for that skill (e.g., stepping with foot opposite the throwing arm) is performed correctly and a score of "0" if the criterion is performed incorrectly. The locomotor and ball skills scores are based on the presence (one) or absence (zero) of each performance criterion. The raw scores are summed to create a locomotor and ball skills subscale score. The overall MC score is created by the sum of these two subscale scores. In all but one of the original projects, each collaborator's team video recorded all the skills trials and were later assessed by trained assessors who did not administer the tests and had prior experience coding this assessment. The exception is for Belgian children, who were assessed live by trained administrators (not through video recording) [25]. All collaborators who participated in the project have ample experience in motor development research and significant experience in using, analyzing, and interpreting motor skill assessments like the TGMD. Evidence of TGMD assessment reliability was previously presented in the main original studies from Spain, Italy, Brazil, Australia, USA, Iran, and Belgium [25–34]. Feedback results to all parents of all participants were provided.

### 2.3 Outcome

In all studies, data collectors measured a child's height (without shoes, to the nearest 0.1 cm, using wall-mounted stadiometers) and weight (to the nearest 0.1 kg, using research-grade scales). Shoes and heavy outdoorwear/jackets were removed for these measurements. Body mass index was calculated as  $\text{kg/m}^2$ . Children were classified according to the World Health Organization child growth standards for children aged younger than 5 years [35], and for children that were 5 years and above at the date of measurement [36] as underweight (15th percentile), normal weight (15th  $\geq$  85th percentile), overweight ( $\geq$  85th percentile), and obese ( $\geq$  97th percentile). The median value (50th percentile) was also calculated to characterize the continuum of BMI distribution. Body mass index continuous values were used as the outcome variable in the regression models.

### 2.4 Statistical Analysis

All analyses were performed in Stata 17.0. Data from countries were pooled into a single dataset for analyses, which

251 was performed for the whole sample. No imputation of  
 252 information was performed, and missing data, correspond-  
 253 ing to 3.3% of the total sample, were excluded for analysis  
 254 (detailed information in Table 1 of the ESM). Then, data  
 255 were stratified by age and sex. Body mass index categories  
 256 were used to describe the sample.

257 Data normality and homogeneity tests were conducted.  
 258 Sex differences were examined using the independent t-test  
 259 and Cohen's *d* effect size [37]. Quantile regression [38, 39]  
 260 was used to estimate the changes in BMI (outcome variable)  
 261 as a function of change in MC (locomotor, ball skills, and  
 262 overall MC), sex, and age (exposures). This procedure was  
 263 based on the minimization of weighted absolute deviations  
 264 (L<sub>1</sub> method) to estimate conditional quantile (percentile)  
 265 functions [40]. For the median (quantile = 0.5), symmetric  
 266 weights were used, and for all other percentiles (e.g., 15th,  
 267 85th, and 97th) asymmetric weights were employed. In con-  
 268 trast, classical ordinary least-square regression (also known  
 269 as the L<sub>2</sub> method) estimates conditional mean functions.  
 270 Unlike regular linear regression, quantile regression is not  
 271 limited to explaining the mean of the dependent variable. It  
 272 can be employed to explain the determinants of the depend-  
 273 ent variable at any point of the distribution, estimating the  
 274 conditional median of the target-dependent variable.

275 For this study, three quantile regression models were cre-  
 276 ated to explore possible associations. First, a model com-  
 277 prising sex, age in months, and locomotor skills scores as  
 278 independent variables, and percentiles of BMI (15th, 50th,  
 279 85th, and 97th) as the dependent variable was created.  
 280 Subsequently, models for ball skills scores and overall MC  
 281 scores were created. All the three models were adjusted for  
 282 the country from where the data were collected.

### 283 3 Results

284 The final dataset included 5545 preschoolers from  
 285 eight countries. Preschoolers were of a similar age  
 286 ( $54.36 \pm 9.15$  months), and equivalent representativeness  
 287 between boys and girls was achieved (50.5% boys). Differ-  
 288 ent weight status profiles, according to BMI, were seen for  
 289 children in all age groups (by years). Differences between  
 290 sexes within ages were seen for ball skills and for overall MC  
 291 scores, with boys outperforming girls.

