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# Basic Motor Competencies of 6- to 8-Year-Old Primary School Children in 10 European Countries: A Cross-Sectional Study on Associations With Age, Sex, Body Mass Index, and Physical Activity

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Basic motor competencies (BMC) are a prerequisite for children to be physically active, participate in sports and thus develop a healthy, active lifestyle. The present study provides a broad screening of BMC and associations with age, sex, body mass index (BMI) and extracurricular physical activity (PA) in 10 different European countries. The different country and regional contexts within Europe will offer a novel view on already established BMC associations. The cross-sectional study was conducted in 11 regions in 10 European countries in 2018. The motor competence areas, *object movement* (OM) and *self-movement* (SM), were assessed using the MOBAC-1-2 test instrument in 3758 first and second graders (age:  $M = 6.86 \pm 0.60$  years; 50% girls) during Physical Education classes. Children were questioned about their extracurricular PA and age. Their body weight and height were measured in order to calculate BMI. Statistical analyses included variances and correlations. The results showed significant differences in BMC levels between countries (OM:  $F = 18.74, p < 0.001, \eta^2 = 0.048$ ; SM:  $F = 73.10, p < 0.001, \eta^2 = 0.163$ ) whereas associations between BMC and correlates were similar. Boys performed significantly better in OM while girls performed better in SM. Age was consistently positively related to OM and SM with older children reaching

higher levels of BMC than younger ones. While participation rates for extracurricular PA differed widely, participation in ball sports was correlated with OM and SM. Participation in individual sports showed a significant association with SM. In summary, BMC levels of children seem to depend on where they live and are strongly related to their participation in extracurricular PA. Therefore, education and health policies, in order to enhance motor competence development and PA participation, are recommended. Further research on country-specific Physical Education frameworks and their influence on BMC will provide more insights into structural factors and cultural characteristics of BMC development. On a school level, support tools and educational materials for teachers about BMC may enable children to achieve a basic level of motor competencies through Physical Education, contributing to lifelong participation in PA.

**Keywords:** motor competence, physical activity, FMS, MOBAK, motor development, screening, physical education, motor skills

## INTRODUCTION

Physical inactivity among children and adolescents is a global health concern. In 2018, only between 20 and 40% of 5- to 17-year-old children in Europe met the WHO recommendations of 60 min moderate to vigorous intensity physical activity (PA) daily (Aubert et al., 2018). Motor competence is directly related to PA and various health parameters such as health-related fitness and weight status (Pill and Harvey, 2019; Valentini et al., 2020). These dynamics are causal for the engagement or disengagement in PA (Stodden et al., 2008; Robinson et al., 2015; Utesch et al., 2019). In international health science research, motor competence serves as an umbrella term for common terminologies, like motor proficiency, motor performance or fundamental movement skills, to describe goal-oriented movements that include fine and gross motor skills and activities, motor coordination and whole body movements (Robinson et al., 2015; Haga et al., 2018). An additional aspect of motor competence is the concept of basic motor competencies (BMC) (Scheuer et al., 2019b). Its foundation lies in the competence concept of European educational science, where a major interest is monitoring the learning outcomes of physical education (Weinert, 2001; Klieme and Hartig, 2007). BMC are functional performance dispositions which emerge from the demands of context-specific situations (Herrmann et al., 2017). They are a precondition for developing higher motor competence levels and more sport-specific skills. Therefore, a certain level of BMC in children is essential for age-adequate sports engagement (Schierz and Thiele, 2013). BMC are distinct from general motor abilities (e.g., strength) and from concrete motor skills (e.g., handstand). BMC exert a control function over these motor performance dispositions and thus complement them (Herrmann et al., 2017, 2019; Utesch and Bardid, 2019).

Assessments of BMC relate specifically to the context of Physical Education curriculum (Herrmann and Seelig, 2017). They are grade- and age-specific and product-oriented, focusing on successful achievement of the movement goal rather than

on the quality or quantity of movement execution (Bardid et al., 2019; Herrmann et al., 2019; Barnett et al., 2021; Lopes et al., 2021). This distinguishes them from measurements of motor skills, which are mostly assessed by process-oriented assessments (Logan et al., 2018), or motor abilities, which are task- and context-independent (Bös, 2016). Common BMC assessments like the MOBAK-1-2 test instrument (Herrmann et al., 2015; Herrmann, 2018) examine the two competence areas object movement (OM) and self-movement (SM). As BMC themselves are latent constructs and therefore not directly visible, the competence areas are each examined by the performance in four age-adequate manifest motor qualifications. Examples include bouncing a ball through a corridor (for OM) or running in a given sequence (for SM). The BMC concept is transferable to other dimensions and competence areas. E.g., the MOBAK-LUX test instrument consists of four competence areas, all operationalized by test items that are embedded in the Luxembourgish curriculum (Scheuer et al., 2019a).

Childhood, especially primary school ages, is a crucial period for motor development. Promoting PA and motor competence particularly at this developmental stage is highly beneficial for a healthy and active lifestyle (Goodway et al., 2019). One of the key tasks of Physical Education is therefore to provide children with basic motor competencies in order to be physically active and participate in sports, both within Physical Education settings and outside school in extracurricular activities (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2013; SHAPE America, 2014; Vlček, 2019). In order to ensure that children can practice and improve their BMC in Physical Education, it is important to be aware of their level of BMC and to provide appropriate and specific support to children and their teachers.

Children in primary school, however, differ in their BMC-levels, due to endogenous and exogenous factors. The associations of BMC with determinants like age, BMI, sex and extracurricular PA have been investigated in various studies (Tumynaitė, 2016; Herrmann, 2018; Quitério et al., 2018; Herrmann et al., 2019; Scheuer et al., 2019a; Strotmeyer et al., 2020). Studies showed that older children perform better in BMC than younger children of the same school grade

(Herrmann et al., 2017). These differences in BMC between children of the same grade are more apparent in preschool settings (Kühnis et al., 2019) and decrease across primary school (Herrmann and Seelig, 2017; Strotmeyer et al., 2020). Children with a lower BMI achieve higher BMC scores in the motor competence area SM than children with a higher BMI (Herrmann et al., 2019). While boys achieve better results in the competence area OM, girls are slightly better in SM (Herrmann, 2018). On the other hand, a recent study has shown that not sex itself, but sex-specific sports socialization (extracurricular participation in ball sports or individual sports) is a predictor of BMC (Gramespacher et al., 2020). Studies in Germany and Switzerland have shown that the correlations between extracurricular PA and certain fields of BMC were moderate to high and that BMC were a predictor for participation in extracurricular PA (Herrmann and Seelig, 2017; Herrmann et al., 2017). More precisely, children who play extracurricular ball sports have higher BMC values in OM, while children who participate in individual sports have better values in SM than children who are not active in the respective area (Herrmann et al., 2017); Scheuer and Bund (2018) found similar differences in OM and SM levels between girls and boys among school children in Luxembourg. The research group further examined the need of support (defined as failing one third or more of the test tasks in one competence area) and found that around 23% of the first and third graders needed support with OM. In addition, students with a migration background, no activity in a sports club or with overweight had a higher need of support than those without these characteristics. In sum the overall associations between age, BMI, sex and extracurricular PA with BMC are similar across the countries tested so far.

