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RESEARCH ARTICLE

Confirmation of psychometric properties of the Movement Specific Reinvestment Scale for Children (MSRS-C).

Fiona Chun Man Ling¹ (*corresponding author*), Tim Buszard^{2,3}, James Rudd⁴, Remco Polman⁵

¹Department of Sport, Exercise & Rehabilitation, Faculty of Health & Life Sciences,

Northumbria University, UK.

²Game Insight Group, Tennis Australia, Australia.

³Institute for Health & Sport, Victoria University, Australia.

⁴School of Sport Studies, Leisure & Nutrition, Liverpool John Moores University, UK.

⁵School of Exercise & Nutrition Sciences, Queensland University of Technology,

Kelvin Grove, Australia.

¹ Department of Sport, Exercise & Rehabilitation, Faculty of Health & Life Sciences, Northumbria University, Newcastle Upon Tyne NE1 8ST, UK.

²Institute of Sports, Exercise & Active Living / College of Sport & Exercise Science, Victoria University, Footscray, Melbourne, Vic 8001, Australia.

³Game Insight Group, Tennis Australia, Melbourne Park Olympic Boulevard, Melbourne Park, Melbourne, Vic 3000, Australia.

⁴ School of Sport Studies, Leisure & Nutrition, Liverpool John Moores University, IM Marsh Holmefield House, Barkhill Road, Liverpool, L17 6BD, UK.

⁵School of Exercise & Nutrition Sciences, Queensland University of Technology, Kelvin Grove Campus, Brisbane, QLD 4059, Australia.

1 Abstract

2 **Purpose**: To validate the Movement-Specific Reinvestment Scale for Children 3 (MSRS-C) in English-speaking children that assesses a child's propensity to 4 consciously monitor and control body movement (termed 'movement reinvestment'). Method: Three-hundred and forty children aged 7-13 years completed the MSRS-C 5 6 alongside a measure of sustained attention. **Results**: Results from the confirmatory factor analysis revealed that the MSRS-C possessed sound internal validity, fair 7 8 convergent validity, acceptable internal consistency and test-retest reliability. 9 Negligible gender differences and no association with age were found. **Conclusions**: Future research can further ascertain the predictive validity of the MSRS-C. 10 11 Understanding movement reinvestment in the child population has practical 12 implications for practitioners responsible for teaching children motor skills and in 13 children's sustained engagement in sport and exercise.

14

15

16 Keywords : attention; movement reinvestment; children; confirmatory factor

17 analysis; structural equation modelling

18 Introduction

19 Being able to move fluently and efficiently is imperative to effective functioning in everyday activities, and to physical activity engagement, for both 20 21 children and adults [1,2]. Empirical evidence suggests that superior motor proficiency 22 is characterised by a focus of attention on movement outcomes (external focus) rather 23 than movement execution (internal focus) [3,4]. Indeed, focusing attention internally 24 hinders movement fluency and disrupts automaticity [5,6]. Substantial research has focused on understanding the reasons underlying the effect of an internal focus of 25 26 attention [7-9]. The general consensus is that an internal focus of attention leads to the 27 development of explicit "rules" about how to move [10]. Not only is attention to 28 explicit rules cognitively demanding, it also causes disruption to the 'flow' of 29 movements as previous automatic execution is now de-automatized, which is likely to 30 result in motor performance impairment [8,11].

31 The tendency to direct attention internally to monitor and control movements 32 has been termed *movement reinvestment* [7,10]. The inclination to reinvest differs 33 across individuals and in adults, this can be measured with the Movement Specific 34 Reinvestment Scale (MSRS) [12]. Research examining the MSRS has identified that 35 movement reinvestment can be triggered by factors such as anxiety, fatigue, and 36 movement difficulties stemmed from physical disorders [13,14]. For instance, when 37 temporal pressure increased, which raised anxiety, individuals who scored higher on 38 the MSRS displayed significantly poorer improvements in a surgical task [15]. Within 39 the clinical populations, those who had fallen, or who had suffered from Parkinson's 40 disease or stroke, also scored higher on the MSRS than their age-matched controls 41 [13,16,17]. Additionally, professional experience seems to play a role in MSRS

42 tendencies in that novice physiotherapists seem to be pay greater attention to the style43 of movement compared to their more experienced counterparts [18].

