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Barnett, Lisa M., Stodden, David, Cohen, Kristen E., Smith, Jordan J., Lubans, David Revalds, Lenoir, Matthieu, Iivonen, Susanna, Miller, Andrew D., Laukkanen, Arto, Dudley, Dean, Lander, Natalie J., Brown, Helen and Morgan, Philip J. 2016, Fundamental movement skills: an important focus, *Journal of teaching in physical education*, vol. 35, no. 3, pp. 219-225.

**This is the accepted manuscript.**

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<http://hdl.handle.net/10536/DRO/DU:30086651>

Fundamental Movement Skills: an Important Focus

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## **Fundamental Movement Skills: An Important Focus**

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46 Date of Re-submission: Monday, April 11, 2016

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## Abstract

**Purpose:** Recent international conference presentations have critiqued the promotion of fundamental movement skills (FMS) as a primary pedagogical focus. Presenters have called for a debate about the importance of, and rationale for teaching FMS, and this letter is a response to that call. The authors of this letter are academics who actively engage in FMS research. **Method:** We have answered a series of contentions about the promotion of FMS using the peer reviewed literature to support our perspective. **Results:** We define what we mean by FMS, discuss the context of what skills can be considered fundamental, discuss how the development of these skills is related to broader developmental health contexts, and recommend the use of different pedagogical approaches when teaching FMS. **Conclusion:** We conclude the promotion of FMS is an important focus in Physical Education (PE) and sport and provide future research questions for investigation.

**Keywords:** physical activity, motor coordination, motor skill, teaching pedagogy.

## Introduction

Recent presentations at international conferences ('AIESEP World Congress', February 10 - 13, Auckland, New Zealand and 'The International Congress on Children's Physical Activity and Sport', 17 -18 October, Liege, Belgium) (Almond, 2014; Pot & van Hilvoorde, 2014) have critiqued fundamental movement skills (FMS) as a pedagogical focus. Moreover, a circulating YouTube clip highlights a number of contentions regarding the role of FMS in promoting physical activity in young people: ([www.youtube.com/watch?v=sLNppM8UmPg](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=sLNppM8UmPg)), Afonso, Coutinho, Araújo, and Pot (2014). Presenters at these conferences have called for a debate about the importance of, and rationale for promoting FMS. In general their criticisms include the following.

1. FMS are not all fundamental.
2. Each FMS only leads to a limited number of sports and/or activities and therefore skill transfer is limited.

- 73 3. Skills are learnt by doing rather than being taught.
- 74 4. That a focus on FMS ignores a constraints-based approach.
- 75 5. FMS is a 'skills and drills' teaching approach.
- 76 6. There is little data supporting the association between movement competence and physical
- 77 activity.

78 Authors of this letter are academics with PE, kinesiology or public health backgrounds based in

79 Australia, the United States of America (USA) and Europe, who actively conduct research involving

80 FMS. We respect the viewpoints of the presenters at these sessions for highlighting their perspectives

81 and encouraging divergent thought, as it encourages critical thinking and academic debate. The

82 specific purpose of this paper is to answer the critiques against FMS, based on the best available

83 evidence.

84 It is important firstly to define what we mean by FMS. Confusion in the literature around

85 FMS means terms are often used interchangeably. FMS (also termed fundamental motor skill) are

86 defined as basic learnt movement patterns that do not occur naturally and are suggested to be

87 foundational for more complex physical and sporting activities. They can be classified into three

88 distinct categories: locomotion (involving locomotion of the body e.g. running), object control

89 (manipulative skills e.g. catching a ball) and stability skills such as balancing (Gallahue, Ozmun, &

90 Goodway, 2012). Motor coordination can be described as the capacity to have body segments work

91 together in an organized manner (Turvey, 1990) and might be considered an underlying component

92 of FMS.

