

This is the peer reviewed version of the following article: Simpson, A. , Al Ruwaili, R. , Jolley, R. , Leonard, H. , Geeraert, N. and Riggs, K. J. (2017), Fine Motor Control Underlies the Association Between Response Inhibition and Drawing Skill in Early Development. *Child Dev.*, which has been published in final form at <https://doi.org/10.1111/cdev.12949>. This article may be used for non-commercial purposes in accordance with Wiley Terms and Conditions for Self-Archiving.

**Fine motor control underlies the association between response inhibition and drawing skill in early development**

Simpson, A.<sup>1</sup>, Al Ruwaili, R.<sup>1</sup>, Jolley, R.P.<sup>2</sup>, Leonard, H.C.<sup>3</sup>, Geeraert, N.<sup>1</sup>,  
& Riggs, K.J.<sup>4</sup>

1 Department of Psychology, University of Essex, Colchester CO4 3SQ, UK.

2 Department of Psychology and Mental Health, Staffordshire University, Stoke-on-Trent ST4 2DF, UK.

3 School of Psychology, University of Surrey, Guildford, GU2 7XH, UK.

4 Department of Psychology, University of Hull, Hull HU6 7RX, UK.

## **Abstract**

Previous research shows that the development of response inhibition and drawing skill are linked. The current research investigated whether this association reflects a more fundamental link between response inhibition and motor control. In Experiment 1, 3- and 4-year-olds ( $n=100$ ) were tested on measures of inhibition, fine motor control and drawing skill. Data revealed an association between inhibition and fine motor control, which was responsible for most of the association observed with drawing skill. Experiment 2 ( $n=100$ ) provided evidence that, unlike fine motor control, gross motor control and inhibition were not associated (after controlling for IQ). Alternative explanations for the link between inhibition and fine motor control are outlined, including a consideration of how these cognitive processes may interact during development.

Word Count: 6,139

Key Words: Inhibitory Control; Response Inhibition; Drawing; Motor Control; Child Development.

Executive Functions (EFs) are important to just about every aspect of life (Diamond, 2013): from school readiness as a child (Cameron, Brock, Murrah et al., 2012) to marital harmony as an adult (Eakin, Minde, Hetchman et al., 2004). They are a group of top-down cognitive processes which include inhibitory control and working memory. These processes work together to facilitate thinking that is flexible and reflective.

The maturation of EFs continues into early adulthood. Nevertheless, developmental research has particularly focused on early childhood (Best & Miller, 2010; Garon, Bryson & Smith, 2008), with response inhibition receiving most attention (Diamond, 2013). Response inhibition, the capacity to suppress impulsive behavior, is ineffective in most 3-year-olds, but usually improves substantially in little more than a year (e.g., Wiebe, Sheffield & Espy, 2012; Willoughby, Wirth & Blair, 2011). Evidence suggests that this rapid improvement in inhibition is, in turn, linked to several key changes in children's higher cognition. Beginning with a study by Carlson and Moses (2001), correlational evidence has suggested that improvement in inhibition is linked to the development of some important reasoning abilities (e.g., Apperly & Carroll, 2009; Beck, Carroll, Brunson et al., 2011; Benson, Sabbagh, Carlson & Zelazo, 2013; Sabbagh, Moses, & Shiverick, 2006).

Recently it has been suggested that the emergence of picture drawing in early childhood is also linked to the development of response inhibition. Preliminary evidence (Riggs, Jolley & Simpson, 2013) came from a study with 3- to 5-year-olds, comparing performance on a measure of inhibition to a measure of drawing skill. These findings were extended by Morra and Panesi (2017; Panesi and Morra, 2016), who found that drawing skill is associated with working memory as well as inhibition. The current study aimed to

build on this research in two ways: first, to investigate whether the association between response inhibition and drawing skill is mediated by a more fundamental relation between inhibition and motor control; second, to investigate a specific instance in which response inhibition and drawing may be linked more directly.

Considering the first aim, Riggs and colleagues (2013) offered two accounts for why inhibition and drawing are associated. The ‘Symbolic Competence account’ recognises that the development of response inhibition has been linked to the development of symbolic understanding (e.g., Apperly & Carroll, 2009; Beck *et al.*, 2011; Benson *et al.*, 2013; Sabbagh, *et al.*, 2006). Symbolic representations encode a relation between a product of the mind (e.g., the category |dog|) and something in the world (a physical dog). Given that effective inhibition is associated with understanding these relations, it may also underpin the development of ‘representational’ or figurative drawing. In a figurative drawing, the picture (a product of the mind) is visually similar to the subject it depicts in the world. Drawing a figurative picture requires an understanding of this relation (drawing-subject). If inhibition is associated with the development of symbolic understanding, then it may explain the observed association between improving inhibition and the emergence of figurative drawing (Riggs *et al.*, 2013).

The ‘Behavioral Inhibition account’ proposes a simpler role for response inhibition in drawing development. It may be that drawing develops through the inhibition of immature drawing behavior. For example, scribbling must be inhibited to produce the enclosed shapes which start the transition to figurative drawing (Riggs *et al.*, 2013). The drawing of these shapes must in turn be inhibited, so that pictures which represent the subject’s outline can be produced (Lange-Küttner, Kerzmann, & Heckhausen 2002).