Physical Education curricula as well as approaches to sports in general are very similar across Europe, and BMC are the motor learning objectives of Physical Education in many countries (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2013; Naul and Scheuer, 2020). Nevertheless, cross-national studies of motor competencies are important in order to reveal the relevance of contextual influences and get helpful insights to develop tools for promoting motor proficiency in children. Such studies also give insights into similar or specific mechanisms and correlates of motor competencies across diverse populations. So far, there are no studies comparing BMC levels across different countries. In the last years, a few studies that investigated and compared motor proficiency internationally using process- and product-oriented assessment tools (e.g., KTK, TGMD-2, TMC) found major differences in motor competencies across geographical regions (Brian et al., 2018; Haga et al., 2018; Laukkanen et al., 2020). Even within Europe, children from Norway showed better results in fine and gross motor skills compared to children from Italy and Greece (Haga et al., 2018). Yet, many countries still lack established screenings of motor competencies.

In a systematic review investigating correlates of gross motor competence, Barnett et al. (2016) found that sex strongly correlated with object control competencies. Girls from Belgium, the US, Australia and Finland scored lower in object control skills than boys (Barnett et al., 2016; Brian et al., 2018;

Miller et al., 2019; Niemistö et al., 2019) but higher in locomotor skills than their male counterparts (Niemistö et al., 2019). In primary school children, higher age was associated with a higher level of motor competence (Barnett et al., 2016; Coppens et al., 2019). Body weight and motor competencies showed relatively consistent inverse associations across different countries (Bardid et al., 2015; Coppens et al., 2019; Laukkanen et al., 2020).

Luz et al. (2019) proposed that differences in extracurricular sports participation was the reason for differences in motor competence levels between Portuguese and U.S. children. Participation in organized sports was associated with better object control and locomotion skills in Finland (Niemistö et al., 2019). Yet, the association between extracurricular PA (all regular PA outside of Physical Education) and motor competence has not been taken into account in cross-national studies. However, this association might impede the comparisons due to country-specific differences in extracurricular sport culture.

In order to provide a broad screening of BMC in Europe, we tested 6- to 8-year-old children in 10 European countries at the same time with the equal validated assessment tool. In this exploratory study, we also wanted to investigate the associations between BMC and possible individual determinants including age, sex, BMI and extracurricular PA among the subsamples and in the total sample.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

Twelve countries investigated BMC of children between 6 and 10 years in the Erasmus + -project “Basic Motor Competencies in Europe (BMC-EU) – Assessment and Promotion” (590777-EPP-1-2017-1-DE-SPO-SCP). The project was led by teams from the University of Potsdam (Germany), the University of Luxembourg, and the University of Basel (Switzerland). Cross-sectional results of first and second grade children are presented here.

### Participants

Data was assessed in the third quarter of 2018 by 11 partner institutions in 10 countries (see **Table 1**). This study fully conforms to the Declaration of Helsinki. The partner institutions collected a data sample that was representative for the region they assessed. Prior to the testing, the participating institutions obtained ethical clearance for their respective sample. Parents gave written informed consent. Children assented orally.

The total sample with complete data (in all variables and covariates tested in this study) comprised  $N = 3758$  first and second graders (50% girls) from 11 subsamples (see **Table 1**). For readability, the subsamples are named after the main city in the region of assessment: Salzburg (Austria), Liège (Belgium), Brno (Czech Republic), Frankfurt (Frankfurt/Main, Germany), Berlin (Germany), Athens (Greece), Luxembourg (Luxembourg), Groningen (Netherlands), Lisbon (Portugal), Trnava (Slovakia), Zurich (Switzerland).

Subsample sizes differed widely between  $n = 105$  (Trnava) and  $n = 1503$  (Frankfurt) (**Table 1**). The high number of participants in the latter is due to recruitment from a municipal screening.

**TABLE 1 |** Descriptive statistics of age (mean ± SD, 95%CI) and BMI (mean, SE, 95%CI) and participation rates (% participating, 95%CI) in extracurricular physical activity, stratified by subsample site.

