

Reliability and validity of the Körperkoordinationstest Für Kinder in Chinese children

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Background. The Körperkoordinationstest Für Kinder (KTK) is a reliable and low-cost motor coordination test that has been used in several countries. However, whether the KTK is a reliable and valid instrument for use with Chinese children has not been determined. Additionally, because the KTK was designed to incorporate locomotor, object control, and stability skills, and there is a lack of measurement tools that include stability skills assessment for Chinese children, the KTK's value and validity are worth discussing.

Methods. A total of 249 primary school children (131 boys; 118 girls) aged 9–10 years from Shanghai were recruited in this study. Using the Test of Gross Motor Development-3 (TGMD-3), we evaluated the performance of the KTK and established the concurrent validity. We also tested the retest reliability and internal consistency of the KTK. **Results.** The test-retest reliability of the KTK was high (overall: $r = 0.951$; balancing backwards: $r = 0.869$; hopping for height: $r = 0.918$; jumping sideways: $r = 0.877$; moving sideways: $r = 0.647$). After excluding boys, the internal consistency of the KTK was higher than the acceptable level of Cronbach's $\alpha > 0.60$ (overall: $\alpha = 0.618$; boys: $\alpha = 0.583$; girls: $\alpha = 0.664$). Acceptable concurrent validity was found between the total scores for the KTK and TGMD-3 (overall: $r = 0.420$, $p < 0.001$; boys: $r = 0.411$, $p < 0.001$; girls: $r = 0.437$, $p < 0.001$). **Discussion.** We concluded that the KTK is a valuable instrument for assessing the motor coordination of children in China. As such, the KTK can be used to monitor the level of motor coordination in Chinese children.

1 **Reliability and validity of the Körperkoordinationstest Für Kinder in Chinese**
2 **children**

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17

18 **Abstract:**

19 **Background.** The Körperkoordinationstest Für Kinder (KTK) is a reliable and low-cost motor
20 coordination test that has been used in several countries. However, whether the KTK is a reliable
21 and valid instrument for use with Chinese children has not been determined. Additionally, because
22 the KTK was designed to incorporate locomotor, object control, and stability skills, and there is a
23 lack of measurement tools that include stability skills assessment for Chinese children, the KTK's
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26 Shanghai were recruited in this study. Using the Test of Gross Motor Development-3 (TGMD-3),
27 we evaluated the performance of the KTK and established the concurrent validity. We also tested
28 the retest reliability and internal consistency of the KTK.

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32 Cronbach's $\alpha > 0.60$ (overall: $\alpha = 0.618$; boys: $\alpha = 0.583$; girls: $\alpha = 0.664$). Acceptable concurrent
33 validity was found between the total scores for the KTK and TGMD-3 (overall: $r = 0.420$, $p <$
34 0.001 ; boys: $r = 0.411$, $p < 0.001$; girls: $r = 0.437$, $p < 0.001$).

35 **Discussion.** We concluded that the KTK is a valuable instrument for assessing the motor
36 coordination of children in China. As such, the KTK can be used to monitor the level of motor
37 coordination in Chinese children.

38

39 **Keywords:** Motor competence, Motor coordination, Körperkoordinationstest Für Kinder,
40 Internal consistency, Reliability, Validity, China, Children

41

42 Introduction

43 Motor competence refers to motor performance, proficiency, ability, or coordination, and is
44 defined as proficiency in performing a wide array of goal-directed motor skills as well as the
45 underlying mechanisms (e.g., quality of movement, coordination, and control) (Barnett et al.,
46 2022; Burton & Rodgerson, 2001; Coppens et al., 2021; D'Hondt et al., 2013). Motor competence's
47 importance lies in its beneficial impacts on physical and mental health in children and adolescents,
48 including behavioural (e.g., promoting physical activity and reducing sedentary behaviour (Tsuda
49 et al., 2020)), physiological (e.g., improving physical fitness (Utesch et al., 2019) and improving
50 weight status (D'Hondt et al., 2013)), cognitive (e.g., improving cognitive function (Haapala,
51 2013)), and psychological benefits (e.g., promoting perceived motor competence (Lubans et al.,
52 2010)). Motor coordination, an important component of motor competence, is closely associated
53 with numerous health outcomes, while poor motor coordination has detrimental effects on overall
54 functioning, emotional and social development (De Chaves et al., 2016), as well as physical
55 activity and physical fitness in children (Rivilis et al., 2011). The development of motor
56 coordination is dependent on neuromuscular and biological maturation (De Chaves et al., 2016).
57 A coordinated movement pattern is the foundation of an effective execution of motor skills and is
58 at the core of fundamental motor skills, such as locomotor skills, object control skills, and stability
59 skills (Coppens et al., 2021; Novak et al., 2016).