Finally, a drawer may have to inhibit drawing part of an object, when they see that object is partly occluded by another (Freeman & Cox, 1985). Thus, applying the Behavioral Inhibition account, response inhibition and drawing skill are associated because drawing skill advances through the direct suppression of immature drawing behavior.

Here we suggest another possibility, the ‘Motor Development account’. The association of response inhibition and drawing skill may be mediated by the development of fine motor control. Fine motor control (e.g., controlling smaller muscles in order to grasp and manipulate objects – Wells, 2006) requires precise visuo-motor co-ordination, principally through movement of the hands. Effective fine motor control is required for skilled drawing (e.g., Lange-Kuttner, 2008; Toomela, 2002). There is also evidence linking inhibition and motor control more generally. These processes have been associated with the same brain areas (e.g., the prefrontal cortex and cerebellum) during development (e.g., Diamond, 2000; Koziol, Budding, & Chedekel, 2012). Difficulties in motor control and inhibition are often linked in neurodevelopmental disorders, particularly Developmental Coordination Disorder. This developmental disorder is associated with difficulties in acquiring and executing motor control. There is extensive evidence, from data collected principally with 5- to 11-year-olds, that this disorder is linked with deficits in EFs (see Leonard & Hill, 2015, for a review).

Evidence for an association between response inhibition and motor control in young children is more limited. Two recent studies have investigated this relation in infancy (Gottwald, Achermann, Marciszko et al., 2016; St John, Estes, Dager et al., 2016). Gottwald and colleagues (2016), testing 18-month-olds, found a positive association between EFs and a measure of motor planning (Gottwald et al., 2016). Both inhibition and

working memory were associated with prospective motor control (the ability to plan a reaching action ahead of time), but not with more general measures of motor control. In contrast, St John and colleagues (2016), found a negative association between fine motor control and these EFs in 12-months-olds; however the relation to work memory was positive at 24 months. Finally, there is some evidence for a relation between EFs and fine motor control in 5- to 6-year-olds (Livesey, Keen, Rouse, et al., 2006; Roebbers, Rothlisberger, Neuenschwander et al., 2014). However, the relation between inhibition and motor control has not been investigated with 3- and 4-year-olds. As previously stated, this age group is of particular interest because inhibition improves most rapidly at this age, and this improvement is associated with important changes in children's reasoning and knowledge.

The second aim of the current research was to investigate the role of response inhibition in the developmental transition from intellectual realism to visual realism. These two drawing styles were extensively described by Luquet (1927/2001), and more recently summarised by Jolley (2010). In intellectual realism, children draw what they regard as the essential elements of a subject in their characteristic shape. They draw what they know is present, even if this means their drawings show multiple viewpoints. In contrast, visual realism is a later developing style, in which children draw only what they see from their own viewpoint. Piaget incorporated these drawing styles into his stage theory of cognitive development. His theory suggested that intellectual realism is cognitively 'inferior' to visual realism, and that they are specific features of distinct developmental stages (Piaget & Inhelder, 1969).

This developmental transition has often been tested using objects such as a cup with the handle hidden from view by its body (Freeman & Janikoun, 1972), or two balls with one ball partly hidden behind the other (Cox, 1978). Consistent with Piaget's theory, younger children often drew the cup's handle and separated the two balls (intellectual realism), whereas older children drew only the elements that they could see (visual realism). Subsequent research showed that children's drawing is more fluid than Piaget suggested, with a range of factors influencing which style they adopted (e.g., Freeman & Cox, 1985). Nevertheless, this research suggests that the use of visual realism *does* increase during childhood (see Cox, 2005, for a review).

The possibility that adopting visual realism requires the 'suppression' of intellectual realism had long been recognised, but not tested (e.g., Luquet, 1927/2001). More recently, it has been suggested that response inhibition in particular may facilitate this suppression (Ebersbach, Stiehler, & Asmus, 2008; Riggs et al., 2013). If effective inhibition is needed to suppress intellectual realism, then inhibition and intellectual realism should be *negatively* correlated. However, we recognised that this developmental shift to visual realism occurs around the age of seven to eight years (e.g., Freeman & Janikoun, 1972). In consequence, this is the age range in which inhibition is most likely to be used to suppress intellectual realism. In contrast, we tested 3- and 4-year-olds in the present study (the age at which inhibition develops most rapidly). In this younger age group, it was more uncertain what relation we would find between inhibition and intellectual realism.

## **Experiment 1**

In Experiment 1, 3- and 4-year-olds were tested on tasks measuring response inhibition, drawing, and fine motor control. Two age-appropriate response inhibition tasks were used: the day/night task and the grass/snow task (Petersen et al., 2016). These Stimulus-Response Compatibility (SRC) tasks have high inhibitory demands (e.g., Simpson *et al.*, 2012). In the day/night task children must resist naming a picture, whereas in the grass/snow task they must resist pointing to a cued picture. The day/night task requires a verbal response, and the grass/snow task has only minimal motor demands (pointing is trivially easy for typically-developing 3-year-olds). Thus any correlation between inhibition and motor control, as measured by these tasks, is unlikely to depend on the inhibitory tasks' motor demands.