Subsample site	N (of total sample)	Girls	Age (in years)	Body mass index (kg/m <sup>2</sup> ) <sup>a</sup>						Ball sport participation <sup>b</sup>		Individual sport participation <sup>b</sup>		
				Boys			Girls							
Salzburg (Austria)	207 (6%)	50%	7.47 ± 0.68	[7.38, 7.56]	16.21	0.22	[15.78, 16.64]	15.72	0.22	[15.29, 16.15]	59.9%	[52.2, 66.7]	88.9%	[84.2, 92.8]
Liège (Belgium)	299 (8%)	52%	6.42 ± 0.31	[6.39, 6.46]	15.62	0.15	[15.31, 15.92]	15.79	0.15	[15.50, 16.08]	20.4%	[15.7, 25.1]	64.6%	[59.0, 70.2]
Brno (Czech Republic)	255 (7%)	51%	6.94 ± 0.53	[6.88, 7.00]	15.82	0.19	[15.45, 16.19]	15.44	0.18	[15.08, 15.81]	43.5%	[37.1, 49.2]	72.9%	[67.7, 78.4]
Frankfurt/Main (Germany)	1503 (40%)	51%	6.75 ± 0.55	[6.72, 6.77]	16.27	0.09	[16.10, 16.45]	16.13	0.09	[15.96, 16.31]	20.5%	[18.6, 22.6]	30.7%	[28.4, 33.1]
Berlin (Germany)	565 (15%)	49%	6.68 ± 0.37	[6.65, 6.71]	15.31	0.11	[15.10, 15.52]	15.27	0.11	[15.06, 15.48]	37.8%	[33.8, 41.8]	52.2%	[48.1, 56.1]
Athens (Greece)	129 (3%)	50%	6.92 ± 0.55	[6.82, 7.01]	17.36	0.39	[16.60, 18.13]	17.29	0.39	[16.52, 18.06]	38.0%	[29.5, 47.3]	64.3%	[55.8, 72.1]
Luxembourg (Luxembourg)	275 (7%)	49%	7.09 ± 0.63	[7.01, 7.16]	15.55	0.18	[15.21, 15.90]	16.00	0.18	[15.64, 16.35]	32.7%	[27.6, 38.5]	62.2%	[56.2, 67.8]
Groningen (Netherlands)	154 (4%)	46%	7.09 ± 0.77	[6.97, 7.20]	16.11	0.23	[15.65, 16.57]	16.08	0.25	[15.58, 16.58]	22.1%	[15.7, 29.0]	85.7%	[79.9, 90.9]
Lisbon (Portugal)	114 (3%)	43%	7.46 ± 0.37	[7.40, 7.54]	17.02	0.34	[16.34, 17.70]	17.24	0.40	[16.46, 18.03]	43.9%	[34.5, 53.0]	64.9%	[56.1, 73.7]
Trnava (Slovakia)	105 (3%)	56%	6.70 ± 0.41	[6.63, 6.79]	16.26	0.40	[15.46, 17.06]	16.63	0.36	[15.92, 17.33]	61.0%	[51.9, 70.5]	77.1%	[68.6, 83.8]
Zurich (Switzerland)	152 (4%)	46%	7.56 ± 0.61	[7.46, 7.66]	15.69	0.16	[15.38, 16.00]	15.10	0.17	[14.76, 15.44]	29.6%	[22.7, 36.4]	61.2%	[53.3, 68.7]
Total sample	3758 (100%)	50%	6.86 ± 0.60	[6.84, 6.88]	16.02	0.05	[15.91, 16.12]	15.94	0.05	[15.84, 16.05]	30.6%	[29.1, 31.9]	52.0%	[50.3, 53.6]

95% confidence intervals are added to test for differences between subsamples and total sample.

<sup>a</sup>BMI is adjusted for age.

<sup>b</sup>No participation = 0, participation = 1.

CI, confidence interval; N, sample size; SD, standard deviation; SE, standard error.

## Instruments

### Basic Motor Competencies

Basic motor competencies were assessed with the MOBAK-1-2 (Herrmann, 2018) for 6- to 8-year-old children with standardized equipment. The psychometric quality criteria for the MOBAK-1-2 have been confirmed several times in various validation studies via confirmatory factor analyses (Herrmann et al., 2015; Herrmann, 2018). The test instrument focuses on a total of eight items covering the two motor competence areas object movement (OM) and self-movement (SM) and is in line with several national Physical Education curricula (Greven and Letschert, 2006; Hessisches Kultusministerium, 2011; Österreichisches Bundesministerium für Bildung Wissenschaft und Forschung, 2012; Herrmann et al., 2015; Landesinstitut für Schule und Medien Berlin-Brandenburg [LISUM], 2015; National Institute for Education [NIE], 2015; Deutschschweizer Erziehungsdirektoren-Konferenz, 2016; Ministère de l'Éducation nationale, de l'Enfance et de la Jeunesse [MENJE], 2017; Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs, 2017; Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports [MEYS], 2017; Administration générale de l'Enseignement [AGE] de la Fédération Wallonie-Bruxelles, 2020). We tested OM with the items throwing, catching, bouncing and dribbling and SM with the items balancing, rolling, jumping and running. For the six items bouncing, dribbling,

balancing, rolling, jumping and running, each child performed two attempts (no trial run). For each turn, the test leader recorded whether the child passed or failed the attempt (failed attempt = 0 points; passed attempt = 1 point). The points from the two rounds were later summed per test item. For the test items throwing and catching, the children had six consecutive attempts each. The number of successful attempts was marked on the protocol and later transformed as follows: 0–2 successful attempts = 0 points, 3–4 successful attempts = 1 point, and 5–6 successful attempts = 2 points. Each competence area consisted of four test items, thus, allowing a maximum of eight points per competence area and a total of 16 points.

### Age, Sex, and Body Mass Index

The test leader recorded the age (by month and year of birth) and sex of each child. Body height and weight for BMI calculation [mass(kg)/height(m<sup>2</sup>)] were measured using a scale (assessment in kg rounded to whole numbers) and a tape measure (assessment in cm rounded to whole numbers and later transferred to m).

### Extracurricular Physical Activity

The test leader interviewed the children individually about their extracurricular PA (Do you participate in any kind of regular sport activities outside of school? What kind of sports do you

participate in?) and recorded the type of sports on a standardized protocol using a dichotomous scale (0 = no extracurricular PA, 1 = extracurricular PA). Extracurricular PA was split posterior into two variables, namely (including *ball sports*) and individual sports (summarizing *racket sports*, *endurance-oriented activities* and *coordination-oriented activities*) according to the BMC areas OM and SM (Herrmann et al., 2017).

## Procedures

All tests were conducted during scheduled regular Physical Education classes. During the testing procedure, the classes were split into small groups of 4–5 students and assigned to specially certified and trained test leaders. The test leaders were sport scientists, future PE teachers or sport science students and experienced in conducting MOBAC-tests. Prior to the assessment, they participated in standardized trainer workshops using the same manual in all partner countries. The leaders guided their group through the test stations and assessed each child's performance in a standardized protocol. The test leader explained the task with a given instructions sentence and gave one proficient demonstration for each test item of the MOBAC-1-2 (Herrmann et al., 2015). The order of the items was randomly chosen in each group. The oral interviews with the children were completed before or after measuring BMC. This procedure enabled an economical recording of one class within one school lesson.

## Data Analyses

All statistical analyses were performed using the software IBM SPSS Statistics 27 (IBM Corp., Armonk, NY, United States). We performed listwise deletion in order to obtain a total sample with complete data in OM, SM, age, BMI, sex and extracurricular PA variables ( $N = 4491$  before data cleaning,  $N = 3758$  after). We used Bootstrap 1000 with 95% confidence intervals (CI) in all analyses to compensate for the uneven subsample sizes.