292 The quantile regression estimating the effects of MC on  
 293 changes in BMI are presented in Table 2 and Fig. 2 (Panel  
 294 A). The results showed negative and statistically significant  
 295 associations of locomotor skills, ball skills, and overall MC  
 296 with BMI percentiles ( $p < 0.005$ ), which became stronger at  
 297 the higher end of the BMI distribution (97th). The results  
 298 indicated that at this point, for each increase in the loco-  
 299 motor skills subscale score by one point, BMI is reduced  
 300 by 8.9% ( $p < 0.001$ ). Moreover, at the 97th BMI percentile,

the coefficient for the association indicates that for each  
 increase in the ball skill subscale score, BMI is reduced by  
 6.8% ( $p < 0.001$ ). For the overall MC scores, the negative  
 association with the BMI percentile was also stronger at the  
 higher end of the distribution, showing a 5.1% reduction in  
 BMI, when one raw score point of the overall MC score is  
 increased.

The results also showed an association between sex and  
 BMI in favor of boys, but for those at the end of the BMI  
 distribution (97th), whereas no association between sex and  
 BMI was observed for the three models. Finally, a positive  
 association with age and BMI was observed (i.e., older chil-  
 dren tended to have higher BMI) once they were above the  
 50th percentile (median). The  $R^2$  values indicated that the  
 three models could better explain the variance in BMI for  
 those children classified at the 97th percentile of the BMI  
 distribution.

The quantile regression models between MC and BMI for  
 the whole sample (Panel A), and stratified by age in years  
 (Panels B, C, and D) are presented in Fig. 2. The graphs  
 show that there is a generally negative effect of MC scores  
 on BMI, especially at the end of the BMI distribution (85th  
 and 97th percentiles), for the three age groups. Detailed  
 information is available in Table 2 of the ESM.

### 4 Discussion

This is the first study in the world to analyze the associa-  
 tion between MC and BMI across the whole spectrum of its  
 distribution in a large multi-country sample of preschoolers.  
 The key findings from the quantile regression demonstrated  
 a negative association between overall MC (and its domains)  
 and BMI. Importantly, this relationship is markedly strength-  
 ened at the higher end of the BMI distribution (85th and  
 97th). Although we acknowledge the potential reciprocal  
 relationship, in the current study, when situating BMI as  
 the outcome variable and MC as the predictor, our results  
 suggest that developing MC could potentially have a larger  
 impact in preschoolers who are overweight and obese.