The four drawing tasks are also well-established measures of children's drawing skill. There were two free drawing tasks, which required children to draw a person (Cox & Parkin, 1986) and a house (Barrouillet, Fayol, & Chevrot, 1994). There were also two model drawing tasks, which required children to draw a cup with the handle occluded (Freeman & Janikoun, 1972), and two balls with one partially occluded behind the other (Cox, 1978). These four tasks were used to produce three measures of drawing skill. First, the pictures drawn in all four tasks were coded for whether or not they were figurative (i.e., the raters were able to recognize their subject matter). The *Figurative Representation Scale* focused specifically on the transition from non-figurative to figurative drawing. Second, the *Figurative Detail Scale* was derived from established coding systems for the person task and house task and reflected the amount of figurative detail in these drawings. Third, the *Intellectual Realism Scale* was derived from the cup task and balls task. An intellectually realistic drawing of the cup included the handle even though it was occluded,



and an intellectually realistic drawing of the balls showed them as spatially-separated objects (rather than overlapping).

Finally, fine motor control was measured using the Peabody Developmental Motor Scale (Folio & Fewell, 2000). Eight tasks which contributed to the Fine Motor Quotient of this scale were selected. These tasks involved construction, folding and cutting, while tasks which required drawing were omitted. Pilot testing was used to identify tasks which returned a large amount of variance for children in the age range tested.

The Symbolic Competence and Behavioral Inhibition accounts both predicted a *direct* relation between inhibition and drawing skill, while the Symbolic Competence account specifically predicted an association between inhibition and the Figurative Representation Scale. In contrast, the Behavioral Inhibition account predicted a correlation specifically between inhibition and the Intellectual Realism Scale. Finally, the Motor Development account predicted that fine motor control would mediate the relation between inhibition and drawing skill.

## **Method**

**Participants.** One hundred 3- and 4-year-olds participated in the experiment (mean 3 years 8 months, range 3;0 to 4;6, SD 6.77 months): 55 girls and 45 boys. The children attended preschools in the towns of Bury St Edmunds and Colchester in the east of England. The data were collected between January and March 2016. All spoke English as their first language, and none had any behavioral or educational problems (based on teachers' report). The group was predominantly white and of mixed social class.

**Design.** A within-participants design was used. The dependent variables were the three drawing measures: Figurative Representation, Figurative Detail and Intellectual Realism.

The independent variables were Inhibitory Capacity, Motor Capacity, Age and Gender.

**Materials.** The materials used in the drawing tasks were plain A4 paper, pencils, a mug (height 12cm, diameter 6cm) and two balls (diameter 9cm). The grass/snow tasks materials consisted of two pictures: one of the moon in a night sky, and the other of the sun in a day sky (height 12cm, width 12cm). The day/night task also used a flip-book which contained 20 of these pictures. Finally, the motor tasks used materials from the Fine Motor Quotient of the Peabody Developmental Motor Scale – Second Edition (PDMS-2, Folio & Fewell, 200).

**Procedure.** A total of 14 tasks were administered in two sessions, each lasting about 20 minutes (Table 1). There were four drawing tasks, two inhibition tasks and eight fine motor control tasks. Children were tested individually in a room adjacent to their main classroom or in a quiet corner off the classroom itself. Each child was seated across the table from the first experimenter (E1) and was told that they were going to play some fun games. The second experimenter (E2) sat next to the child and recorded their responses.

*Drawing Task.* For each drawing task, a piece of plain A4 paper and a pencil were placed on the table in front of the child. In the first session, for the person task, E1 asked children, "Can you draw a picture of yourself?" In the Cup task, the cup was placed on the table in front of the child in such a way that the handle was not visible. Children were then asked, "Can you draw a picture of this cup?" If they asked any questions about how to draw it, they were told to "...just do your best drawing". In the second session, for the house task, children were asked, "Can you draw a picture of your house?" (or *a* house, if they said they

did not live in one). In the final drawing task, the Balls task, two balls were placed on the table in front of the child so that one ball was half-occluded by the other. Children were asked, "Can you draw a picture of these balls?"

The drawings were scored on three scales. Each picture was coded as either figurative or non-figurative (Figurative Representation Scale, scored 0-4). The person and house tasks were also coded as follows. The person task was scored according to the Cox and Parkin (1986) scale. This is a five-point scale: (1) scribble, (2) distinct forms, (3) tadpoles, (4) transitional figures, or (5) conventional figures. The house task was scored using a revised version of Barrouillet et al.'s (1994) scale. Twelve items scored: 'outline of house', 'roof', 'roof shape', 'door', 'door handle', 'base of the house', 'two or more windows', 'position of windows', 'proportion of windows', 'curtains', 'extraneous items' and 'perspective'. The score for the person and house drawings was summed to produce the Figurative Detail Scale (scored 0-17). The cup and balls tasks were scored on the Intellectual Realism Scale (scored -2 to 2). The cup drawing scored 1 if the handle was included (intellectual realism), and -1 if it was omitted (visual realism). The balls drawing was scored 1 if the balls were drawn separately (intellectual realism), and -1 if they overlapped (visual realism).