Comparisons of anthropometric data and extracurricular PA among all subsamples were conducted using univariate analyses of covariance. BMI values were distinguished for girls and boys and adjusted for age. We calculated partial eta squared to analyze the effect size of the differences among the subsamples (0.01: small effect size; 0.06: medium effect size; 0.14 or higher: large effect size). 95%CI were considered in order to compare the subsamples with the total sample in anthropometric data and extracurricular PA participation (see **Table 1**).

Correlations of the BMC areas OM and SM with age were calculated using Pearson correlations including 95%CI (coefficient  $r$ ; 0.1: small effect; 0.3: medium effect; 0.5 or higher: large effect; Cohen, 2013) (**Table 2**).

Marginal estimates are displayed for BMC values of boys and girls per sample site including Cohen's  $d$  in order to investigate differences in BMC levels between boys and girls per subsample (0.2: small effect; 0.5: medium effect; 0.8: large effect; **Table 3**).

**Table 4** shows adjusted BMC values per competence area for each subsample and the total sample as well as intercorrelations between OM and SM for each subsample (**Table 4**, adjusted for age and sex). Univariate analyses of covariance allowed for overall in between subsample comparison of BMC values and 95%CI for

**TABLE 2** | Pearson correlations ( $r$ , 95%CI) between motor competence areas and age, stratified by subsample.

Subsample site		Age
<b>Object movement</b>		
Salzburg	<b>0.40</b>	[0.27, 0.52]
Liège	<b>0.20</b>	[0.09, 0.29]
Brno	-0.02	[-0.15, 0.11]
Frankfurt	<b>0.19</b>	[0.14, 0.24]
Berlin	<b>0.09</b>	[0.01, 0.18]
Athens	<b>0.32</b>	[0.15, 0.48]
Luxembourg	<b>0.33</b>	[0.23, 0.42]
Groningen	<b>0.33</b>	[0.17, 0.48]
Lisbon	0.10	[-0.06, 0.23]
Trnava	0.05	[-0.13, 0.26]
Zurich	<b>0.41</b>	[0.26, 0.53]
Total	<b>0.27</b>	[0.24, 0.30]
<b>Self-movement</b>		
Salzburg	<b>0.21</b>	[0.09, 0.34]
Liège	<b>0.18</b>	[0.07, 0.28]
Brno	<b>-0.14</b>	[-0.26, -0.02]
Frankfurt	-0.01	[-0.06, 0.05]
Berlin	<b>0.10</b>	[0.02, 0.18]
Athens	0.15	[-0.04, 0.31]
Luxembourg	-0.07	[-0.20, 0.07]
Groningen	<b>0.25</b>	[0.12, 0.39]
Lisbon	0.09	[-0.11, 0.35]
Trnava	-0.03	[-0.18, 0.13]
Zurich	<b>0.40</b>	[0.25, 0.52]
Total sample	<b>0.13</b>	[0.10, 0.16]

95% confidence intervals are added to test for differences between subsamples and total sample. Significant coefficients are bold.

comparisons of subsamples with the total sample. We calculated partial Pearson correlations of both BMC areas with the correlates BMI, individual sports and ball sports. Correlations included adjustments for age and sex in order to account for the variance of these covariates (**Table 4**).

## RESULTS

### Sample Characteristics

Nine of the 11 *ad hoc* subsamples consisted of 100–300 children with five subsamples consisting of fewer than 200 children. Distribution across sex was well-balanced in the subsamples and the total sample (**Table 1**).

The individual factors varied between the subsamples. Differences were found in age [ $F(10,3746) = 112.66$ ,  $p < 0.001$ , range: 6.42 (Liège) – 7.56 (Zurich),  $\eta^2 = 0.231$ ], participation in ball sports [ $F(10,3745) = 32.01$ ,  $p < 0.001$ , range 20.4% (Liège) – 61.0% (Trnava),  $\eta^2 = 0.079$ ] and participation in individual sports [ $F(10, 3745) = 66.62$ ,  $p < 0.001$ , range: 30.7% (Frankfurt) – 88.9% (Salzburg),  $\eta^2 = 0.151$ ]. Overall participation in extracurricular PA differed internationally with Frankfurt having the lowest and Salzburg having the highest participation rate. In BMI, we found differences between the subsamples for the



571 boys [ $F(10,1860) = 8.58, p < 0.001$ , range: 15.31 (Berlin) – 17.36  
 572 (Athens),  $\eta^2 = 0.044$ ] as well as for the girls [ $F(10, 1874) = 9.38$ ,  
 573  $p < 0.001$ , range: 15.10 (Zurich) – 17.29 (Athens),  $\eta^2 = 0.048$ ].

574 **Levels of Basic Motor Competencies**

575 As **Table 4** shows, the mean value of the total sample in  
 576 OM was 4.30 and was surpassed by six samples. Five of these  
 577 six samples as well as three others also exceeded the mean  
 578 value of the total sample in SM which was 4.88. The BMC  
 579 level controlled for sex and age especially differed between the  
 580 subsamples regarding SM [OM:  $F(10, 3745) = 18.74, p < 0.001$ ,  
 581 range: 3.58 (Trnava) – 5.18 (Salzburg),  $\eta^2 = 0.048$ ; SM:  $F(10,$   
 582  $3745) = 73.10, p < 0.001$ , range: 3.95 (Frankfurt) – 6.05  
 583 (Groningen),  $\eta^2 = 0.163$ ]. Intercorrelations were significant in  
 584 the total sample ( $r = 0.34$ ) and in all subsamples except the  
 585 Trnava subsample ( $r = 0.16$ ). Differences in intercorrelations  
 586 between OM and SM did not vary substantially between the  
 587 subsamples (see **Table 4**).

588 **Correlates of Levels of Basic Motor Competencies**

589 **Age, Sex, and Body Mass Index**

590 In the total sample, boys clearly performed better in OM  
 591 [ $t(3756) = 23.09, p < 0.001, d = 0.75$ ] while girls only slightly  
 592 performed better in SM [ $t(3756) = -3.24, p < 0.01, d = -$   
 593  $0.11$ ] (**Table 3**). Consequently, in every subsample, boys were  
 594 significantly better in OM with medium to high effect sizes. In  
 595 SM, the effects were small with girls performing significantly  
 596 better than boys in four subsamples and significantly worse than  
 597 boys in one subsample (Lisbon).