60 Motor coordination is not a single physical fitness skill, but the synthesis of balance, rhythm,
61 strength, lateral, speed, agility, and other human movement abilities (Coppens et al., 2021). It is
62 hard to evaluate motor coordination independently from other pure fitness characteristics such as
63 flexibility, speed, and strength (Vandorpe et al., 2010). A reliable and valid tool specifically
64 designed for motor coordination would be useful for screening motor competence in children,
65 especially in a school setting (Vandorpe et al., 2010). The Test of Gross Motor Development-3
66 (TGMD-3) (Ulrich, 2020) is a process-oriented assessment that focuses on assessing the quality of
67 motor competence (e.g., mechanics of movement), but it is more suitable for intervention studies
68 because analysing video data is time consuming and costly (Bardid et al., 2019). Product-oriented
69 measures focus on the outcomes of motor competence (e.g., the number of tosses, or the distance
70 of throwing), which require limited resources (Bardid et al., 2019). As a type of product-oriented
71 measure, the Körperkoordinationstest Für Kinder (KTK) can assess motor coordination for both
72 typically developing children and special children (Vandorpe et al., 2010).

73 To date, multiple motor coordination test batteries have been developed for assessment and
74 monitoring at different life stages. The KTK is one of the most popular measurement tools,
75 especially for children and adolescents (Cattuzzo et al., 2017; Moreira et al., 2019). The KTK was
76 initially developed to assess global motor coordination and physical fitness (e.g., body
77 coordination) (Rudd et al., 2016) and was modified and used for screening motor competence in
78 sports such as soccer (Deprez et al., 2015; Vandendriessche et al., 2012), volleyball (Pion et al.,
79 2015), and figure skating (Mostaert et al., 2016). The KTK is comprised of four items: balancing
80 backwards (BB), moving sideways (MS), hopping for height (HH), and jumping sideways (JS).
81 All age groups (5–15 years) use the same items to assess motor coordination, which makes the
82 tool suitable for longitudinal studies in samples of children and adolescents. The KTK is a simple
83 and time-efficient assessment; children can complete all measures within 15 minutes. One of the
84 main differences between the KTK and other measurement tools is that it provides an objective
85 and direct assessment of motor coordination (Vandorpe et al., 2010). In addition, the KTK assesses
86 locomotor skills and object control skills, which are the focus of current motor competence
87 assessment tools such as the TGMD-3, as well as stability skills (e.g., balance, twisting).
88 Unfortunately, however, few studies have focused on the measurement of stability skills in Chinese
89 children.

90 The KTK has undergone reliability and validity tests in several countries, including Germany
91 (Kiphard & Schilling, 2007), Brazil (Draghi et al., 2020; Moreira et al., 2019), and Belgium
92 (Coppens et al., 2021), and is used extensively to assess the motor coordination of typically-
93 developing children (Iivonen, 2015; Vandorpe et al., 2010). Although the psychometric structure
94 of the KTK was found to be similar across studies, different raw scores were reported in different
95 countries (Bardid et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2022). For example, evidence showed that Chinese
96 children (9–10 years) had a lower level of motor coordination than Australian and Belgian children
97 (6–8 years) (Liu et al., 2022). Notably, there was no analysis performed to determine whether the
98 KTK's lack of reliability and validity in Chinese children contributed to the difference in the raw
99 scores. Scientific evidence has indicated that the differences in raw scores can be explained by the
100 variety of physical activity contexts (i.e., physical education) that children receive in primary
101 school, which may have influenced the performance of novel motor tasks among children (Bardid
102 et al., 2015). Therefore, it is essential to verify the suitability of measurement tools when they are
103 used across different cultural backgrounds (Cicchetti & Rourke, 2004; Vallerand, 1989). If an

104 assessment is unreliable, it will inevitably produce the wrong results, potentially leading to
105 misdiagnosis, false alarms, or failure to detect a disorder, thus losing its value and meaning
106 (Valentini et al., 2013).