*Inhibition Tasks.* The day/night and grass/snow procedures were taken from Simpson and Riggs (2009). In the grass/snow task, E1 explained that they were going to play a 'silly game' in which the child would have to point to two pictures. Children were shown the sun and moon pictures and asked to name them. E1 then explained that in the game they should point to the sun picture when she said "moon", and to the moon picture when she said "sun". The child was explicitly told not to point to the named pictures. E1 then 'talked

children through the rules' by saying the two names and getting them to point to the appropriate picture (e.g., "...so when I say sun can you show me which picture you have to point to – confirming that they were correct or correcting them if necessary by referring to the rules). Children then received four practice trials (order: Sun, Moon, Sun, Moon) with feedback. If, for example, the child pointed to the moon when the experimenter said "sun", the experimenter confirmed that this was the correct response. If, however, the child pointed to the sun, the experimenter said that this was wrong because moon was correct. Children next received 16 test trials in the same pseudorandom order (ABBABAABBABAABAB) and with no feedback. E2 coded children's responses. An identical procedure was used with the day/night task (except that children produced verbal responses). The four practice and 16 test trials were presented using a flip-book which contained 20 pictures. The two scores were summed to produce a measure of Inhibitory Capacity (scored 0 to 32).

*Fine Motor Control task.* Of the eight motor tasks, seven were taken from the Fine Motor Quotient from the PDMS-2: button strip (task number 24), finger touching (26), fold paper (50), lacing a string (58), cut a circle (65), cutting a square (68), pyramid building (task 69). Details of how to administer these tasks can be found in the PDMS-2 manual. The eighth task, the diagonal-pyramid building task, was a modification of the pyramid building task with increased difficulty. The pyramid was constructed with edges adjacent (rather than faces as in the original task). There was also a distance of a few millimeters between each block (rather than the faces being in contact). Pilot data suggested that this was the most demanding task – although some children could complete or partially complete it. All tasks were scored 0, 1 or 2 for no, partial or completed performance following criteria

set out in the PDMS-2 manual. Fine Motor Capacity was therefore scored between 0 and 16.

## **Results**

Table 2a summarizes descriptive statistics for Age and Gender, as well as the five performance variables (Inhibitory Capacity, Fine Motor Capacity, Figurative Representation, Figurative Detail and Intellectual Realism). Table 3a shows the correlations between these variables. Figurative Detail was the only variable correlated to gender, with girls outperforming boys a little (girls 5.64, boys 3.49). All the other variables were positively correlated.

Three Univariate regression analyses were conducted using Age, Gender, Inhibitory Capacity and Fine Motor Capacity as predictors with Figurative Representation, Figurative Detail and Visual Realism as output variables (Table 4a). Fine Motor Capacity, Age and Gender (but not Inhibitory Capacity) were significant predictors of both Figurative Representation and Figurative Detail. In contrast, only Inhibitory Capacity and Age were significant predictors of Intellectual Realism. The data were subjected to mediated regression analyses controlling for Age and Gender (Figure 1). We did so by running a bias-corrected and accelerated bootstrap analysis using the INDIRECT macro developed by Preacher and Hayes (2008). This analysis revealed that Fine Motor Capacity mediated the effect of Inhibitory Capacity on Figurative Representation, 95% CI = [.0146, .0501], and Figurative Detail, 95% CI = [.0471, .1747], but not Intellectual Realism, 95% CI = [-.0033, .0203] (Figure 1). Only the direct relation between Inhibitory Capacity and Intellectual Realism remained significant after mediation was removed.

## **Discussion**

Experiment 1 provided evidence that response inhibition, fine motor control and drawing skill are linked in early childhood. Mediated regression analysis (after controlling for gender and age) showed that Inhibitory Capacity and Fine Motor Capacity were associated, and that this association predicted performance on the Figurative Representation and Figurative Detail Scales. The observation of this mediated relation provides the first support for our Motor Development account. This account proposes that children's response inhibition and drawing skill are linked because both are associated with fine motor control. Moreover, the absence of a direct relation between Inhibitory Capacity and performance on the Figurative Representation Scale (i.e., the transition from non-figurative to figurative drawing) provides no support for the Symbolic Competence account. This account proposes that effective inhibition is associated with the development of symbolic understanding, which in turn promotes the onset of figurative drawing (Riggs et al., 2013). Likewise, there was no direct relation between Inhibitory Capacity and Figurative Detail (the amount of figurative detail in the person and house drawings). Thus the data failed to support the Behavioral Inhibition account (Riggs et al., 2013), which proposes that drawing skill advances through the suppression of previously established drawing behavior.

Nevertheless, there was some support for the Behavioral Inhibition account: there was a direct relation between Inhibitory Capacity and performance on the Intellectual Realism Scale (the extent to which children draw what they see, rather than what they know). As we noted in the Introduction, it has previously been suggested this correlation might be negative – with effective inhibition leading to the suppression of intellectual realism (Ebersbach et al., 2008; Riggs et al., 2013). However, this may only occur later in

childhood, as children come to value visual realism. Our data suggest younger children may use their inhibition in a different way: to promote intellectual realism rather than suppress it (we return to a consideration of why this might be in the General Discussion).