44 The practical significance of the MSRS is clear - the identification of 45 individuals who are more likely to reinvest can facilitate the development of 46 individualised training programs that focuses on implicit acquisition or execution of movements. MSRS research, however, has focused primarily on adults. Consequently, 47 48 our understanding of how movement reinvestment affects children's motor 49 proficiency is limited. In view of this, the MSRS was recently modified and translated 50 to a child-friendly version in Chinese, (known as Movement Specific Reinvestment 51 Scale for Chinese Children; MSRS-CC). The MSRS-CC was shown to possess 52 acceptable internal validity, internal consistency, and test-retest reliability in children 53 aged 7-12 years [19]. This newly developed scale therefore provides researchers with 54 the opportunity to assess the relationship between movement reinvestment and motor 55 performance in Chinese children.

56 By way of example, Chinese children who reported a greater inclination to 57 focus on the mechanics of body movements (termed 'conscious motor processing', a 58 factor within the MSRS-CC) also reported more positively about their perceived 59 physical coordination [19]. Albeit a rather crude measurement of coordination, this 60 pointed to the possibility that the tendency to focus internally on body movements 61 might benefit motor performance in children. Additionally, athletes who scored higher 62 on conscious motor processing exhibited greater self-regulatory ability [20]. However, we should be cautious with these conclusions, as numerous studies have shown that 63 64 learning was impaired for children with poor motor ability when the practice environment encouraged *reinvesting* via the correction of movement errors [21-23]. 65

66 Similar result was also found when children were presented with multiple internal 67 explicit instructions [24,25].

68 To further understand movement reinvestment in children, more motor 69 learning studies should examine movement reinvestment using validated versions of 70 the MSRS for children. However, to date, such a psychometric instrument is not 71 available in English. There is increasing evidence to suggest the association between 72 poor motor competence and low habitual physical activity level in children as early as 73 preschool in English-speaking populations, and without taking consideration of the 74 possible self-regulatory factors that might hinder motor skill development, motor skill 75 training or intervention is less likely to be fruitful, and the consequences of poor motor 76 competence can potentially result in a downward spiral and physical inactivity might 77 carry develop into adulthood [26]. We therefore aimed to validate an English version 78 of the MSRS-CC (known as the Movement Specific Reinvestment Scale for Children; 79 MSRS-C) in 7-13-year-old Australian children. The MSRS-C is comprised of two 80 factors – the propensity to consciously monitor and control body movement 81 ('conscious motor processing', CMP) and the propensity to scrutinise one's own style 82 of movement ('movement self-consciousness', MSC). In addition to examining the 83 internal validity and reliability, we also investigated its convergent validity against 84 attention ability. Given that the process of *reinvesting* often requires the performer to 85 control and monitor their movements, it was conceivable that younger children would 86 report higher scores on the MSRS-C as they might still be in movement acquisition 87 phase in motor development. Moreover, since *reinvesting* requires sustaining attention 88 on a task (i.e., monitoring or controlling movements), we expected scores on the 89 MSRS-C to be positively associated with sustained attention ability [27]. Gender

- 90 differences were also investigated, however, we expect to find no gender effect given91 that gender had minimal effect on scores in Chinese children [19].
- 92

93 Method

94 *Participants*

Three hundred and forty children aged 7 to 13 years (Grades 1 to 6) were recruited from 7 local primary schools in Melbourne's metropolitan region (52.9% boys; mean age = 10.24 years ± 1.27). All participants provided written assent while their parents/guardians provided written consent. All measures and procedure were approved by the Institutional Ethics Committee for Human Research and Department of Education (Victoria).

101

103 At their respective schools, all participants completed the Movement-Specific 104 Reinvestment Scale for Children (MSRS-C) at Time 1 with the assistance of a 105 researcher and/or a teacher and a sub-sample (n=103, sub-sample 1, 48.5% boys; mean 106 age = 10.61 years ± 1.05) completed the questionnaire at Time 2 for assessing testretest reliability of the scale. Particularly for the younger age groups, each question 107 108 and choice of answers was read out to the participants to aid comprehension of the 109 items. A second sub-sample (n=108, 54.6% boys; mean age = 9.46 years \pm .62) also 110 completed an attention task in order to facilitate predictive validity evaluation of the 111 MSRS-C.