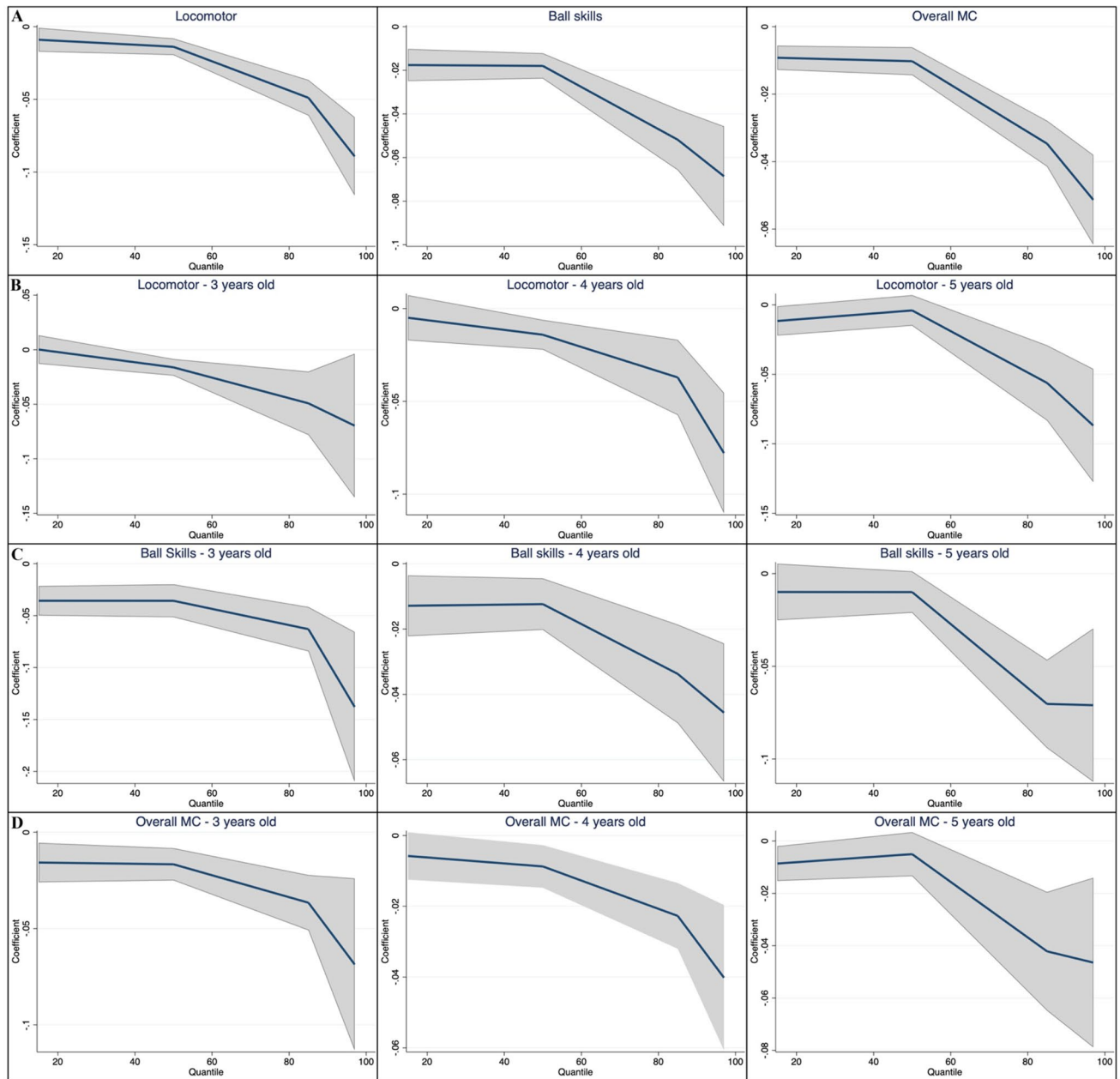
Children classified as obese at a young age are of con-  
 cern, as overweight/obese young children rarely change  
 to normal weight as a consequence of the growth process  
 [41]. Therefore, the evidence reported in the current study  
 is important as it shows that at a young age, weight status  
 is different according to MC levels. Our multi-country cross-  
 cultural sample of preschoolers, assessed using the same  
 standardized protocol, might suggest that even at early ages,  
 facilitating the development of MC may be an important  
 intervention strategy to consider. This is because, based  
 on the theoretical background, we could speculate that the  
 development of MC at early ages could assist preschool-  
 ers to be more physically active, thereby starting them on a