## **Experiment 2**

Experiment 1 investigated fine motor control because this kind of motor ability is essential for drawing (Lange-Kuttner, 2008; Toomela, 2002). The data suggested that response inhibition and Fine Motor Control are associated in early childhood. In Experiment 2 we investigated this relation further. First, we wished to determine whether this association extends to gross motor control (i.e., the control of large muscle groups to position the whole body, maintaining a stable posture and responding to external change – Wells, 2006). The Peabody Developmental Motor Scale was again used. Nine tasks which contribute to the Gross Motor Quotient of this scale were tested: three each from the Stationary (sustaining stationary control of the whole body), Locomotion (moving the whole body) and Object Manipulation (catching and throwing) Subtests. Six tasks were taken from the Fine Motor Quotient: three each from the Grasping and Visual-Motor Subtests. As in Experiment 1, pilot data were used to identify ‘high variance’ tasks.

Second, we wished to confirm that the association between inhibition and motor control could not be explained by general intelligence. The British Picture Vocabulary Scale – Second Edition (BPVS-2), a test of receptive vocabulary, was used as it is highly correlated with general intelligence (Dunn & Dunn, 2009; Glen & Cunningham, 2005). In Experiment 2, three SRC tasks were used to assess response inhibition: day/night and grass/snow tasks, as before, plus the tapping task which requires the suppression of imitation (Diamond & Taylor, 1996).

## Method

**Participants.** One hundred children between the ages of 3 and 4 years participated in the study (mean 3;11, range 3;0-4;11, SD 7.81 months): 45 girls and 55 boys. The children were recruited from preschools and nurseries in the town of Colchester in England. The data were collected between September and December 2016. None of the children had any reported behavioral or learning difficulties. They all spoke English fluently and were predominantly white, although the sample of children was of a mixed social background.

**Design.** A within-participants design was used. The dependent variable was Inhibitory Capacity. The independent variables were Fine Motor Quotient, Gross Motor Quotient, General Intelligence, Age and Gender.

**Procedure.** Testing was conducted as before with two experimenters in two sessions (each lasting between 20 and 30 minutes). Nineteen tasks were administered with the first session consisting of an SRC task and eight PDMS-2 tasks; the second session comprised two SRC tasks, seven PDMS-2 tasks, and the BPVS-2. All 19 tasks were presented in a fixed order (Table 1).

The BPVS-2 was administered according to the standard procedure for this measure of receptive vocabulary in British English (Dunn & Dunn, 2009). The procedure for the day/night and grass/snow tasks was identical to that used in Experiment 1. For the Tapping task, the experimenter and child each had a wooden dowel. The experimenter explained that in the game when she tapped once with the dowel the child should tap twice, and when she tapped twice the child should tap once.

Nine tasks were taken from the Gross Motor Quotient of PDMS-2: three from each of the Subtests. Standing on tiptoes (task number 22), standing on one foot (23) and



Imitating movements (26) from the Stationary Subtest; Jumping up (72), Jumping forward on one foot (73) and walking a line backward (78) from the Locomotion Subtest; catching a ball (17), hitting a target-overhand (18) and bouncing ball (21) from the Object Manipulation Subtest. New tasks were sought for the Grasping and Visual-Motor Subtests. Pilot testing revealed that only three other tasks from the PDMS-2 produced substantial variance in this age range, and so were included in our battery: Grasping a marker (22), Dropping pellets (74), Building steps (75). The remaining three tasks were taken from Experiment 1 (Lacing a string, Button strip, Finger touching). Details of how to administer and score these tasks can be found in the PDMS-2 manual.

### **Results and Discussion**

Table 2b summarizes descriptive statistics for Age and Gender, as well as the four performance variables (Inhibitory Capacity, Fine Motor Capacity, Gross Motor capacity and General Intelligence). Table 3a shows the correlations between these six variables. All the variables were positively correlated with each other except for Gender. Three Univariate regression analyses were conducted using Age, Gender, General Intelligence, Inhibitory Capacity, Fine Motor Capacity and Gross Motor Capacity (Table 4a). Fine Motor Capacity and Age explained a substantial amount of variance in Inhibitory Capacity. With Fine Motor Capacity as the output variable, Inhibitory Capacity, Gross Motor Capacity and General Intelligence were all significant predictors. Finally for Gross Motor Capacity, Fine Motor Capacity and Age were significant.

Experiment 2 replicated the finding from Experiment 1, that preschoolers' response inhibition and fine motor control were substantially associated (after partialling-out gender and age and, in Experiment 2, general intelligence). Interestingly, this relation did not

extend to gross motor control. While gross and fine motor control were associated, gross motor control and response inhibition were not.

### **General Discussion**

Our data support the previous finding that preschool children's response inhibition and drawing skill are associated (Morra & Panesi, 2017; Panesi & Morra, 2016; Riggs et al., 2013). In addition, they advance our understanding of the role of response inhibition in early development. The most important finding was the strength of the association between inhibition and fine motor control (while inhibition and gross motor control were not linked). We also found that this association accounted for the relation observed between inhibition and two of our measures of drawing skill (Figurative Representation and Figurative Detail Scales). The pattern of results was different for our final measure of drawing skill: intellectual realism. The adoption of intellectual realism (drawing what you know is there), rather than visual realism (drawing what you see), was *not* associated with fine motor control, but was associated with inhibition.