112

113 Measures and procedure

¹⁰² Study design

114 Movement Specific Reinvestment Scale for Children (MSRS-C). The MSRS-C 115 comprises two factors - movement self-consciousness (MSC) and conscious 116 movement processing (CMP). There are 5 items for each factor. Each item is anchored by 1 = strongly disagree and 4 = strongly agree. The MSRS-C was translated and 117 118 modified from the original Movement Specific Reinvestment Scale for Chinese 119 Children (MSRS-CC) which has demonstrated sound internal validity, internal 120 consistency, and test-retest reliability [19]. An example item for CMP - 'I try to think 121 about my movements when I carry them out', and for MSC – 'I am aware of the way 122 I look when I am moving'. In the modification process, two researchers experienced 123 in translating research-related documents from English to Chinese and vice versa, and 124 working with young children were consulted on the wordings for each item. Any 125 discrepancies in the translation were discussed and resolved to mutual satisfaction. For 126 example, the discrepancy between the translated expression of 'check out' my 127 movement and 'look at' my movement was discussed and the former was agreed upon 128 as it seem to be more in tune with the everyday language of the targeted age group. 129 The questionnaire was then pilot tested on 7 children from 6 - 11 years of age. The 130 children were encouraged to ask questions about the meaning of the items. They were also asked, at random, to give examples that reflected their choice of answers to check 131 132 their understanding of the items. All children appeared to comprehend the items without difficulty, although reading out the items seemed to benefit the youngest 133 134 children most in their comprehension. Hence, during the questionnaire administration 135 a researcher read out each item to the participants and any explanations provided were 136 ensured to be consistent across the administering researchers. The questionnaire was 137 completed in class on a normal school day. The full MSRS-C is shown in Appendix I.

7

138 Attention task. The Score! test was adopted to evaluate participants' ability to 139 sustain attention and was completed before the MSRS-C. Participants were required 140 to count the number of auditory beeps (each lasted for 345 ms) over 10 trials. Each 141 trial included 9-15 beeps, with a 500 to 5000 ms interval between each beep. Possible 142 scores ranged from 0-10.

143

144 Analysis strategy

145 To check the univariate normality of the data, absolute values of skewness and 146 kurtosis not exceeding 2 and 7 respectively was followed [28] and for multivariate 147 normality, the critical ratio is recommended to be ≤ 8.0 [29]. Once normality was 148 ascertained, the entire sample was randomly divided into half for confirmatory and 149 cross-validation purpose [30]. Factor structure of the MSC and the CMP was assessed 150 separately first before testing the entire scale by confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs), 151 based on maximum likelihood estimation and covariance matrix, using AMOS 5.0 152 software for structural equation modelling [31]. Lambda was set as 1 for the first 153 observed indicator of each latent variable (i.e., MSC and CMP) and error weights, and 154 all other parameters were allowed to be freely estimated. To determine the model fit, 155 the chi-square statistics, the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR; $\leq .08$ for 156 a good fit), the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA; close to or < .06157 for a good fit and $\ge .06 < .08$ for fair fit) [32], the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), the 158 goodness-of-fit index (GFI) and the comparative fit index (CFI; \geq to .95 and .90 to 159 reflect a good fit and an adequate fit respectively) were evaluted [33]. Model 160 modification was carried out based on the chi-square statistics, cross-correlation of 161 error terms, modification indices (MIs) and factor loadings (greater than or equal to .34 162 was considered as acceptable) [34]. The modified model was tested again using the

163 cross-validation sample. Additionally, the internal consistency of each factor and that 164 of the entire scale were also calculated. For the former, Cronbach's alpha of approximately .60 would be considered acceptable considering the small number of 165 items³³whereas for the latter, Cronbach's alpha \geq .70 would be regarded as sound³⁴. 166 Test-retest reliability of sub-sample 1 was evaluated by intraclass correlation with 167 168 95% CI using a two-way random model (intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) \geq . 81 169 = excellent, .61-.80 = good, .41-.60 = moderate and $\le .40 = \text{poor}$) [37]. Pearson 170 correlations were conducted to assess the convergent validity of the MSRS-C against 171 the attention test results and to evaluate the association between MSRS-C and age. 172 Lastly, gender differences in MSC, CMP and MSRS-C scores were evaluated using 173 one-way ANOVA after factorial invariance between genders was ascertained.