**Table 2** Association between MC and BMI quantiles, considering sex and age in months

Locomotor skills				Ball skills				Overall MC						
BMI quartile	Value	Std. Error	95% CI	Pr (> t )	BMI quartile	Value	Std. Error	95% CI	Pr (> t )	BMI quartile	Value	Std. Error	95% CI	Pr (> t )
<b>0.15</b>	<b>R<sup>2</sup> = 0.016</b>				<b>R<sup>2</sup> = 0.020</b>					<b>R<sup>2</sup> = 0.019</b>				
Cons	14.939	0.181	14.584; 15.295	0.001	Cons	14.870	0.221	14.434; 15.304	0.001	Cons	14.896	0.175	14.551; 15.240	0.001
Sex	-0.150	0.056	-0.262; -0.040	<b>0.008*</b>	Sex	-0.192	0.064	-0.318; -0.066	<b>0.003*</b>	Sex	-0.177	0.068	-0.311; -0.041	<b>0.010*</b>
Age	0.004	0.004	-0.003; 0.011	0.308	Age	0.007	0.004	-0.009; 0.016	0.079	Age	<b>0.008</b>	0.003	0.001; 0.014	<b>0.022*</b>
Loccom	-0.009	0.004	-0.017; -0.001	<b>0.030*</b>	Ball	-0.018	0.003	-0.024; -0.010	< <b>0.001*</b>	Overall	-0.009	0.002	-0.013; -0.005	< <b>0.001*</b>
<b>0.50</b>	<b>R<sup>2</sup> = 0.009</b>				<b>R<sup>2</sup> = 0.011</b>					<b>R<sup>2</sup> = 0.011</b>				
Cons	15.998	0.179	15.647; 16.349	0.001	Cons	15.972	0.149	15.679; 16.265	0.001	Cons	15.920	0.215	15.497; 16.341	0.001
Sex	-0.140	0.048	-0.236; -0.045	<b>0.004*</b>	Sex	-0.220	0.066	-0.349; -0.092	< <b>0.001*</b>	Sex	-0.185	0.061	-0.307; -0.064	<b>0.003*</b>
Age	<b>0.008</b>	0.003	0.002; 0.014	<b>0.007*</b>	Age	<b>0.010</b>	0.003	0.003; 0.016	<b>0.004*</b>	Age	<b>0.012</b>	0.004	0.005; 0.019	< <b>0.001*</b>
Loccom	-0.014	0.003	-0.020; -0.008	< <b>0.001*</b>	Ball	-0.018	0.003	-0.025; -0.011	< <b>0.001</b>	Overall	-0.010	0.002	-0.015; -0.005	< <b>0.001*</b>
<b>0.85</b>	<b>R<sup>2</sup> = 0.025</b>				<b>R<sup>2</sup> = 0.027</b>					<b>R<sup>2</sup> = 0.032</b>				
Cons	16.683	0.245	16.201; 17.165	0.001	Cons	16.516	0.290	15.945; 17.086	0.001	Cons	16.540	0.262	16.024; 17.055	0.001
Sex	-0.069	0.140	-0.343; 0.205	0.622	Sex	-0.2512	0.086	-0.421; -0.080	<b>0.004*</b>	Sex	-0.188	0.103	-0.390; 0.014	0.069
Age	<b>0.034</b>	0.005	0.024; 0.044	< <b>0.001*</b>	Age	<b>0.035</b>	0.005	0.025; 0.045	< <b>0.001*</b>	Age	<b>0.043</b>	0.006	0.032; 0.053	< <b>0.001*</b>
Loccom	-0.049	0.006	-0.061; -0.036	< <b>0.001*</b>	Ball	-0.052	0.008	-0.068; -0.035	< <b>0.001*</b>	Overall	-0.035	0.004	-0.041; -0.027	< <b>0.001*</b>
<b>0.97</b>	<b>R<sup>2</sup> = 0.170</b>				<b>R<sup>2</sup> = 0.163</b>					<b>R<sup>2</sup> = 0.171</b>				
Cons	16.922	0.779	15.393; 18.450	0.001	Cons	16.777	0.761	15.283; 18.270	0.001	Cons	16.920	0.860	15.234; 18.607	0.001
Sex	0.078	0.226	-0.367; 0.520	0.736	Sex	-0.247	0.207	-0.652; 0.159	0.233	Sex	-0.123	0.276	-0.665; 0.418	0.655
Age	<b>0.079</b>	0.016	0.045; 0.110	< <b>0.001*</b>	Age	<b>0.072</b>	0.013	0.046; 0.098	< <b>0.001*</b>	Age	<b>0.081</b>	0.015	0.052; 0.111	< <b>0.001*</b>
Loccom	-0.089	0.013	-0.116; -0.062	< <b>0.001*</b>	Ball	-0.068	0.015	-0.098; -0.039	< <b>0.001*</b>	Overall	-0.051	0.007	-0.065; -0.037	< <b>0.001*</b>

BMI body mass index, CI confidence interval, Cons, MC motor competence, PR, R<sup>2</sup> pseudo R<sup>2</sup>, Std. Error standard error  
 Analyses are adjusted by country, \* Pr(> t) < 0.05





**Fig. 2** Coefficients and 95% confidence intervals of quantile regression models between motor competence (MC) and body mass index for the whole sample (A), and stratified by age in years (B–D)

351 positive spiral of engagement, which may positively assist  
 352 their weight status in the long term [6, 42].