107 Additionally, the other focus of this study was to determine whether gender differences across
108 different cultural contexts affected the reliability and validity of the KTK, as research has shown
109 that motor coordination can differ between boys and girls of the same age (Lopes et al., 2011;
110 Olesen et al., 2014; Re et al., 2018; Vandorpe et al., 2010). Multiple differences between boys and
111 girls, both in physical development and motor development, have been recently reported
112 (Goodway & Gallahue, 2020; Haywood & Getchell, 2020). This could help explain the gender
113 differences of motor coordination in children, which may also influence the suitability of the KTK
114 items on different genders when used in a Chinese context. Unfortunately, very few studies have
115 considered these potential gender differences when the KTK is used in a different cultural contexts.

116 Using reliable and valid assessments can help facilitate cross-cultural comparisons and
117 provide a better understanding of the global level of motor coordination (Bhui et al., 2003). Given
118 the lack of measurement tools used to assess the stability skills in Chinese children, the aims of
119 this study were to: (1) investigate the level of motor coordination measured by the KTK in Chinese
120 children; (2) examine the reliability and validity of the KTK in Chinese children; and (3) test
121 whether gender differences in Chinese children affected the reliability and validity of the KTK.

122

123 **Materials & Methods**

124 *Participants*

125 The participants for this study were recruited using a convenience sampling method.
126 G*Power 3.0 software (University of Düsseldorf, Düsseldorf, Germany) was used to calculate the
127 sample size (effect size = 0.25, $\alpha=0.05$, $1-\beta = 0.95$ and a 2-tailed correlation), and the required
128 sample size was 197. The children included in this study did not have physical and intellectual
129 disabilities.

130 A total of 283 school-aged children between 9 and 10 years of age from one primary school
131 in Shanghai, China, were invited to participate in this study. A total of 249 participants (131 boys
132 and 118 girls) completed the study assessment and provided valid data. Before the assessments,
133 all children were required to assent and their parents were required to provide informed consent.

134 This study was approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of the Shanghai University of
135 Sport (102772021RT072).

136 *Instruments and assessments*

137 Motor coordination was assessed using the KTK developed by Kiphard & Schilling (1974;
138 2007). The KTK consists of four main components and the test flow is shown in Figure 1.

139 The first test was BB, which evaluates balance control and coordination in the progressive
140 recognition of the support base. Participants stepped back three times on three balance beams of
141 different widths, each 3 meters long and 8 centimetres high, with widths decreasing as the test
142 progressed (6.0 cm, 4.5 cm, and 3.0 cm, respectively). A maximum of eight steps could be taken
143 for each beam in each test, and a maximum of 72 steps (eight steps * three times * three beams)
144 could be taken for the total test score. The test score was the sum of the number of test steps.

145 The second test was HH, which evaluates lower limb coordination, strength, and dynamic
146 stability control. After a short run-up (about 1.5 meters), participants jumped with one leg over a
147 growing pile of pillows (60 cm * 20 cm * 5 cm each). During the whole test, the other leg could
148 not touch the ground. Schilling & Kiphard (1974) set the initial height of the jump pillows (6 years:
149 5 cm / one piece, 7-8 years old: 15 cm / three pieces, 9-10 years old: 25 cm / five pieces. 11-14
150 years old: 35 cm / seven pieces) according to the age of the participants. Participants who
151 performed successfully on the first, second, or third trials were awarded three, two, or one point(s),
152 respectively. If participants did not succeed in the initial height test, the height was lowered by 5
153 cm until they succeeded. Each successful jump was followed by adding a pillow, and the test ended
154 when participants failed three times. A maximum of 39 points (ground level + 12 pillows) could
155 be scored for each leg, with a possible maximum score of 78 points. The test score was the sum of
156 the points achieved by the left and right feet.