174

175 **Results**

176 MSRS-C internal validity

177 Tests for univariate normality suggest that the distribution of our data was 178 normal (skewness and kurtosis ranged from .31-.72 and .41-1.36 respectively), with a 179 multivariate critical ratio of 2.81. We therefore proceeded with CFAs of the scale. Based on the confirmatory sample, both CMP ($\chi^2[5] = 8.12, p > .05$; SRMR = .05; 180 RMSEA = .06; CFI = .95; TLI = .90; GFI = .98) and MSC ($\chi^2[5] = 4.49, p > .05$; 181 182 SRMR = .03; RMSEA = .00; CFI = 1.00; TLI = 1.01; GFI = .99) presented a good 183 model fit. Conglomerating the models of MSC and CMP for the CFA of the MSRS-184 C, results indicated that the model fit could be further improved ($\chi^2[34] = 53.00$, p <.05; SRMR = .06; RMSEA = .06; CFI = .90; TLI = .87; GFI = .94). Perusing the 185 MIs of the error terms, although item 9 and 10 presented slightly higher MI than item 186 187 5 and 7, the latter pair seemed to convey similar concept which concerns attention to

one's own movement (item 5 – 'I am aware of the way I look when I am moving'; item 7 – 'I am aware of the way my body works when I am moving'). This provided theoretical support for correlating the error terms of the two items and resulted in an improved model fit (χ^2 [33] = 46.60, p > .05; SRMR = .06; RMSEA = .05; CFI = .93; TLI = .90; GFI = .95).

193 However, applying the factor structure of the confirmatory sample to the crossvalidation sample saw a less than satisfactory model fit ($\chi^2[33] = 51.35$, p < .05; 194 SRMR = .06; RMSEA = .06; CFI = .85; TLI = .80; GFI = .95). From inspection of the 195 196 MIs of the error terms, those of item 8 and 10 were notably higher and there appeared 197 to be an overlap in the meaning of the items (item 8 - I am concerned about the way I move'; item 10 - I am concerned about what people think about me when I am 198 199 moving'). For these reasons, the error terms of the pair were allowed to correlate and the resulting model fit appeared satisfactory ($\chi^2[32] = 37.05$, p > .05; SRMR = .05; 200 201 RMSEA = .03: CFI = .96: TLI = .94: GFI = .96). The confirmatory sample was tested 202 using this revised model and a comparably satisfactory model fit was demonstrated $(\chi^{2}[32] = 44.18, p > .05; \text{SRMR} = .05; \text{RMSEA} = .05; \text{CFI} = .94; \text{TLI} = .91; \text{GFI} = .95).$ 203 204 A summary of the model fit indices at each step of the model modification is presented 205 in Table 1.

		Modification steps	χ^2	df	р	SRMR	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	GFI	207 Factor loadings
СМР	Original factor structure		8.12	5	.15	.05	.06	.95	.90	.98	.3450 210
MSC	Original factor structure		4.49	5	.48	.03	.00	1.00	1.01	.99	33 - 72 011
MSRS-C	Original factor structure (confirmatory sample)		53.00	34	.02*	.06	.06	.90	.87	.94	.3564 212
	Model modifications	Correlate error terms for items 5 and 7	46.60	33	.06	.06	.05	.93	.90	.95	.3465 213 214
MSRS-C	Modified factor structure (cross-validation sample)	Correlate error terms for items 5 and 7	51.35	33	.02*	.06	.06	.85	.80	.95	.2264 215 216
		Correlate error terms for items 8 and 10	37.05	32	.25	.05	.03	.96	.94	.96	.3576 217 218
	Modified factor structure (confirmatory sample)	Correlate error terms for items 5 and 7 and	44.18	32	.07	.05	.05	.94	.91	.95	.3558 219 220
		for items 8 and 10									221

206 Table 1. Model fit indices and factor loading range of the original and the modified model for the MSRS-C and its factors.

222

223 Note: MSRS-C- Movement-Specific Reinvestment Scale for Children; MSC – Movement self-consciousness; CMP – Conscious motor

224 processing, χ^2 = chi-square; df = degree of freedom; SRMR = standardized root mean square; RMSEA = root mean square error of

225 approximation; CFI = comparative fit index; *p < .5

226

Internal consistency, test-retest reliability, convergent validity and association withage

229 The internal consistency for the 5-item MSC and the 5-item CMP was 230 acceptable (Cronbach's alpha = .58 and .56 respectively). A similar conclusion can 231 be drawn for the internal consistency of the entire scale (Cronbach's alpha = .69) as 232 it only falls slightly short of the criterion. Moderate test-retest reliability was noted 233 (ICC = .53, 95% CI, .31 - .68). Considering that the time lag in test-retest ranged from 234 7-115 days due to school schedule constraints, we considered this test-retest result 235 acceptable. MSRS-C score was also found to be positively associated with attention 236 score (r = .23, p < .05) but not with age (r = -.10, p > .05)