353 In the review by Barnett et al. [14], which focused on  
 354 longitudinal and experimental studies, overall evidence for  
 355 a negative association between BMI and MC was reported,  
 356 though this evidence was not quantified. Moreover, only one  
 357 of the studies included in that review targeted preschool-  
 358 aged children [43]. This specific study reported that a higher  
 359 BMI at 5 years of age contributed to declines in the MC  
 360 level (as measured by the Bruininks-Oseretsky Test of Motor

Proficiency Short Form) [44]) of 668 children, though no  
 361 support for the reverse causality pathway was observed (i.e.,  
 362 poor MC at 5 years of age did not predict a BMI increase at  
 363 10 years of age) [43]. This longitudinal study used a different  
 364 assessment of motor skill compared to the current study (i.e.,  
 365 concerning skill outcome, product, as compared to the skill,  
 366 process), but this does not fully explain why the study did  
 367 not find an association. An explanation might be that skill  
 368 level was not differentiated enough in this specific 5-year-old  
 369 sample to be able to determine subsequent weight status. It  
 370

could also be argued that in young children, the relationship between MC and BMI/weight status is not as evident as in older children because the development of overweight/obesity takes time, during which a disbalance between energy uptake and energy expenditure continues, which is why large samples are needed with enough children across the weight status and skill continuums. The present study addresses this point by virtue of its multi-center approach of pooled data.

Of course, it is not possible to establish direction or causality in a cross-sectional study. It is also likely that being of a larger weight impacts a child's ability to learn and develop movement skills successfully [45]. The aforementioned systematic review by Barnett et al. [14] also investigated the reciprocal pathway (i.e., weight status to MC), providing support for a negative association. Hence, this relationship is likely to be reciprocal, supporting the model proposed by Stodden et al. [6]. Indeed, excessive body weight is a clear barrier to MC development, as overweight/obese children may have challenges participating in some physical activities and sports, particularly those involving locomotor skills such as running, which need to propel the body through space [46].

In older children and adolescents, two studies that explored the bi-directional relationship between MC and indicators of obesity were located. The findings support a longitudinal association for the pathway from MC to weight status. For example, in a 7-year longitudinal study with children and adolescents (aged 6–13 years), Lima et al. [47] reported that children with higher MC (measured as motor coordination with the Körperkoordinationstest für Kinder) at baseline had a lower risk of having higher body fatness ( $\beta_{\text{boys}} = -0.45$ , 95% confidence interval  $-0.52$  to  $-0.38$ ;  $\beta_{\text{girls}} = -0.35$ , 95% confidence interval  $-0.42$  to  $-0.28$ ). In adolescents aged 12–13 years, when assessing the pathway from MC to BMI, a moderate-to-high negative correlation across a 2-year period was reported, emphasizing poorer MC (measured with the Körperkoordinationstest für Kinder), as a significant predictor of body fat over time ( $B = -0.05$ ,  $p = 0.05$ ), even after adjusting for potential confounders [48]. In the first study, Lima et al. [47] does not state whether baseline BMI was adjusted for, but in the second study by Chagas et al. [48], weight and height were adjusted for, indicating the possibility that our associations in the preschool years may continue as children develop, potentially impacting them into the future. It should be noted though that measures of MC in both studies were restricted to motor coordination.

Our results also showed an important finding according to MC domains. A negative association was seen for both locomotor and ball skills, that was markedly stronger at the 97th percentile of BMI, suggesting 8.9% and 6.8% reductions in BMI for each score unit increase in locomotor and ball skills, respectively. Although locomotor and ball skills are

reasonably correlated ( $r = 0.84$ – $0.96$ ) [49], they should be differentiated, given their distinctive differences in the timing of acquisition and their independent importance towards predicting health behaviors [14, 42]. Moreover, when considering age groups (Table 3 of the ESM), consistent negative associations for MC and its domains with BMI were seen at the 85th and 97th percentiles of the BMI distribution, reinforcing the main results for the whole sample.

It is challenging to compare our results stratified by age because in general, studies that investigate preschoolers tend to use one single sample, and differences according to age are not necessarily highlighted. Slaton et al. [50], in a state-wide sample of 588 US preschoolers, showed that ball skills, but not locomotor skills related positively to attaining global PA guidelines. From a developmental perspective, locomotor skill mastery is achieved before ball skills [51]. At these young ages, children are expected to have sufficient proficiency in locomotor skills such as running, galloping, and jumping, allowing them to be engaged in activities in which these specific skills are required because a significant part of their body is in motion. For those children who are overweight or obese, the excess mass may hamper movement from a mechanical point of view. However, there is evidence that later in life, PA and ball skills are positively associated [52]. In fact, it is expected that as they grow, children should have the motor proficiency necessary to be engaged in more intense-level recreational and sports activities, which theoretically could have a positive impact on BMI. Nonetheless, extrapolations on the role of PA in the analyzed associations are merely theoretical, as PA data were not available.