157 The third test was JS, which evaluates the bilateral symmetrical motor coordination, speed,
158 and dynamic balance of the lower limbs. Participants jumped over a square wooden slat (60 cm *
159 4 cm * 2 cm) with both feet horizontally from left and right as much as possible within 15 s, two
160 times. The test score added the number of jumps between the two tries.

161 The fourth and final test was MS, which evaluates the coordination and agility of lateral
162 movement. The test combines the velocity of the upper and lower limbs with fluidity of movement,
163 laterality, and spatiotemporal structure. Participants stood on two side-by-side platforms (25 cm *
164 25 cm * 5.7 cm) and moved the two platforms by hands as fast as possible within 20 s. Each

165 participant was given two tries, one for each of the left and right directions. The test score was the
166 sum of the two trials.

167 The sum of the scores was calculated from the sum of the raw scores for the subtests (TS =
168 BB + HH + JS + MS). All assessments followed the guidelines established by the researchers
169 (Kiphard & Schilling, 2007).

170 Children in this study were also assessed for motor competence using the TGMD-3 (Ulrich,
171 2020). The TGMD-3 is a widely used assessment for children aged 3–10 years (Bolger et al., 2021;
172 Maïano et al., 2021; Webster & Ulrich, 2017). Specifically, the TGMD-3 consists of six locomotor
173 skills (run, gallop, hop, skip, horizontal jump, and slide) and seven ball skills (two-hand strike of
174 a stationary ball, one-hand forehand strike of self-bounced ball, one-hand stationary dribble, two-
175 hand catch, kick a stationary ball, overhand throw, and underhand throw) (Ulrich, 2020; Webster
176 & Ulrich, 2017). The TGMD-3 is a reliable (ICC = 0.741–0.755) and valid ($\chi^2_{(64)} = 103, p < 0.01$)
177 instrument used to assess fundamental movement skills in Chinese children (Xingying et al., 2022;
178 Zhang & Cheung, 2019).

179 Each test of the TGMD-3 consists of three to five performance criteria. In general, these
180 performance criteria represent mature patterns of skills. Each performance criterion is scored as: 1
181 = performs correctly and 0 = did not perform correctly. The performance criteria score was
182 calculated by adding the scores for each performance criterion in Trials 1 and 2. Skill scores were
183 calculated by summing all performance standard scores for each skill. All assessments in this
184 research followed the guidelines established by the authors (Kiphard & Schilling, 2007; Ulrich,
185 2020). Two independent raters completed the assessment and the inter-rater reliability between
186 them for the 13 skills ranged from 0.699 to 0.747.

187 *Procedure*

188 A test–retest design was used to assess the KTK across a two-week interval, and 69 children
189 were included in the test–retest reliability design. On both occasions, children’s motor competence
190 was assessed in the same contexts, including silent demonstrations, assessment time, and facilities.

191 After the test–retest was completed, the formal test was carried out. A total of 249 children
192 completed all the formal tests. For the formal test procedure, a group of students completed the
193 KTK test and then took the TGMD-3. All tests were conducted based on the author’s operating
194 manual (Ulrich, 2020).

195 Before the test, a five-hour workshop was delivered to the research assistants (RAs), and an

196 assessment manual was also distributed to each RA. All tests were conducted on a sports court,
197 and nine children in each group were assessed by two to three RAs. At the beginning of each test,
198 one trained RA provided a silent demonstration of the skill to be tested for participants. All children
199 performed a familiarisation trial of each skill followed by two performance trials, as recommended
200 in the TGMD-3 and KTK handbooks (Kiphard & Schilling, 2007; Ulrich, 2020). Children's
201 performances on each skill were videorecorded for assessment.

202 *Statistical analysis*

203 The data were statistically analysed using SPSS software (IBM SPSS 26.0). Values were
204 considered statistically significant when $p < 0.05$.