237

238 Gender comparisons

To allow for gender comparisons on the MSRS-C score, we first ascertained the invariance of the model's factor structure for both genders. A non-significant χ^2 change from the constrained to the unconstrained model ($\chi^2[8] = 8.45$, p > .05; SRMR = .06; RMSEA = .04; CFI = .90; TLI = .90; GFI = .95) suggested that both genders share the same factor structure. One-way ANOVAs revealed that girls scored significantly higher in MSC and overall MSRS-C compared to boys (*p*'s < .05), however, the effect sizes were small (please refer to Table 2 for details). Table 2. Internal consistency (Time 1) and test-retest reliability (Time 1 and Time 2) of MSRS-C, MSC and CMP and their respective mean ±

		Time 1 mean ± SD (n=340)	Time 2 mean ± SD (n=103)	Internal consistency	Test-retest reliability (ICC)	Gender differences (ANOVA) ₄₈	
MSRSC	boys	25.84 ± 4.93	26.97 ± 5.37	.69	.53 (95%	$F(1,339) = 4.32, p = .04, \eta^2 = .04^{9}$	
	girls	26.99 ± 5.26	26.36 ± 5.35		CI, .3168)	$F(1,339) = 4.32, p = .04, \eta = .01^{5}$	
MSC	boys	11.66 ± 3.25	11.71 ± 3.31	.58		$F(1,339) = 4.07, p = .04, \eta^2 = .04$	
	girls	12.38 ± 3.26	11.96 ± 3.28	.30		$F(1,559) = 4.07, p = .04, = .01^{4}$	
CMP	boys	14.18 ± 2.75	15.26 ± 2.93	.56		$F(1,339) = 2.05, p = .15, \eta^2 = .015$	
	girls	14.61 ± 2.84	14.40 ± 2.84			$F(1,559) = 2.05, p = .15, \eta^{-} = .01^{-1}$	

247 SD scores for boys and girls as well as ANOVA results for gender comparison.

252

253 Note: MSRS-C - Movement-Specific Reinvestment Scale for Children; MSC – Movement self-consciousness; CMP – Conscious motor

254 processing, ANOVA – Analysis of variance; ICC – Intraclass correlation coefficient; CI – Confidence interval

255 **Discussion**

256 While movement reinvestment is recognised as an important contributing 257 factor to motor proficiency and learning in adults, little is known on its effect in 258 children. To facilitate a better understanding of movement reinvestment in children, 259 this study aimed to validate a psychometric instrument that measures the propensity 260 to monitor and control movements in English-speaking children. Results suggest that 261 the MSRS-C possessed sound internal validity and acceptable internal consistency for 262 each factor and for the scale on the whole. Test-retest reliability was also adequate, 263 especially considering a relatively long time lag between its first and second 264 administration for a proportion of participants. The convergent validity of the 265 instrument was also ascertained against the score of a sustained attention task. Lastly, 266 a negligible significance was found in gender differences in MSRS-C scores, which 267 resonated with the findings in Chinese children [19].

268 It is surprising that age is not associated with movement reinvestment 269 considering that younger children might have stronger tendencies to attend to and 270 control their movements when they might be in the motor developmental stage 271 where they are acquiring new motor skills. Arguably, however, the process of 272 reinvesting often requires the performer to possess 'rules' about a skill, and these 273 rules are expected to accumulate with age, hence we might even expect older 274 children to possess greater tendencies to attend to their body movements. It is thus 275 worth considering the potential relationship between movement reinvestment and 276 motor competence. Interestingly, children who perceived their physical coordination 277 more positively also reported higher scores on the MSRS-CC [19]. This suggests that 278 movement reinvestment might facilitate early motor learning in children. Likewise, 279 adults with higher MSRS scores also displayed greater improvements during the

280 early learning phase of a golf putting task [38]. These findings may allude to 281 importance of encouraging an internal focus of movements by physical education 282 professionals and coaches at the early motor acquisition phase [18]. However, we 283 should not assume that movement reinvestment is important for early learning, as 284 children with poor motor ability displayed inferior learning when the practice 285 environment encouraged error-correction processes (akin to reinvesting) compared to 286 when error-correction was required less [21-23]. Indeed, we suspect that an 287 interaction exists between movement reinvestment and motor proficiency, or motor 288 competence, when learning new motor skills. To investigate this issue, researchers 289 can use the validated MSRS-C to assess children's propensity to reinvest, alongside 290 measures of motor competence and assessments of motor learning in different motor 291 development stages in order to ascertain the effects of movement reinvestment on 292 skill acquisition and motor competence.