### 93 **Critique 1: FMS are not all 'fundamental'**

94 The first contention is concerned with how these skills were chosen, as they don't necessarily include

95 every skill that might be considered *fundamental*. Different test batteries have emerged around the

96 world, all testing slightly different forms and groups of skills (Cools, Martelaer, Samaey, & Andries,

97 2009). For each testing battery, the developers and/or users are required to decide how many test  
98 items to include (i.e. how many skills) in the context of the specific study aims, time, cost and  
99 participant burden, and what test items are going to best represent the movement skill competence of  
100 the child. Therefore there can be an incongruity between a conceptual definition of what is  
101 considered “fundamental” and the actual assessment instrument that measures this concept. Many  
102 tests were, on the whole, originally developed to assist with the identification of children with  
103 developmental issues. Recent test batteries have emerged with the purpose to classify typically  
104 developing children according to different levels of movement competency. That is why it is  
105 inappropriate to draw the basic - commonly known - definitions (such as FMS in this case), from  
106 what is measured with, or included in, a specific test battery.

107         Of course it is difficult to determine the most representative skills to target, and we agree that  
108 what one person may consider ‘fundamental’ may be different to another person within a different  
109 context. Those skills considered FMS have often been tied to the skills that are inherently integrated  
110 in common sports, e.g. kicking and running are part of football (soccer). Yet there is also a degree of  
111 cultural appropriateness needed for measures, as different sports and physical activities are popular  
112 in different countries (e.g. football in England and baseball in the USA). Also, certain groups (e.g.  
113 individuals with disabilities) may not be able to attempt certain movement skills but this doesn’t  
114 mean that such skills shouldn’t be classified as *fundamental*. There will always be individual  
115 circumstances that challenge assumptions that are made on a population basis, but this doesn’t  
116 preclude the attempt to develop skill batteries that may have relevance for many health behaviours  
117 and psychosocial outcomes on a population level. The disparity of skill in some populations (Bardid,  
118 Rudd, Lenoir, Polman, & Barnett, 2015; Goodway, Robinson, & Crowe, 2010) further emphasizes  
119 the need for assessment that can accurately identify skill deficits and tailor interventions to meet the  
120 specific needs of these individuals.

121 **Critique 2: That each FMS only leads to a limited number of sports and/or physical**  
122 **activities and therefore skill transfer is limited**

123 The second critique is: how can we term these skills *fundamental* when each skill only leads to a  
124 limited number of sports and/or activities. ‘Fundamental’ can essentially be commonly defined as  
125 forming a necessary base or core. Therefore, this is why sets of skills are proposed; to attempt to  
126 cover *the most representative or salient skills* that, if mastered, will give children the best possible  
127 chance to successfully and persistently participate in a range of health-enhancing physical activities.  
128 It is suggested that FMS can be subsequently fine-tuned for application in specific sports. For  
129 example, advanced mechanisms of throwing or striking transfer to various sports (i.e., cricket,  
130 baseball, tennis etc.), whose context can be adapted or varied at different levels across the lifespan  
131 (Gallahue et al., 2012; Langendorfer, Robertson, & Stodden, 2011). These points are important and  
132 are why we are not concerned with whether FMS competency transfers to non-active pursuits such as  
133 playing chess or flying a Red Bull Plane (Afonso et al., 2014). This is also why test batteries  
134 assessing FMS do not directly assess skills needed in daily living such as getting out of bed and  
135 rising from a chair, as typically developing children will successfully accomplish these activities  
136 with little training (i.e., noted as phylogenetic activities). Rather, test batteries focus on skills that  
137 require practice and training (i.e., ontogenetic activities) and which promote engagement in a broad  
138 range of culturally relevant and socially driven activities.

139 In general, as the world becomes highly mechanized, sedentary and obesogenic, developing  
140 skills that promote a diverse movement foundation (i.e., functional coordination and control) that  
141 allows successful participation in ontogenetically driven activities may be a highly viable tactic to  
142 promote/encourage sustained physical activity across the lifespan (Breuer & Wicker, 2009). In this  
143 context, FMS are the foundations of later activities frequently taught in PE curricula. Thus, the  
144 question is, whether FMS development provides this diverse movement background.