205 Kolmogorov–Smirnova (K–S) was used to test the normality of the outcome parameters. In
206 addition, a histogram, P-P graph, and Q-Q graph were drawn to evaluate the general trend, kurtosis,
207 and skewness values of each resulting parameter for visual inspection. The K–S results showed
208 that the data were not normally distributed ($p > 0.05$), and the histogram, P-P graph, and Q-Q graph
209 also showed that these data had a skewed distribution. Normal transformation attempts to convert
210 non-normal data into normal data, but the data still presented non-normal distribution after
211 transformation. Therefore, the non-parametric test method was adopted in this study.

212 Spearman's rho correlations were used to examine the test-retest reliability. Cronbach's alpha
213 index was used to verify the internal consistency analysis. Cronbach's alpha values over 0.80 were
214 considered excellent, between 0.70 and 0.80 were considered good, and ranging from 0.60 to 0.69
215 were considered acceptable (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955; Miller, 1995).

216 The criteria validity was examined using concurrent validity, which was computed using
217 Spearman's rho correlation coefficients. Currently, the intensity division of correlation coefficients
218 is not uniform, and the definition of strong, moderate, and low correlation coefficients is different
219 across different research fields and specialities. For example, the definition of a threshold of
220 moderate intensity is 0.4–0.6 in psychology, 0.6–0.7 in medicine, and 0.3 in politics (Akoglu,
221 2018). In kinesiology, the definition of correlation coefficient strength in the related literature
222 indicated that 0.4–0.5 is a moderate or fair level (Draghi et al., 2020; Lane & Brown, 2015;
223 Menescardi et al., 2022; Valentini et al., 2013), while a few studies have reported that 0.4–0.5 is a
224 low-level (Hoeboer, 2017). On the whole, statistical values of 0.4–0.5 were acceptable. Due to
225 differences in the intensity division of correlation coefficients, this study did not emphasize the
226 intensity and focused instead on the value of the correlation coefficients.

227

228 Results**229 General information**

230 The details of the participants are shown in Table 1. The average BMI of all participants was
231 17.92, for only boys was 18.82, and only girls was 16.92. For the children's motor competence
232 test, the mean KTK scores of all participants was 110.49, 110.53 for boys, and 110.45 for girls.
233 The mean TGMD-3 score for all participants was 80.37, 81.53 for boys, and 79.08 for girls.
234 Overall, the motor competence level of boys was slightly higher than that of girls.

235 Test–retest reliability

236 The Spearman's rho correlations coefficients of test–retest reliability is shown in Table 2.
237 The overall reliability of the TS, BB, HH, JS, and MS was 0.951, 0.869, 0.918, 0.877, and 0.647,
238 respectively. Specifically, boys reported higher reliability coefficients for the TS (boys = 0.957,
239 girls = 0.934, $p < 0.001$), HH (boys = 0.914, girls = 0.886, $p < 0.001$), and JS (boys = 0.875, girls
240 = 0.871, $p < 0.001$) compared to girls, while girls reported higher coefficients for BB (boys =
241 0.837, girls = 0.850, $p < 0.001$) and MS (boys = 0.660, girls = 0.666, $p < 0.001$) than boys.

242 Internal consistency

243 The internal consistency was examined by computing Cronbach's Alpha, where 0.60 or
244 higher is an acceptable level (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955; Miller, 1995).

245 The overall coefficients were 0.618, 0.583 for boys, and 0.664 for girls. The results confirmed
246 the internal consistency of the KTK, except for the boys. These findings suggested that the KTK
247 is an acceptable instrument to assess motor skills in Chinese children.

248 Concurrent validity

249 The concurrent validity of the KTK was examined by computing Spearman's rho correlations,
250 as shown in Figure 2. Acceptable validity was found between the overall total ($r = 0.420$, $p <$
251 0.001), boys ($r = 0.411$, $p < 0.001$), and girls ($r = 0.437$, $p < 0.001$) results from the KTK and
252 TGMD-3.

253

254 Discussion

255 This was the first study to examine the reliability and validity of the KTK in Chinese children
256 aged 9–10 years. The present study aimed to assess the internal consistency, concurrent validity,
257 and test–retest reliability of the KTK, and showed that the KTK is a reliable and valid test to assess

258 motor coordination in Chinese children.