#### *The relation between response inhibition and drawing skill*

First we focus on preschoolers' figurative drawing skill. In the Introduction we set out three accounts of the relation between response inhibition and this skill. The Symbolic Competence account proposes that effective inhibition is associated with the domain-general development of symbolic understanding, and that this leads to the transition from non-figurative to figurative drawing (Riggs et al., 2013). The Behavioral Inhibition account proposes that inhibition is needed to suppress immature drawing behavior (e.g., Riggs et al., 2013). Finally, the Motor Development account proposes that inhibition improves drawing skill through its association with fine motor control.

Our data provide clear support for the Motor Development account. There was a substantial mediated relation between response inhibition, fine motor control and figurative drawing (Figure 1). Figurative drawing makes large demands on the sensorimotor system. It may be that effective fine motor control frees a child's cognitive resources to dedicate to the higher-order aspects of drawing, such as figurative detail. There was no significant direct relation between inhibition and two of our drawing measures (Figurative Representation and Figurative Detail Scales). Thus, these data failed to support the Symbolic Competence and Behavioral Inhibition accounts.

There was, however, some data consistent with the Behavioral Inhibition account. Inhibitory capacity was directly associated with performance on the Intellectual Realism Scale. Preschoolers with effective inhibition seem to use it to *promote* intellectual realism. In contrast, several authors have previously suggested that children are motivated to draw visually realistic pictures, and that better inhibition promotes this, by enabling them to inhibit behavior which leads to an intellectually realistic drawing (Ebersbach et al., 2008; Riggs et al., 2013). Thus, we observed the *opposite* relation to that which has been previously proposed.

Our data, however, are not as contrary to established theory as they might at first seem. As noted in the Introduction, the most common age group selected to investigate the developmental shift from intellectual to visual realism is middle childhood (around seven to eight years – e.g., Freeman & Janikoun, 1972); whereas we tested 3- and 4-year-olds. It is possible that older children, as established theory suggests, do indeed have an increasing preference for visual realism. Nevertheless, *younger* children may have a different preference (see Brooks, Glen & Crozier, 1988). Perhaps the 3- to 4-year-olds,

who participated in our study were actually motivated to draw using intellectual realism but needed effective response inhibition to achieve this.

One interpretation of the positive correlation between response inhibition and intellectual realism, supporting the Behavioral Inhibition account, is that preschool children must inhibit visual realism in order to engage in intellectual realism. Perhaps for preschool children, the ‘unreflective default’ is to simply draw what you see. If this is the case, then young children would need effective inhibition to produce a drawing which goes beyond a superficial depiction of visual realism, and display their deeper understanding of the scene in front of them. As far as we are aware, only studies of precocious young artists and autistic savants gifted in drawing have found evidence of visual realism in early drawing development (e.g., Golomb, 1992). A more modest interpretation of the correlation between inhibition and intellectual realism is to suggest that inhibition promotes the production of the pictorial features which characterize intellectual realism (e.g., drawing a cup’s handle), rather than being used to actively suppress visual realism.

#### *The relation between response inhibition and Motor Control*

Previous research has found robust evidence for a relation between motor control and several EFs in older children and adolescents diagnosed with DCD (see Leonard & Hill, 2015, for a review). There is also some evidence for such a relation between inhibition and motor control in typically developing infants (Gottwald et al., 2016; St John et al., 2016), 5- and 6-year-olds (Livesey et al., 2006; Roebbers et al., 2014) and adolescents (Rigoli et al., 2013). The current study provides the first evidence for an association between response inhibition and fine motor control in 3- and 4-year-olds: the time when inhibition is developing most rapidly (e.g., Weibe et al., 2012; Willoughby et al., 2011).

The evidence presented here is correlational: we consider two ways to explain this association: first that effective inhibition leads to effective fine motor control, and second, that embodied cognition explains why fine motor control and inhibition develop together.

Why might response inhibition improve fine motor control? An obvious place to start is with existing theories that address the direct relation between inhibition and drawing (Riggs et al., 2013). However, neither of the accounts outlined in the introduction seem to apply to fine motor control. The Symbolic Competence account suggests inhibition aids the development of symbolic understanding (e.g., Sabbagh, *et al.*, 2006). However, actions requiring fine motor control, like doing-up a button, require no symbolic understanding. The Behavior Inhibition account proposes that drawing skill advances through the inhibition of previously established drawing behavior (Ebersbach, et al., 2011; Riggs et al., 2013). Most actions requiring fine motor control do not seem to depend on the inhibition of previously established behaviors.

A different approach to explaining the relation between inhibition and motor control is to consider how preschooler's response inhibition develops. One possibility, compatible with the Behavioral Inhibition account, is that the *strength* of inhibition increases, enabling *inappropriate* responses to be stopped (Simpson & Riggs, 2007). An alternative is that inhibition improves because behavior is *slowed*, and more care taken to produce the *appropriate* response (Diamond, Kirkham & Amso, 2002). Indeed, there is evidence that preschoolers perform inhibitory tasks better when their responding is slowed (e.g., Simpson et al., 2012; although see Barker & Munakata, 2015 and the response of Ling, Wong & Diamond, 2016).