600 Correlations between BMC values and age showed that older  
 601 children performed better in both OM and SM in all samples  
 602 including the total sample (**Table 2**). In OM, there was a moderate  
 603 effect for age ( $r = 0.27$ ) whereas in SM the effect was small  
 604 ( $r = 0.13$ ). The strongest influence of age was apparent in the  
 605 samples from Salzburg and Zurich for OM and in the Zurich  
 606 sample for SM. Only the subsample from Brno showed a small  
 607 negative correlation with age in SM.

608 The correlation between BMI and OM showed a negative  
 609 tendency in the total sample. Only the subsample from Berlin  
 610 had a significant small positive correlation. Besides these findings,  
 611 there were no significant correlations between OM and BMI.  
 612 In SM, the total sample as well as all subsamples except the  
 613 Brno and Trnava samples showed a significant small negative  
 614 correlation (**Table 4**).

615 **Extracurricular Physical Activity**

616 Children's participation in extracurricular PA was linked to  
 617 higher results in both competence areas. These results were  
 618 consistent in the majority of the subsamples as well as the total  
 619 sample. Stronger associations were found between the specific  
 620 type of PA and motor competence (**Table 4**). Even though many  
 621 samples did not show significant correlations between the motor  
 622 competence areas and extracurricular PA, at least the tendency  
 623 was the same in almost all subsamples.

624 Children who participated in ball sports showed small to  
 625 moderate correlations with OM in seven samples and in the total  
 626 sample

**TABLE 3 |** Marginal estimates of basic motor competencies (mean, SE, 95%CI) per competence area and sex, stratified by subsample site and including Cohen's *d* for effect size of differences between boys and girls.

Subsample site	Boys		Girls		Cohen's <i>d</i>		
<b>Object movement</b>							
Salzburg	6.18	0.16	[5.87, 6.50]	4.99	0.16	[4.68, 5.30]	0.75
Liège	4.60	0.15	[4.30, 4.90]	3.44	0.15	[3.15, 3.72]	0.64
Brno	5.43	0.15	[5.14, 5.72]	4.55	0.14	[4.27, 4.84]	0.53
Frankfurt	4.67	0.07	[4.54, 4.81]	3.07	0.07	[2.94, 3.20]	0.85
Berlin	5.18	0.11	[4.98, 5.39]	3.88	0.11	[3.67, 4.09]	0.73
Athens	5.18	0.26	[4.66, 5.71]	3.39	0.27	[2.87, 3.92]	0.85
Luxembourg	4.99	0.17	[4.67, 5.32]	3.72	0.17	[3.38, 4.05]	0.65
Groningen	4.84	0.20	[4.44, 5.25]	3.96	0.22	[3.52, 4.39]	0.48
Lisbon	5.98	0.21	[5.57, 6.40]	3.41	0.24	[2.93, 3.89]	1.52
Trnava	4.00	0.23	[3.54, 4.46]	2.92	0.20	[2.51, 3.32]	0.69
Zurich	6.04	0.19	[5.65, 6.42]	4.67	0.21	[4.26, 5.09]	0.78
Total sample	5.02	0.04	[4.93, 5.10]	3.58	0.04	[3.50, 3.67]	0.75
<b>Self-movement</b>							
Salzburg	6.02	0.16	[5.71, 6.33]	6.19	0.16	[5.88, 6.50]	-0.11
Liège	4.87	0.14	[4.58, 5.15]	5.29	0.14	[5.02, 5.57]	-0.25
Brno	5.67	0.15	[5.37, 5.97]	6.14	0.15	[5.84, 6.43]	-0.27
Frankfurt	3.86	0.08	[3.71, 4.02]	4.00	0.08	[3.85, 4.15]	-0.06
Berlin	5.32	0.09	[5.14, 5.50]	5.70	0.09	[5.52, 5.89]	-0.25
Athens	3.92	0.23	[3.46, 4.39]	4.63	0.24	[4.16, 5.09]	-0.38
Luxembourg	5.38	0.16	[5.07, 5.68]	5.69	0.16	[5.37, 6.00]	-0.17
Groningen	5.88	0.19	[5.50, 6.26]	6.31	0.21	[5.90, 6.72]	-0.25
Lisbon	4.94	0.22	[4.50, 5.37]	4.24	0.25	[3.74, 4.75]	0.39
Trnava	5.57	0.20	[5.18, 5.96]	5.29	0.17	[4.94, 5.63]	0.21
Zurich	5.73	0.19	[5.36, 6.10]	6.27	0.20	[5.87, 6.67]	-0.32
Total sample	4.77	0.05	[4.68, 4.86]	4.99	0.05	[4.89, 5.08]	-0.11

95% confidence intervals are added to test for differences between subsamples and total sample. Significant coefficients are bold. CI, confidence interval; SE, standard error.

sample whereas the correlation between SM and participation in ball sports was also small to moderate in four samples and small in the total sample.

Correlations between OM and individual sports varied from a moderate negative correlation (Trnava) to a small positive correlation (Zurich) while the total sample showed no correlation. In total, only three subsamples had significant *r*-values above or below zero. This inconsistency shows that participation in individual sports was not associated with performance in OM tasks in general. Participation in individual sports correlated significantly with SM in the total sample. Three subsamples had significant small to moderate correlations. Overall, correlations in the total sample were strongest between OM and ball sports as well as between SM and individual sports (**Table 4**).

**DISCUSSION**

The purpose of our study was to analyze levels of and associations with BMC in 6- to 8-year-old primary school children in 10 European countries. Our study is the first to provide an

**TABLE 4 |** Sum values of basic motor competencies (mean, SE, 95%CI) per competence area, Partial Pearson correlations (*r*, 95%CI) between competence areas per subsample and between motor competence areas and BMI and extracurricular physical activity participation, stratified by sample site.