145 Superficially, it seems reasonable to suggest there would be no direct progression or transfer  
146 from developing a highly advanced throwing pattern to activities such as being able to wakeboard,  
147 swim, mountain bike or horse ride. However, upon closer inspection, the development of highly  
148 advanced throwing (as well as kicking and striking) requires the demonstration of underlying  
149 attributes. These attributes could be seen as “fundamental” aspects of coordination and control for  
150 many types and forms of movements (i.e., dynamic balance, contralateral coordinative functioning of  
151 extremities, perceptual motor integration, development of high angular velocities of multiple joints,  
152 optimal relative timing of segmental interactions, optimal inter- and intra-muscular coordination and  
153 optimal transfer of energy through the kinetic chain), including water skills, mountain biking or  
154 horse riding. See Langendorfer, Robertson, and Stodden (2011) for a more thorough explanation of  
155 neuromotor and biomechanical mechanisms of object projection skills. Thus, isolating the skill of  
156 throwing, as only a “sports skill” with limited applicability and transfer to other types of movements  
157 or neuromuscular-related aspects of physical fitness (Stodden, Gao, Langendorfer, & Goodway,  
158 2014) promotes a narrow viewpoint of the complexity of these types of movements and a lack of  
159 appreciation of the broad applicability of the high levels of functional coordination and control  
160 demanded in many FMS. Furthermore, the psychological effects of perceiving oneself as competent,  
161 as independent of actual FMS competence, may have a tangible impact on an individual’s desire to  
162 engage in other physical activities (Babic et al., 2014; Robinson et al., 2015).

### 163 **Critique 3: That skills are learnt by doing rather than being taught**

164 The third contention is that skills are learnt by *doing* rather than being *taught*. We agree that we may  
165 acquire rudimentary levels of some FMS through exploration and having opportunities to do so,  
166 being engaged, and having appropriate environments with space, equipment and positive  
167 reinforcement that allows us to practice and learn (Barnett, Hinkley, Okely, & Salmon, 2013). Yet  
168 not every child has access to the conditions that would promote learning at an appropriate rate or has  
169 the capacity to learn independently even when the environmental conditions are supportive. Thus, we



170 also benefit from being instructed on how to reach advanced levels of many FMS (just as we also  
171 benefit from being taught to read, spell and write). Opportunity to practice, instruction and modelling  
172 are important to the development of FMS (McKenzie, Alcaraz, Sallis, & Faucette, 1998). A number  
173 of early childhood intervention programs (Goodway & Branta, 2003; Robinson & Goodway, 2009)  
174 show that when young children are provided with well-equipped free play time, they do not  
175 significantly improve their FMS, and only in the instructed condition are significant improvements in  
176 FMS seen. In addition, three recent systematic reviews confirm that interventions improve children's  
177 movement skills beyond what can occur in free-play (Logan, Robinson, Wilson, & Lucas, 2012) or  
178 ecological control groups (Iivonen & Sääkslahti, 2013; Logan et al., 2012; Morgan et al., 2013).

#### 179 **Critique 4: That a focus on FMS ignores a constraints-based approach**

180 It has been suggested that focusing on FMS within PE ignores a constraints based approach (Newell,  
181 1986) by considering skills in isolation, and that not taking account of environmental constraints  
182 suggests this approach is not 'authentic' (Afonso et al., 2014). What is important to keep in mind  
183 here though, is that an authentic learning environment is provided when the development of a  
184 coordination pattern is promoted via the interaction of the individual, the environment, as well as the  
185 specified task that is being promoted (Newell, 1986). Thus, an authentic learning environment is one  
186 that is developmentally appropriate, based on the individual's developmental level, which may  
187 necessitate that a new skill (or new variation of a skill) be learnt and practiced in a closed  
188 environment (e.g., without the pressures of competition or other external variables), before being  
189 able to integrate it in other more advanced movement learning opportunities (Boyce, 1992). Many  
190 elementary teachers and intervention studies use a constraints perspective to teach FMS in isolation.  
191 For example the SKIP program developed by Goodway & colleagues (2003, 2015), accounts for  
192 individual constraints (e.g. lack of ability to track a ball in catching) by manipulating environmental  
193 (e.g. equipment, ball size) and task (self-tossed, peer tossed) constraints to account for the individual  
194 child's developmental level. Overall, teaching should take into account the interaction of individual,

195 environmental and task variables and these factors should be synergistically and variably integrated  
196 with a variety of movement concepts; thus providing an appropriate application of Newell's  
197 Constraints Theory (1986).