259 In this study, the KTK scores of boys were higher than girls. This finding is consistent with
260 previous research (Lopes et al., 2011; Olesen et al., 2014; Re et al., 2018). Meanwhile, when
261 compared with other countries, Chinese children's KTK scores were slightly lower than those of
262 Australia and Belgium (Bardid et al., 2015), but far lower than those in Brazil (Filho et al., 2021;
263 Re et al., 2018). Overall, the motor coordination level of Chinese children is relatively low.

264 The results showed a high level of test–retest reliability of the KTK, effectively confirming
265 the test reliability. In this study, the test temporal stability results were high ($r = 0.95$), which was
266 consistent with the results reported ($r = 0.97$) in the original edition of the KTK (Kiphard &
267 Schilling, 2007). The reliability coefficient of the total score was higher than the score of each test
268 item, which was in line with the findings of previous studies (Iivonen, 2015). For other studies,
269 the reliability coefficients ($r = 0.60$ – 0.99) of the KTK also showed moderate to high-reliability
270 (Freitas et al., 2015; Lopes et al., 2012a; Lopes et al., 2011; Lopes et al., 2012b; Martins et al.,
271 2010). The KTK showed good reliability in boys and girls, suggesting that it is also suitable for
272 testing in single gender groups, i.e., just boys or girls. Boys outperformed girls in both the HH and
273 JS retests, and girls outperformed boys in both the BB and MS retests.

274 In this study, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient of KTK in overall children and girls was 0.618
275 and 0.664, respectively. These results exceed the minimum standard of 0.60 (Breakweell, 2006).
276 For boys, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was close to the acceptable level. Therefore, further
277 studies are needed to provide more evidence. The values obtained through the Cronbach's alpha
278 index reflected a good homogeneity profile among the measured subitems and highlighted the
279 internal consistency of the KTK.

280 For the purpose of obtaining the concurrent validity of the KTK, the TGMD-3 was selected
281 as the reference standard in this study. In terms of reliability and validity, the TGMD-3 is the motor
282 competence assessment tool with the most consistent positive evidence (Eddy et al., 2020;
283 Klingberg et al., 2019). In addition, the TGMD-3 is the most used tool to test motor competence
284 in the world. It showed good reliability and validity in many countries (Eddy et al., 2020; Griffiths
285 et al., 2018; Kim et al., 2014; Lopes et al., 2016; Valentini, 2012). Concurrent validity showed that
286 a significance and acceptable correlation was found between the KTK and TGMD-3 total scores
287 ($r = 0.411$ – 0.437). Compared with other tools, the concurrent validity of this study was relatively
288 lower. For example, the KTK total score showed strong correlations with the Movement

289 Assessment Battery for Children (MABC) total score ($r = 0.62-0.65$) and the Bruininks–Oseretsky
290 Test of Motor Proficiency Second Edition (BOT-2) total score ($r = 0.60-0.64$) in Belgian children
291 (Fransen et al., 2014; Henderson, 1992; Smits-Engelsman et al., 1998). The ‘fragile’ result of this
292 study could be related to the specificity of the TGMD-3 and KTK assessments. The moderate
293 correlation coefficient could be explained by the fact that the TGMD-3 was designed to assess
294 children’s gross motor development (i.e., locomotor and object control), while the KTK focused
295 on measures of body and global motor coordination (Rudd et al., 2016).

296 To sum up, the results showed that the KTK is a reliable and valid motor coordination test
297 for Chinese children. It is necessary to make clear the reasons for choosing one assessment tool
298 over another: for example, time, effort, and experience (Logan et al., 2016). Process-oriented (i.e.,
299 having a combination of process and product) measurement tools tend to take a longer time than
300 product-oriented measuring tools (Bardid et al., 2019). The KTK is a typical product-oriented
301 assessment tool. It is considered to have low operational cost, is easy to perform, and is a relatively
302 simple test (Cools et al., 2009), which are characteristics that may favour its use for both research
303 purposes and the daily activities of physical education teachers and sports coaches (Moreira et al.,
304 2019). At the same time, the KTK is considered to be an effective test battery to assess longitudinal
305 motor competence (Coppens et al., 2021), as the motor competence tasks involved in the KTK are
306 characterized by almost no ceiling effect (Coppens et al., 2021; Kiphard & Schilling, 2007) and
307 are the same for every test item from ages 5 to 15 years old (Coppens et al., 2021; D’Hondt et al.,
308 2013).