The proposal that effective response inhibition is the product of slowed responding could explain the link between response inhibition and certain kinds of motor control. For example, when toddlers respond more slowly, they perform better on a precise motor control task (building a tower from blocks), while performance on an imprecise motor task (placing blocks in a container) is unaffected (Chen, Keen, Rosander & von Hofsten, 2010). Similarly, we found that inhibition is associated with fine motor control (doing-up a button), which might benefit from slowed responding, but not with gross motor control (catching a ball), which might not. In the case of drawing, Lange-Küttner (2000) has also argued that the emergence of sophisticated drawing techniques (e.g., connecting distinct elements of the represented subject) depends on modifying *fast* procedural routines. Consistent with this proposal, she found evidence that young children do slow their drawing speed, when producing open rather than closed shapes (Lange-Küttner, 1998). All of these findings are compatible with the proposal that effective response inhibition improves motor performance by slowing responding.

Moving on to the suggestion that fine motor control improves response inhibition, the SRC tasks used in the current study were chosen specifically because they have minimal motor demands. The day/night task required a verbal response. The grass/snow and Tapping task did require a manual response, however, these responses were undemanding (e.g., pointing to any part of the picture) and made without time pressure. Thus, it seems very unlikely that effective fine motor control improved performance on our inhibitory tasks because of their inherent motor demands. In contrast, the theory of embodied cognition offers an explanation for how the development of motor control and EFs are linked.

The embodied cognition approach suggests that human cognition is constructed through the physical interaction of our bodies with the world (see Marshall, 2016, and Shapiro, 2011, for reviews). Building on the earlier work of Piaget (1952), in which the sensorimotor stage is the first step in cognitive development, current theory goes on to suggest that subsequent cognitive development depends on an individual's ability to act upon the world through the control of their bodies (Wilson, 2002). An example is the A not B task. The goal of an infant in this task is to find an object hidden at a new location, after previously retrieving it from another location. In order to reach to the new location, inhibition and working memory work together with the motor system (e.g., Thelen, Schoner, Scheier & Smith, 2001). Such bi-directional interactions between the executive and motor domains are highlighted in Dynamic Systems Theory (e.g., Smith & Thelen, 2003), and reflected in the interaction of the brain regions associated with them (e.g., Diamond, 2000; Koziol et al., 2012).

It is unclear, however, whether specific aspects of the motor system are more closely linked with EFs than others, and how these linkages change during development. The current data suggest that fine motor control, but not gross motor control, is associated with response inhibition in early childhood. Previous research with younger children reported that gross motor control is related to response inhibition at 24 months, but not at 12 months (St John et al., 2016). Taking a dynamic systems approach, it could be suggested that different aspects of the motor system interact with EFs at different ages. For example, the transition from crawling to walking (in the second year) may increase the integration of gross motor control with EFs. Later still, fine motor control dominates, as preschoolers develop skills such as drawing and dressing. Future research would benefit from a

longitudinal approach, to better understand these interactions, and thus provide a fuller explanation of the link we have found between fine motor control and inhibition in preschool children.

### *Conclusion*

This is the first study to demonstrate an association between response inhibition and fine motor control in 3- and 4-year-olds. Our data suggest that this association explains much, if not all, of the relation between inhibition and the emergence of early drawing skill: emphasizing the importance of this association in children's everyday behavior. Future work, both empirical and theoretical, needs to bring together data suggesting that executive and motor domains are linked in infancy (Gottwald et al., 2016; St John et al., 2016), childhood (Livesey et al., 2006; Roebbers et al., 2014; as well as our data presented here) and adolescence (Rigoli et al., 2013). In this way a coherent theory can be constructed which binds together these findings, made with children of different ages using different tasks, and explains how specific EFs are linked with specific aspects of motor control across development. It is a considerable challenge, but one whose solution will represent a substantial advance in our understanding of cognitive development.