293 Similar to the results on age, the association between attention ability and 294 movement reinvestment appeared fair only. This was possibly due to the non-295 movement related stimuli involved in the attention task despite that internal validity 296 was evidenced and that it was relatively simple to administer with the target age group. We expected attention ability to be associated with MSRS-C as the process of 297 298 monitoring movement demands sustained attention. However, perhaps a sustained 299 attention task that is movement-relevant will be more closely associated with MSRS-300 C.

In addition to the aforementioned age-related factors that might affect movement reinvestment, other cognitive factors might also moderate the effect of movement reinvestment on children's motor performance. For example, children with lower working memory capacity were found to be disadvantaged on a basketball

305 shooting task when asked to follow multiple explicit (internal) instructions [24]. 306 Although the results did not confirm whether this was due to working memory 307 capacity or working memory efficiency (i.e., the ability to use working memory 308 resources), it would be of interest to investigate if movement reinvestment affects 309 children with lower working memory capacity more than children with higher working 310 memory capacity. Indeed, evidence suggests that there is a positive correlation 311 between movement reinvestment and measures of verbal working memory capacity in 312 English speaking children [27]. However, we should interpret this relationship with 313 caution given the small sample size and that the psychometric instrument used in the 314 study had not been validated in this population.

315 A few limitations of the current study are worth noting. First, the completion 316 of the MSRS-C and the attention task was not counter-balanced as it could be 317 logistically demanding for the school schedule. Given that the attention task was not 318 movement related, performing this task first was expected to pose minimal to no 319 influence on completing the MSRS-C. Hence, it was unlikely that scores on the 320 MSRS-C were affected by the attention task. Moreover, a more challenging attention 321 task that requires simultaneous attention to more than one stimulus can be used in 322 future studies as the demand for working memory engagement might be able to better 323 distinguish between those in the extreme spectrum of movement reinvestment 324 tendencies. Future research can also examine the predictive validity of the MSRS-C 325 against motor competence in children of different ages. Lastly, test-retest reliability 326 can be further confirmed in future studies when a shorter test and retest period is 327 logistically feasible.

To conclude, the current study demonstrates that the MSRS-C is a valid tool for assessing children's tendency in monitoring and controlling their body movements 330 in an English-speaking population. We encourage researchers to include measures of 331 MSRS-C when assessing motor competence or administering motor learning 332 interventions as it can potentially increase our understanding of the predictive validity 333 of the MSRS-C. For example, could the MSRS-C predict performance change when children focus attention internally (thereby promoting reinvestment) as opposed to 334 335 externally (thereby discouraging reinvestment) during the skills acquisition phase or 336 during execution after the skills have been learned? Questions such as this one can 337 only be addressed via the inclusion of a validated assessment of movement 338 reinvestment in children. The significance of this line of research is evidenced by the 339 consistent finding that poor motor competence negatively impacts habitual physical 340 activity levels, mental and physical health (including self-esteem), risk of depression, 341 physical fitness, obesity and cardiovascular diseases [39,40]. Hence, understanding 342 the factors influencing motor comptence and motor learning in children has critical 343 physical and psychological implications.

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Conflicts of interest

450 The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

451 Appendix 1. Items in the Movement-Specific Reinvestment Scale for Children 452 (MSRS-C)

453

I remember the times when I could not do well in certain movements.^a

If I see my reflection in a shop window, I will check out my movements.^b

3. I think a lot about the movement I have done.^a

I try to think about my movements when I carry them out. ^a

- 5. I am aware of the way I look when I am moving.^b
- 6. I sometimes have the feeling that I am watching myself move.^b
- 7. I am aware of the way my body works when I am moving.^a

I am concerned about the way I move.^b

- 9. I try to figure out why I cannot do well in certain movements.^a
- 10. I am concerned about what people think about me when I am moving.^b
- 454 Note. ^a Items representing conscious movement processing (CMP); ^b Items
- 455 representing movement self-consciousness (MSC).