309

310 **Limitations**

311 A limitation of this study was that the analyses of test–retest reliability, internal consistency,
312 and concurrent validity were restricted to children from 9 to 10 years of age. These children were
313 limited in their ability to represent children from 5 to 15 years of age. Therefore, the clinometric
314 results of this version of the test should be interpreted with some caution. Future studies are
315 encouraged to address this limitation and include a full age range. Another limitation is the fact
316 that the participants came from one region-city and one single school, which could have had an
317 impact on the results. Future studies should encourage sampling in multiple regions and schools
318 in China. In addition, the KTK itself also has some shortcomings; for example, only the MS test
319 is a test of object control skills. For the motor competence test, object control is considered to be

320 an important aspect of motor competence in addition to locomotor and balance skills. These three
321 major motor skill areas should be combined in order to evaluate the whole motor competence in a
322 comprehensive method.

323

324 Conclusion

325 This study was the first to prove the validity and reliability of the KTK in China. The KTK
326 has high test–retest reliability, acceptable internal consistency, and concurrent validity in Chinese
327 children. However, using the KTK in a single group of boys needs should be done with caution as
328 the internal consistency of boys needs further research. In conclusion, the KTK proved to be a
329 valuable instrument for the assessment of the motor coordination of children in China.

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- 496

497 Legends:

498 Figure 1. The test protocol of the KTK

499

500 Figure 2. Scatter plot and Spearman's rho correlation coefficient of the KTK