### 198 **Critique 5: That FMS is a 'skills and drills' teaching approach**

199 The approach to teaching is *pedagogy*; being the practice and method of teaching. An underlying  
200 critique against the promotion of FMS appears to rest on the 'misperception' of FMS as a teaching  
201 *approach*. Teachers generally are required to be highly qualified in the content area of the domain or  
202 subject area in which they teach (i.e., high levels of content knowledge [CK]). However, expertise in  
203 content alone is inadequate. Effective teachers also possess a high level of pedagogical content  
204 knowledge (PCK), that being the skills and knowledge to successfully plan and implement a  
205 diversity of pedagogical approaches, which address individual student learning styles and  
206 developmental levels (Ayvazo & Ward, 2011; Shulman, 1987). Importantly, the literature suggests  
207 that teachers who demonstrate high levels of *both* CK and PCK achieve better FMS outcomes for  
208 their students (R. Cohen, Goodway, & Lidor, 2012). To suggest there is only one way to impart the  
209 content serves as a great injustice to not only the students, but also the teaching profession.

210 FMS is just one content area within international PE curricula (e.g. Standard 1 of the SHAPE  
211 America standards incorporates FMS for the lower elementary grades). As such, a variety of  
212 evidenced-based approaches have been used to teach FMS utilising a variety of pedagogical  
213 approaches. Thus a broad range of both 'instructional models' (Gurvitch & Metzler, 2013) as well as  
214 teaching strategies (Mosston & Ashworth, 2008) can be implemented when teaching FMS.

215 FMS can be taught and practiced within a game-like environment, where game play, either  
216 structured or non-structured is integrated in the curriculum or practice environment. Launder and  
217 Piltz (2013) in their Play Practice Model suggest expertise in skills can be taught within the game  
218 context. Others also emphasise that teachers who exhibit a deep understanding of game-centred

219 pedagogy are capable of balancing the teaching of skills/tactics in a game play context (Dudley &  
220 Baxter, 2009; Dudley & Baxter, 2013). Simultaneous development of FMS and tactical skill has  
221 been demonstrated using such an approach (Miller, Christensen, Eather, Gray, et al., 2015; Miller,  
222 Christensen, Eather, Sproule, et al., 2015). This implies that teachers and researchers need to (and  
223 can) move from seeing ‘skills teaching’ and ‘tactical instruction’ as distinct elements of PE to a  
224 position where the interrelationship existing between skills and tactics is paramount (Dudley &  
225 Baxter, 2009). The important point to note when motor skills are taught together/within game  
226 components is that FMS contribute to development and provide a framework for instruction within  
227 integrated models of instruction (especially for non-specialist PE teachers in primary schools).

228 Promoting a mastery or high autonomy climate is an approach which aids learning through  
229 autonomous motivation, and can be attached to both skills and games based pedagogies. A mastery  
230 approach promotes the development of skills in a non-competitive, non-threatening learning  
231 environment. In this sort of environment all students have an opportunity to succeed, receive  
232 instruction and positive reinforcement and are encouraged to improve, which can lead to higher  
233 levels of intrinsic motivation, enjoyment and perceived competence (Robinson, Rudisill, &  
234 Goodway, 2009; Theeboom, De Knop, & Weiss, 1995 Valentini & Rudisill, 2004). A mastery  
235 climate directs control to the learner, who progresses through a planned learning environment which  
236 is structured around the dimensions of task, authority, recognition, grouping, evaluation and time  
237 (Ames, 1992). A recent article found a mastery climate approach, focusing on success, optimal  
238 challenge, and autonomy led to improvements in FMS (Kalaja, Jaakkola, Liukkonen, & Digelidis,  
239 2012), highlighting the benefits of incorporating these principles into a pedagogical approach.  
240 Furthermore, a recent study which utilized a mastery climate approach to guide the SAAFE (i.e.,  
241 Supportive, Active, Autonomous, Fair and Enjoyable) teaching principles implemented in the study,  
242 demonstrated that improvements in FMS competency mediated the effect of the intervention on  
243 physical activity and cardiorespiratory fitness in children (K. E. Cohen, Morgan, Plotnikoff, Barnett,

244 & Lubans, 2015). Thus, how one chooses to promote FMS is a pedagogical matter. FMS in and of  
245 itself is clearly not an approach, and it is inappropriate to suggest otherwise.