Our results clearly show an inverse association between MC and BMI. Although the cross-sectional evidence cannot establish causality, our results could suggest that improving both locomotor and ball skills in overweight/obese children could be a promising intervention strategy to promote PA, and consequently, a healthy BMI. However, this would need to be tested in trials that also measure PA, as in this scenario, PA engagement is posed as the possible mechanism to improve MC, thereby impacting weight status. From a clinical point of view, and when considering children at the obese end of the spectrum, the observed reductions in BMI of around 5.1% for overall MC, or of approximately 8.9% and 6.8% when considering locomotor and ball skills mastery, respectively, are tremendously relevant. For instance, total MC scores vary substantially (i.e., from 0 to 100 in the TGMD-3), with higher values representing better performance. Thus, in a hypothetical linear scenario, for those children at higher BMI percentiles, the margin of BMI reductions that could potentially be achieved through developing MC (considering the increased PA levels as a potential mechanism) could be extremely significant.

Our results also showed that for all the age groups (3-year-old, 4-year-old, and 5-year-old children), the

477 association between sex and BMI in favor of boys disappears  
478 at the 85th and 97th percentiles of the BMI distribution,  
479 meaning that weight status similarly affects boys and girls  
480 who are categorized as overweight or obese, even at these  
481 young ages. Although biologically girls are more likely to  
482 gain weight, this fact occurs during adolescence. In child-  
483 hood, excessive weight is a multi-factorial condition also  
484 determined by genetic, environmental, and lifestyle condi-  
485 tions [53] and in general, commonly affects boys and girls  
486 similarly. Finally, older children are likely to exhibit a higher  
487 BMI than younger children. In fact, being older and male are  
488 consistent predictors of better MC, especially concerning  
489 ball skill performance [34], suggesting that sex and age dif-  
490 ferences in preschoolers' performance could magnify health  
491 risk outcomes, such as BMI. Moreover, as young children  
492 are growing (up to the age of 5 years), our results show  
493 that the negative association of MC with BMI became more  
494 evident for those at the 97th distribution onwards. Based on  
495 the vast number of young children who are overweight and  
496 obese worldwide, this is a significant public health concern  
497 for healthcare systems and individual health and well-being  
498 [54].

499 Promoting children's healthy development is crucial for  
500 the future of our societies. The global burden of child and  
501 youth physical inactivity and obesity remains high, and stark  
502 inequalities exist. Among girls and in low-income and mid-  
503 dle-income countries in particular, physical inactivity and  
504 obesity are serious concerns, though these factors affect chil-  
505 dren in all countries across the globe during the key devel-  
506 opmental stages of the preschool years [55]. Understanding  
507 additional potential factors that have a positive impact on  
508 obesity and physical inactivity early in life, such as chil-  
509 dren's MC, are vital to mitigating their lasting effects.

510 One of the major strengths of this study is its multi-coun-  
511 try sample. Prior studies included a wide age range; and  
512 were generally restricted to data from developed countries,  
513 which may partially justify the moderate-to-high risk of  
514 biases or inconsistencies previously reported [14]. Present-  
515 ing a multi-country view of the association between MC and  
516 BMI, combining countries from different regions, and also  
517 middle-income countries is an important strength, as the  
518 vast majority of children in the world live in low-income  
519 and middle-income countries, but they are highly under-rep-  
520 resented in the literature base [56]. Moreover, the use of a  
521 quantile regression analysis, which is agnostic for data distri-  
522 bution [57] and robust to response outliers, allows modeling  
523 of the entire conditional distribution of BMI (which clearly  
524 does not show a Gaussian distribution) over the preschool  
525 years (Fig. 1 of the ESM).