Subsample site	Basic motor competencies			Correlation of object movement and self-movement		Body mass index		Ball sport participation		Individual sport participation	
<b>Object movement</b>											
Salzburg	5.18	0.13	[4.95, 5.40]	<b>0.23</b>	[0.09, 0.36]	-0.03	[-0.15, 0.09]	<b>0.15</b>	[0.00, 0.28]	0.06	[-0.09, 0.21]
Liège	4.31	0.11	[4.11, 4.53]	<b>0.24</b>	[0.14, 0.35]	0.01	[-0.10, 0.11]	<b>0.21</b>	[0.09, 0.31]	-0.02	[-0.12, 0.10]
Brno	4.94	0.11	[4.72, 5.15]	<b>0.37</b>	[0.26, 0.46]	0.04	[-0.09, 0.18]	<b>0.30</b>	[0.19, 0.42]	-0.06	[-0.18, 0.06]
Frankfurt	3.94	0.05	[3.84, 4.04]	<b>0.34</b>	[0.29, 0.38]	-0.03	[-0.07, 0.02]	<b>0.23</b>	[0.18, 0.27]	<b>0.06</b>	[0.01, 0.11]
Berlin	4.65	0.08	[4.51, 4.80]	<b>0.26</b>	[0.19, 0.34]	<b>0.11</b>	[0.02, 0.19]	<b>0.11</b>	[0.02, 0.18]	0.03	[-0.06, 0.11]
Athens	4.25	0.16	[3.89, 4.60]	<b>0.35</b>	[0.20, 0.49]	-0.03	[-0.18, 0.13]	<b>0.40</b>	[0.25, 0.54]	-0.04	[-0.22, 0.12]
Luxembourg	4.20	0.11	[3.97, 4.42]	<b>0.31</b>	[0.20, 0.41]	-0.05	[-0.16, 0.09]	0.09	[-0.02, 0.20]	<b>0.13</b>	[0.01, 0.25]
Groningen	4.23	0.15	[3.96, 4.48]	<b>0.22</b>	[0.07, 0.36]	-0.06	[-0.19, 0.07]	<b>0.19</b>	[0.06, 0.33]	-0.09	[-0.24, 0.08]
Lisbon	4.38	0.17	[4.02, 4.72]	<b>0.27</b>	[0.10, 0.43]	-0.15	[-0.33, 0.03]	0.07	[-0.11, 0.27]	0.00	[-0.20, 0.18]
Trnava	3.58	0.18	[3.26, 3.88]	0.16	[-0.10, 0.38]	0.00	[-0.14, 0.19]	-0.07	[-0.27, 0.13]	<b>-0.36</b>	[-0.54, -0.13]
Zurich	4.89	0.15	[4.60, 5.17]	<b>0.18</b>	[0.01, 0.34]	-0.16	[-0.34, 0.04]	0.10	[-0.07, 0.26]	<b>0.18</b>	[0.04, 0.33]
Total	4.30	0.03	[4.23, 4.36]	<b>0.34</b>	[0.31, 0.37]	<b>-0.04</b>	[-0.07, -0.01]	<b>0.21</b>	[0.18, 0.24]	<b>0.08</b>	[0.05, 0.12]
<b>Self-movement</b>											
Salzburg	5.99	0.13	[5.76, 6.21]			<b>-0.26</b>	[-0.40, -0.11]	0.12	[-0.03, 0.26]	0.12	[-0.03, 0.25]
Liège	5.17	0.11	[4.97, 5.36]			<b>-0.13</b>	[-0.23, -0.02]	0.09	[-0.02, 0.19]	<b>0.12</b>	[0.02, 0.24]
Brno	5.89	0.12	[5.67, 6.10]			-0.04	[-0.17, 0.09]	<b>0.13</b>	[0.00, 0.25]	-0.04	[-0.17, 0.09]
Frankfurt	3.95	0.05	[3.85, 4.06]			<b>-0.15</b>	[-0.20, -0.11]	0.09	[0.04, 0.14]	<b>0.15</b>	[0.10, 0.20]
Berlin	5.55	0.08	[5.41, 5.67]			<b>-0.08</b>	[-0.16, -0.01]	0.07	[-0.02, 0.16]	<b>0.09</b>	[0.01, 0.18]
Athens	4.26	0.16	[3.93, 4.61]			<b>-0.23</b>	[-0.39, -0.06]	<b>0.22</b>	[0.06, 0.37]	-0.06	[-0.21, 0.11]
Luxembourg	5.49	0.11	[5.26, 5.72]			<b>-0.14</b>	[-0.28, 0.00]	0.03	[-0.08, 0.14]	0.09	[-0.03, 0.22]
Groningen	6.05	0.15	[5.77, 6.31]			<b>-0.25</b>	[-0.39, -0.09]	0.02	[-0.13, 0.17]	0.02	[-0.15, 0.21]
Lisbon	4.54	0.18	[4.20, 4.87]			<b>-0.21</b>	[-0.41, -0.03]	0.10	[-0.07, 0.27]	0.01	[-0.19, 0.18]
Trnava	5.42	0.18	[5.17, 5.69]			0.05	[-0.09, 0.23]	<b>0.32</b>	[0.14, 0.49]	<b>0.30</b>	[0.11, 0.50]
Zurich	5.86	0.16	[5.57, 6.15]			<b>-0.18</b>	[-0.33, -0.02]	<b>0.17</b>	[0.02, 0.32]	0.07	[-0.10, 0.25]
Total	4.88	0.03	[4.81, 4.94]			<b>-0.19</b>	[-0.22, -0.16]	<b>0.15</b>	[0.12, 0.18]	<b>0.23</b>	[0.20, 0.27]

All values are adjusted for age and sex. 95% confidence intervals are added to test for differences between subsamples and total sample. Significant coefficients are bold. CI, confidence interval; SE, standard error.

overview of BMC across different regions using the same assessment tool, namely the MOBAK-1-2 test. The findings show strong variation in BMC and, therefore, in achieving a key learning goal of Physical Education, but similar associations with determinants including age, sex, BMI, and extracurricular PA across the subsamples. These results indicate that children's dispositions to actively participate in sports depend on where they live.

### Levels of Basic Motor Competencies

Overall, children from all subsamples scored moderately in both OM and SM. We found significant cross-national differences in BMC levels across the countries and regions we assessed. The associations between OM and SM tasks were positive throughout. Especially, in SM tasks the results varied significantly between the subsamples. These results are in line with a recent cross-European study in which the geographic region explained 19% of variance in motor competence (Laukkanen et al., 2020). That study compared the levels of motor competence across three different regions in Europe (northern, central and southern Europe) and found considerable differences in 6–9-year old children's gross

motor coordination and body control. The authors assumed that those differences were due to varying developmental rates of motor competence in children as well as individual and environmental factors including government strategies and active play in childhood. Nevertheless, the researchers were unable to fully explain the reasons for the variation. The authors of another study comparing fine and gross motor competence levels of Greek, Italian and Norwegian children assumed that differences in motor competence in their study were unlikely due to anthropometric reasons. Instead, they ascribed these differences to country-specific differences in Physical Education objectives and frameworks in preschool and primary school (Haga et al., 2018). The exploratory structure of our study does not allow us to fully explain the differences between BMC levels across the subsamples. We assume that determining factors like country-specific variations in content and setting of Physical Education and in leisure time activities led to these results. Children in first and second grade have only been experiencing Physical Education for a short time. As a result, it is possible that they are not yet familiar with some specific movements or content of Physical Education.