246 **Critique 6: That there is little data supporting the association between movement**  
247 **competence and physical activity**

248 A main contention levelled at our research focus is that there is little data supporting the association  
249 between FMS and physical activity. We find it interesting that physical activity was the only health-  
250 related factor mentioned, as not only do we reject the premise that there is weak evidence that  
251 movement skill competency and physical activity are associated, but we also note there is strong  
252 evidence supporting associations between FMS and multiple aspects of health-related fitness,  
253 including body composition. Systematic reviews have found strong evidence for a positive  
254 association between FMS and physical activity and fitness, and an inverse association with body  
255 weight status (Cattuzzo et al. in press). Specifically, Holfelder & Schott (2014) indicated that 20/23  
256 studies found an association between FMS or other forms of motor competence and physical activity.  
257 Lubans, Morgan, Cliff, Barnett, & Okely (2010) also noted that of 13 studies that specifically  
258 examined FMS, 12 found a positive association with physical activity. Although Cohen and  
259 colleagues (2015) have demonstrated an antecedent/consequent relationship between FMS and  
260 physical activity, we do acknowledge the need for more appropriately designed experimental studies  
261 to demonstrate a cause–effect relationship (Robinson et al., 2015).

262 **Future Research Questions**

263 There are many questions that remain unanswered based on the points argued here. In terms of  
264 whether the FMS commonly assessed are really a representative sample of *fundamental* skills, future  
265 researchers could seek to investigate a) what range of skills are important to truly assess the level of  
266 movement skill competence that allow us to demonstrate a high and sustained level of capacity to  
267 engage in an active lifestyle, and, b) are the ‘typically accepted’ FMS universal across cultural  
268 contexts? In relation to the transferability of FMS, future research may seek to examine whether

269 some skills demonstrate more global transferability to a wider range of lifetime activities and sports,  
270 as well as sustainability for health-enhancing physical activity and fitness. With regard to the  
271 teaching of FMS, future research should continue to examine and compare/contrast pedagogical  
272 strategies to optimize the learning/development of FMS. Lastly, to extend the field, we should  
273 examine whether competence in other types of skills become more important later in life. Lifelong  
274 activity skills have been used to describe sports and leisure activities typically performed  
275 individually or in small groups with no or limited physical contact, and which can easily be  
276 continued into adulthood and old age; such as resistance training and swimming (Hulteen et al.,  
277 2015). Future issues worth investigating may include whether traditional FMS also provide a  
278 foundation for these lifelong skills and other health-enhancing forms of physical activity.

### 279 **Fundamental Movement Skills is a ‘Seriously Useful’ Focus**

280 One final argument presented in the aforementioned ‘critiques’ of FMS, is that FMS do not equal  
281 physical literacy. Whilst definitions of physical literacy remain a contested topic, we concur with this  
282 point. Even the United Nations Educational, Cultural and Scientific Organization (2005) recognize  
283 that developing ‘an autonomous set of skills’ is but one of four key indicators that need to be  
284 addressed to understand literacy-based constructs. Importantly, we see FMS as consisting of one of  
285 several components that need to be addressed within the physical literacy construct and one that is  
286 most effective, as previously mentioned, when it is integrated with multiple health behaviours and  
287 outcomes (Robinson et al., 2015). Being competent in FMS, is associated (and predictive) with not  
288 only physical activity (Holfelder & Schott, 2014; Lubans et al., 2010), but also fitness (Cattuzzo et  
289 al. in press; Lubans et al., 2010), healthy weight status (Lubans et al., 2010) and cognitive and  
290 academic outcomes (Haapala 2013). Promoting FMS is integral to a holistic view of development.  
291 So in our joint quest to optimise physical, psychological and mental health by promoting the  
292 development of more physically literate children (and we think we can join forces here), we maintain  
293 that the competence component is a *seriously useful focus*.

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