526 This study is limited by not having the variable of PA to  
527 be able to test the mechanism of the relationship between  
528 MC and weight status. Health-related fitness and perceived  
529 competence are other important factors within the Stodden

et al. [6] model that are not included in our present study. 530  
However, it must be noted that attempting to understand and 531  
synthesize all the pathways in this model is complex owing 532  
to the sheer number of studies, and also the measurement 533  
complexities, as highlighted in the Barnett et al. [14] review. 534  
Likewise, there is an acknowledged developmental trajec- 535  
tory of both MC and weight status, influenced by a range 536  
of factors (e.g., growth and maturation, genetics, movement 537  
behaviors, affordances in the physical and social environ- 538  
ment), that need to be taken in account in future studies. 539

540 It is important to note that in our study, our inclusion  
541 criteria were for MC to be assessed using the TGMD, which  
542 includes skills that are not as applicable in different cultural  
543 contexts. For example, the two-handed strike is more rel-  
544 evant in countries that have sports such as baseball, softball,  
545 and cricket. The expertise of the evaluators in scoring the  
546 skill criteria is another limitation point to be recognized in  
547 terms of the inter-rater reliability between studies that are  
548 conducted within different research centers [58]. Although,  
549 it is essential to recognize that if we selected a MC assess-  
550 ment for our inclusion criteria that was product oriented  
551 (e.g., based on a time rather than movement proficiency), we  
552 would have improved the reliability of assessment between  
553 studies, but we would have other different limitations (e.g.,  
554 the Körperkoordinationstest für Kinder does not assess ball  
555 skills). Furthermore, the cross-sectional information at dif-  
556 ferent timepoints in each country was used for the analysis  
557 and there are differences in the sample size between coun-  
558 tries and ages. Additionally, the greatest confidence inter-  
559 vals observed for the associations, especially at the higher  
560 end of the BMI distribution, are expected as data present  
561 a non-normal distribution, and do not precisely represent  
562 the population mean. Nonetheless, the quantile regression  
563 method allows an estimation of the conditional percentiles  
564 of the outcome variable, in contrast to the method of least  
565 squares that estimates the conditional mean.

566 The current study provides evidence-based informa-  
567 tion to encourage public policies and recommendations to  
568 strengthen MC in the preschool years. We recommend that  
569 future large international efforts should be made to investi-  
570 gate longitudinal associations between MC and weight sta-  
571 tus across early childhood, late childhood, adolescence, and  
572 adulthood. We also recommend that representative informa-  
573 tion on MC be gathered, in order to understand the global  
574 interpretation of its impacts on children's weight status and  
575 possible inequalities. For example, gender differences are  
576 consistently observed for specific subscales of MC, or for the  
577 overall MC, even at this young age group. It is also of great  
578 importance to understand and address other social inequali-  
579 ties in MC across contexts, such as income inequalities, that  
580 impact on children's weight status [54].



581 **5 Conclusions**

582 We report a negative association between MC and BMI  
 583 for preschoolers that is markedly stronger at the higher end  
 584 of the BMI distribution. Our findings reinforce that pub-  
 585 lic health policies should better position MC as critical for  
 586 children's healthy weight status at early childhood. Robust  
 587 longitudinal and experimental designs are encouraged to  
 588 explore a possible causality pathway between MC and BMI  
 589 from early childhood.

590 **Supplementary Information** The online version contains supplement-  
 591 ary material available at <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40279-023-01929-7>.

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609 **Conflicts of Interest/Competing Interests** All the authors declare no  
 610 funding, employment, financial or non-financial conflicts of interest.

611 **Ethics Approval** This study was performed in line with the principles  
 612 of the Declaration of Helsinki. Institutional review board/ethics com-  
 613 mittee approval was obtained by each collaborator's institutional review  
 614 board and is presented in Table 1 of the ESM.

615 **Consent to Participate** Not applicable.

616 **Consent for Publication** Not applicable.

617 **Availability of Data and Material** Data generated or analyzed during  
 618 this study are included in the article as tables, figures, and/or the ESM,  
 619 and are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

620 **Code Availability** Not applicable.

621 **Authors' Contributions** CM: conceptualization, data curation, formal  
 622 analysis, visualization, methodology, project administration, writing  
 623 (original draft). VRP: conceptualization, formal analysis, visualiza-  
 624 tion, methodology, writing (review and editing). EKW and MD: data  
 625 curation, project administration, supervision, writing (review and edit-  
 626 ing). LFL: conceptualization, formal analysis, methodology, writing  
 627 (review and editing). AS, AO, DM, FB, IE, JM, LER, ML, SC, NV:  
 628 data curation, supervision, writing (review and editing). FC, FM, KN,  
 629 MQ, PC, RJ, RH, YD: data curation, writing (review and editing).  
 630 PRB: conceptualization, data curation, formal analysis, methodology,  
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