799 Furthermore, not all countries offer Physical Education in  
 800 kindergarten already, and the duration of kindergarten also  
 801 varies. As the MOBAK-1-2 is strongly aligned with the curricular  
 802 content, differences in BMC could emerge. Another aspect  
 803 could be the importance and extent of sports in the family.  
 804 To compensate for such disparities and to avoid overlooking  
 805 children with low motor competencies, regular BMC assessments  
 806 throughout childhood as well as specific interventions to foster  
 807 BMC would be beneficial. On the school level, support tools  
 808 and educational materials for teachers on how to improve  
 809 BMC in their classes may enable children to achieve a  
 810 basic level of motor competence through Physical Education  
 811 (Scheuer and Heck, 2020).

## 812 **Correlates of Basic Motor Competencies**

813 Overall, boys of all samples in our study performed better in OM  
 814 tasks than girls while girls tended to score higher in SM tasks  
 815 than boys. This corresponds with preceding studies assessing  
 816 BMC (Herrmann, 2018) as well as research about general motor  
 817 competence (Barnett et al., 2016; Niemistö et al., 2019; Pill  
 818 and Harvey, 2019) and met our expectation. Surprisingly, one  
 819 subsample (Lisbon) showed an opposite result with boys scoring  
 820 significantly higher in SM than girls. This finding was also  
 821 reported by a study on fundamental movement skills where  
 822 boys outperformed girls in locomotion skills, even though  
 823 this assessment focused on the quality of the movement and  
 824 not on the successful mastery of a task (Jiménez-Díaz et al.,  
 825 2015). These differences between the sexes can be due to  
 826 the curricula, the sports culture in the region or country or  
 827 the specific regional and/or socioeconomic sample, as several  
 828 studies have suggested (Brian et al., 2018; Haga et al., 2018;  
 829 Luz et al., 2019). However, given the low *ad hoc* conducted  
 830 sample size in the Lisbon subsample, these interpretations  
 831 remain unclear.  
 832

833 Consistent with the literature (Herrmann, 2018), this study  
 834 showed that age is positively associated with BMC. Older  
 835 children have higher BMC scores than younger children in  
 836 the same age group.

837 Object movement tasks appear to be relatively non-sensitive  
 838 to body size and proportion. We found no correlation between  
 839 BMI and OM in the total sample or in the subsamples with  
 840 one exception. These results match previous BMC research  
 841 (Herrmann, 2018). There seem to be other factors that influence  
 842 OM more than BMI because in previous studies BMI also did  
 843 not appear to impact OM. Only the Berlin subsample showed a  
 844 small positive correlation between BMI and OM, which might be  
 845 attributed to the lowest mean BMI and therefore small variance  
 846 in this subsample.

847 For SM, the results showed that children with a lower  
 848 BMI scored higher in BMC. These findings are consistent with  
 849 previous BMC research as well as research on motor competence  
 850 showing strong scientific proof of an inverse association between  
 851 body weight and motor competencies which even increases with  
 852 age (Bardid et al., 2015; Cattuzzo et al., 2016; Herrmann and  
 853 Seelig, 2017; Strotmeyer et al., 2020). A longitudinal study showed  
 854 negative associations between gross motor competencies and  
 855 BMI at baseline as well as in the 2-year follow up. Additionally,

worse performance in gross motor competencies predicted an  
 increase in BMI and vice versa (D'Hondt et al., 2014). Another  
 study with 6–10-year old children found that the current BMI  
 was a significant predictor of future performances in motor  
 competence (D'Hondt et al., 2013). These results highlight the  
 importance of early detection of children's weight status (focusing  
 on high BMI levels) and motor competence levels (focusing on  
 poor motor competence levels) because of their intertwining  
 relationship over time.

In our study, participation rates in extracurricular PA varied  
 widely from rather low to extremely high. Almost one third  
 of all children participated in ball sports while more than  
 half of the children were active in individual sports outside of  
 school. Some subsamples were noticeable for their exceptional  
 high rates of participation in individual sports (e.g., Salzburg  
 and Groningen with both above 85%). These children also  
 showed the highest values in SM. This could explain the left-  
 skewed distribution of SM scores in the total sample with  
 60.7% of the children scoring above average in SM. Of the  
 children with above average SM scores, 60.3% participated in  
 individual sports outside of school and 35% in ball sports.  
 The subsample with the lowest participation rate in individual  
 sports (Frankfurt) likewise reached the lowest BMC scores in  
 SM. Interestingly, there was only a small correlation between  
 SM and individual sport participation in this subsample and  
 no correlation in the Groningen and Salzburg subsamples. The  
 subsamples with participation rates in extracurricular ball sport  
 activities below 30% did not show lower OM competencies  
 than the other subsamples. Of the two subsamples with  
 more than 59% of the children participating in ball sports,  
 one showed the highest (Salzburg) and the other one the  
 lowest (Trnava) BMC value in OM. These surprising results  
 could be due to the fact that the Trnava sample consisted  
 of more girls than the other subsamples (and they scored  
 lowest in OM).

Even though differences between extracurricular PA  
 participation were apparent, their relation to BMC was similar  
 across the majority of the samples. Overall, our study confirmed  
 previous findings about the positive relationship of participation  
 in PA outside of school and higher motor competence levels  
 (Drenowatz and Greier, 2019; Schembri et al., 2019; Niemistö  
 et al., 2020) which was particularly visible in specific types of  
 PA and motor competence. Children participating in ball sports  
 outside of school showed higher success rates in OM tasks than  
 children who did not participate in such activities. Likewise,  
 children participating in individual sports showed higher success  
 rates in SM tasks than their non-participating counterparts.