501

502 Table 1. Participants' sociodemographic characteristics, KTK and TGMD-2 scores, and categorization by gender

503

504 Table 2. Spearman's rho correlation coefficients of test-retest reliability

Figure 1

The test protocol of the KTK

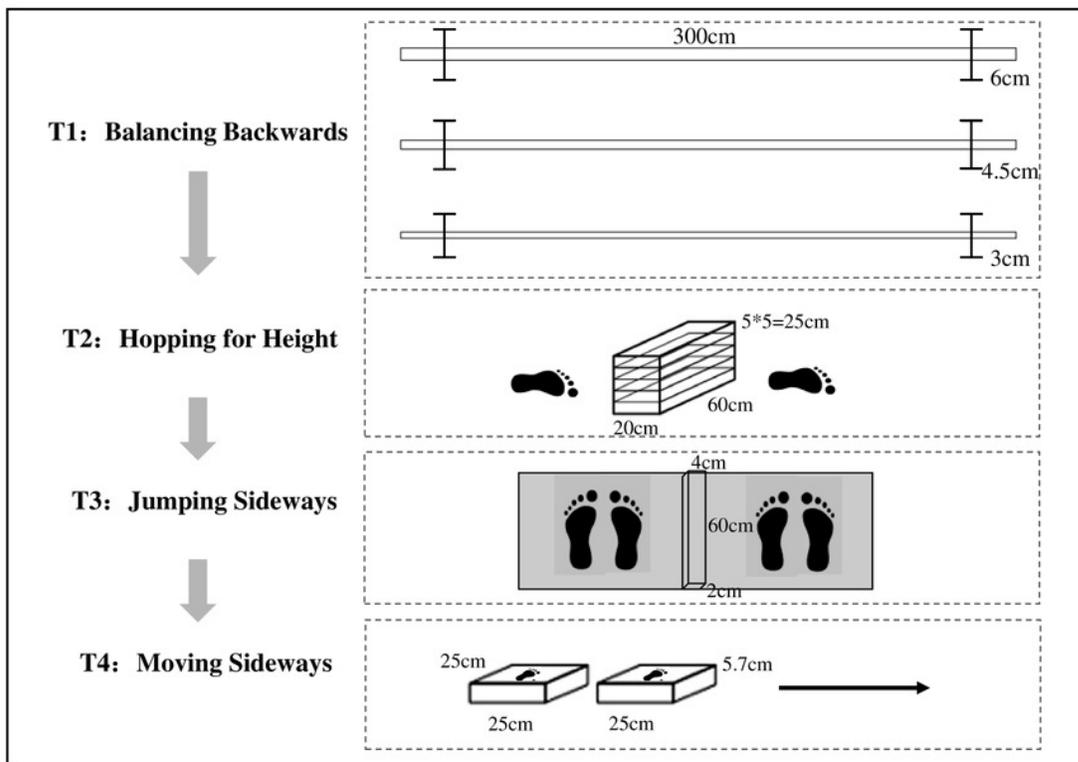


Figure 2

Scatter plot and Spearman's rho correlation coefficient of the KTK

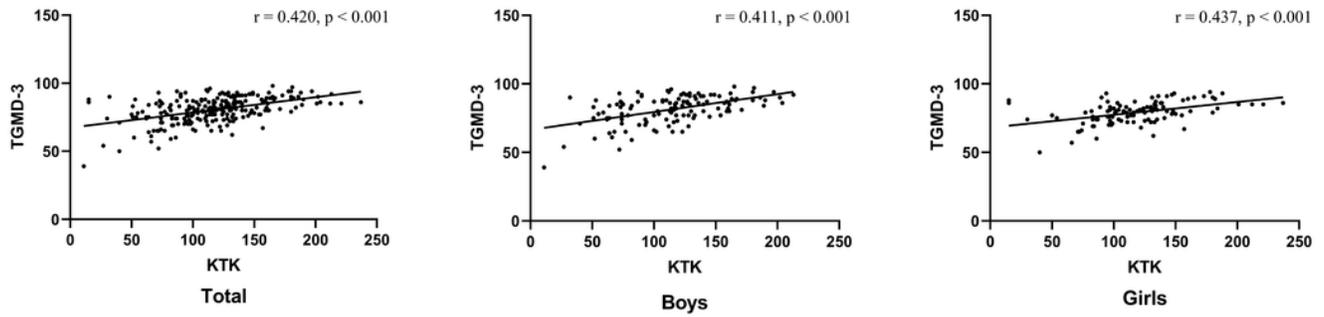


Table 1 (on next page)

Participants' sociodemographic characteristics, KTK and TGMD-3 scores, and categorization by gender

1 Table 1. Participants' sociodemographic characteristics, KTK and TGMD-3 scores, and categorization by
 2 gender

Variables	Total	Boys	Girls
<i>N (%)</i>	249 (100.0)	131(52.61)	118(47.39)
<i>Weight (kg)</i>	35.99 (8.60)	37.80 (9.23)	33.98 (7.37)
<i>Height (m)</i>	1.41 (0.06)	1.41 (0.06)	1.41 (0.07)
<i>BMI (kg m⁻²)</i>	17.92 (3.43)	18.82 (3.72)	16.92 (2.78)
KTK			
<i>BB</i>	31.23(17.20)	28.75(16.42)	33.99(17.69)
<i>HH</i>	15.99(15.75)	17.19(15.74)	14.66(15.72)
<i>JS</i>	44.27(21.18)	44.63(21.18)	43.87(21.26)
<i>MS</i>	18.99(13.09)	19.95(13.99)	17.92(11.98)
<i>TS</i>	110.49(46.58)	110.53(45.45)	110.45(48.00)
TGMD-3			
<i>LC</i>	36.72(5.82)	36.00(6.48)	37.52(4.90)
<i>OB</i>	43.65(5.54)	45.53(5.46)	41.56(4.85)
<i>TS</i>	80.37(9.21)	81.53(10.17)	79.08(7.86)

3 **Note.** Data are expressed as Mean (Standard Deviation); BB: balancing backwards; HH; hopping for height; JS:
 4 jumping sideways; MS: moving sideways; TS: Total score; LC: Locomotor skills; OB: Object control skills.

5

Table 2 (on next page)

Spearman's rho correlation coefficients of test-retest reliability

1 Table 2. Spearman's rho correlation coefficients of test-retest reliability

	BB	HH	JS	MS	TS
Total	0.869**	0.918**	0.877**	0.647**	0.951**
Boys	0.837**	0.914**	0.875**	0.660**	0.957**
Girls	0.850**	0.886**	0.871**	0.666**	0.934**

2 Note: ** represents $p < 0.001$.

3