Schembri et al. (2019) showed that primary school children  
 who were active more than 120 min per week were more likely to  
 have a higher level of motor competence than less active children.  
 This finding supports the effort in fostering participation of  
 children in extracurricular sports activities (Fairclough and  
 Stratton, 2006; Meyer et al., 2013; Hollis et al., 2016; Kühnis et al.,  
 2017; Tanaka et al., 2018).

Among Flemish children between 6 and 11 years, boys  
 and girls participating in sport activities and sport clubs had  
 more likely a high socioeconomic status (SES) than children

913 who were not participating in those activities (Vandendriessche  
914 et al., 2012). Furthermore, the hours spent participating in sport  
915 were a significant covariate for motor coordination variables  
916 like jumping sideways or balancing backwards on a balance  
917 beam. A longitudinal study showed that consistent sports club  
918 participation over 3 years was associated with better motor  
919 coordination levels than no sports club participation (Vandorpe  
920 et al., 2012). Additionally, the motor coordination level predicted  
921 sports club participation 2 years later. Drenowatz and Greier  
922 (2019) confirmed this finding for motor competence as a  
923 predictor variable.

924 With the importance of frequent and extensive PA and SES as  
925 an important influence factor for participation in extracurricular  
926 PA, it is important that extracurricular PA opportunities are  
927 made available to everyone with a focus on lower income  
928 families.

## 929 **Strengths and Limitations**

930 The main strength of the study lies in the widespread  
931 simultaneous assessment of BMC across 10 European countries  
932 using the same standardized procedures, equipment and test  
933 instrument. The test instrument, MOBAK-1-2, is aligned with  
934 key learning goals of Physical Education in these countries.  
935 All data was managed and analyzed centrally. The MOBAK  
936 test instrument covers two main areas addressing both object  
937 movement and self-movement competencies, and, therefore,  
938 offers a broad insight into children's motor competence  
939 levels. The total sample size is remarkable and provides  
940 a deeper understanding of motor competence levels and  
941 associations in different regions in Europe. The assessed data  
942 allows for further country-specific research and longitudinal  
943 screenings.

944 Despite these strengths, limitations should be considered. Due  
945 to the lack of representative data for the different countries,  
946 direct comparisons between the countries are problematic and  
947 sometimes limited to specific circumstances of the subsamples.  
948 Assessment fidelity was not controlled for, even though the  
949 use of a standardized test manual and practical trainings for  
950 the test leaders were implemented to ensure a high level of  
951 standardization. Differences in anthropometric data between  
952 the subsamples could be the result of contextual influences  
953 of different regions. Therefore, adjusted statistics were used  
954 to reduce the impact of differences in anthropometric data.  
955 Future studies with more representative samples and higher  
956 sample sizes per country are recommended. To reveal more  
957 about the causes of the differences between the subsamples,  
958 more detailed information on the sociocultural background of  
959 individuals, as well as information at the national level, should  
960 be considered. The subsamples are, however, still representative  
961 for their specific region of assessment and offer reference points  
962 for further investigations. Information about PA beyond self-  
963 reported extracurricular PA including physical fitness levels as  
964 well as other measures related to BMC were not obtained.  
965 A more thorough assessment of such variables would foster the  
966 understanding of BMC and important correlates even more. The  
967 use of validated scales and stadiometers across all samples would  
968 allow more precise assessments of children's height and weight.  
969

970 More specific measurements of children's body composition (e.g.,  
971 bioelectrical impedance analyses) would allow a more accurate  
972 statement than the BMI value (Pecoraro et al., 2003; Kriemler  
973 et al., 2009). Lastly, only a small part of motor competence  
974 was examined. Other studies, like Scheuer et al. (2019), tested  
975 further aspects of motor competence (e.g., moving in water  
976 or object-locomotion) and were, therefore, able to display a  
977 broader picture of motor competence levels of children than  
978 our study.

## 979 **CONCLUSION**

980 The study's sample suggests that BMC levels in primary  
981 school children in many European countries vary strongly  
982 depending on the country and region they are living in.  
983 The vast amount of assimilated data contributes to a deeper  
984 understanding of the current status of BMC in children and lays  
985 the foundation for further research and longitudinal monitoring  
986 on a national or international level. For some countries, this  
987 study was the first assessment of children's BMC levels. The  
988 differences in BMC levels may be attributed to specific cultural  
989 conditions and educational settings like country-specific Physical  
990 Education frameworks and should be explored in more detail.  
991 Furthermore, education and health policies to enhance BMC  
992 development as well as regular monitoring of BMC should  
993 be established.

994 Confirming previous research, associations between BMC  
995 and correlates like age, sex, BMI and extracurricular PA were  
996 similar across all subsamples. These results indicate that the  
997 MOBAK instruments are feasible for screening BMC in many  
998 European countries regardless of the cultural context. The strong  
999 associations between BMC levels and extracurricular PA in all  
1000 subsamples highlight the importance of fostering the offer of and  
1001 access to PA outside of Physical Education.

## 1002 **DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT**

1003 The raw data supporting the conclusions of this article will be  
1004 made available by the authors, without undue reservation.

## 1005 **ETHICS STATEMENT**

1006 The studies involving human participants were reviewed and  
1007 approved by Masaryk University Research Ethics Committee,  
1008 School of Physical Education and Sport Science (National and  
1009 Kapodistrian University of Athens, Greece) scientific committee,  
1010 Ethikkommission der Paris Lodron Universität, Salzburg; Ethisch  
1011 Advies Commissie van de Hanzehogeschool Groningen, Comité  
1012 d'Ethique Hospitalo-Facultaire Universitaire de Liège; Ethics  
1013 Review Panel of the University of Luxembourg, Ethikkommission  
1014 Universität Potsdam, and Ethikkommission Nordwest- und  
1015 Zentralschweiz. Written informed consent to participate in this  
1016 study was provided by the participants' legal guardian / next  
1017 of kin.

1027 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

1028  
 1029 MW was responsible for study management and analyzed the  
 1030 data and drafted the manuscript. JS was responsible for overall  
 1031 organization of the study and revised the manuscript. CH  
 1032 was responsible for the overall conception and design of this  
 1033 study, contributed to data analysis and interpretation of results  
 1034 and revised the manuscript. All other authors were responsible  
 1035 for data assessment and management in their regions and  
 1036 country-specific additions to the study. All the authors provided  
 1037 critical feedback to the manuscript, have read and approved the  
 1038 final version of the manuscript, and agree with the order of  
 1039 presentation of the authors.  
 1040  
 1041

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