## References

- Apperly, I.A., & Carroll, D.J. (2009). How do symbols affect 3- to 4-year-olds' executive function? Evidence from a reverse-contingency task. *Developmental Science, 12*, 1070-1082. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-7687.2009.00856.x
- Barker, J., & Munakata, Y. (2015). Time Isn't of the Essence: Activating Goals Rather Than Imposing Delays Improves Inhibitory Control in Children. *Psychological Science, 26* (12), 1898-1908. doi: 10.1177/0956797615604625
- Barrouillet, P., Fayol, M., & Chevrot, C. (1994). Le dessin d'une maison. Construction d'une echelle de developpement [The drawing of a house: Construction of a developmental scale]. *Annee Psychologique, 94*, 81-98. doi: 10.3406/psy.1994.28738
- Beck, S.R., Carroll, D.J., Brunson, V., & Gryg, C. (2011). Supporting children's counterfactual thinking with alternative modes of responding. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology, 108*, 190-202. doi: 10.1016/j.jecp.2010.07.009
- Benson, J.E., Sabbagh, M.A., Carlson, S.M., & Zelazo, P.D. (2013). Individual differences in executive functioning predict preschoolers' improvement from theory-of-mind training. *Developmental Psychology, 49*, 1615-1627. doi: 10.1037/a0031056
- Best, J.R., & Miller, P.H. (2010). A Developmental Perspective on Executive Function. *Child Development, 81*, 1641-1660. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8624.2010.01499.x
- Brooks, M.R., Glenn, S.M., & Crozier, W.R. (1988). Pre-school children's preferences for drawings of a similar complexity to their own. *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 58*, 165-171. doi: 10.1111/j.2044-8279.1988.tb00889.x
- Cameron, C.E., Brock, L.L., Murrah, W.M., Bell, L.H., Worzalla, S.L., Grissmer, D., & Morrison, F.J. (2012). Fine motor skills and executive function both contribute to kindergarten achievement. *Child Development, 83*, 1229-1244. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8624.2012.01768.x
- Carlson, S.M., & Moses, L.J. (2001). Individual differences in inhibitory control and children's theory of mind. *Child Development, 72*, 1032-1053. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8624.1998.tb06236.x

- Chen, Y., Keen, R., Rosander, K., & von Hofsten, C. (2010). Movement planning reflects skill level and age changes in toddlers. *Child Development, 81*, 1846-1858. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8624.2010.01514.x
- Cox, M.V. (1978). Spatial depth relationships in young children's drawings. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology, 26*, 551-554. doi.org/10.1016/0022-0965(78)90132-7
- Cox, M.V. (2005). *The pictorial world of the child*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Cox, M.V., & Parkin, C. E. (1986). Young children's human figure drawing: Cross-sectional and longitudinal studies. *Educational Psychology, 6*, 353-368. doi.org/10.1080/0144341860060405
- Diamond, A. (2000). Close interrelation of motor development and cognitive development and of the cerebellum and prefrontal cortex. *Child Development, 71*, 44-56. doi: 10.1111/1467-8624.00117
- Diamond, A. (2013). Executive Functions. *Annual Review of Psychology, 64*, 135-168.
- Diamond, A., Kirkham, N. & Amso, D. (2002). Conditions under which young children can hold two rules in mind and inhibit a prepotent response. *Developmental Psychology, 38*, 352-362. doi: 10.1037/0012-1649.38.3.352
- Diamond, A., & Taylor, C. (1996). Development of an aspect of executive control: development of the ability to remember what I said and to "do as I say, not as I do". *Developmental Psychobiology, 29*, 315-334. doi: 10.1002/(SICI)1098-2302(199605)29
- Dunn, L.M., & Dunn, D.M. (2009). *The British Picture Vocabulary Scale*. London: GL Assessment Limited.
- Eakin, L., Minde, K., Hechtman, L., Ochs, E., & Krane, E. (2004). The marital and family functioning of adults with ADHD and their spouses. *Journal of Attention Disorders, 8*, 1-10. doi: 10.1177/108705470400800101
- Ebersbach, M., Stiehler, S., & Asmus, P. (2011). On the relationship between children's perspective taking in complex scenes and their spatial drawing ability. *British Journal of Developmental Psychology, 29*, 455-474. doi: 10.1348/026151010X504942

- Folio, M.K., & Fewell, R.R. (2000). *Peabody developmental motor scales: Examiner's manual*. Austin, Texas: Pro-Ed, Inc.
- Freeman, N.H., & Cox, M.V. (1985). *Visual order: The nature and development of pictorial representation*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Freeman, N.H., & Janikoun, R. (1972). Intellectual Realism in Children's Drawings of a Familiar Object with Distinctive Features. *Child Development*, 43, 1116-1121. doi: 10.2307/1127668
- Garon, N., Bryson, S.E., & Smith, I.M. (2008). Executive function in preschoolers: a review using an integrative framework. *Psychological Bulletin*, 134, 31-60. doi: 10.1037/0033-2909.134.1.31
- Glenn, S., & Cunningham, C. (2005). Performance of young people with Down syndrome on the Leiter-R and British picture vocabulary scales. *Journal of Intellectual Disability Research*, 49, 239-244. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2788.2005.00643.x
- Golomb, C. (1992). *The child's creation of a pictorial world*. Berkeley: University of California Press.
- Gottwald, J.M., Achermann, S., Marciszko, C., Lindskog, M., & Gredeback, G. (2016). An embodied account of early executive-function development: prospective motor control in infancy is related to inhibition and working memory. *Psychological Science*, 27, 1600-1610. doi: 10.1177/0956797616667447
- Hodgson, D.K. (2002). Canonical perspective and typical features in children's drawings: A neuroscientific appraisal. *British Journal of Developmental Psychology*, 20, 565-579. doi: 10.1348/026151002760390864
- Jolley, R.P. (2010). *Children and pictures: Drawing and understanding*. Oxford, UK: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Koziol, L.F., Budding, D.E., & Chedekel, D. (2012). From movement to thought: executive function, embodied cognition, and the cerebellum. *Cerebellum*, 11, 505-525. doi: 10.1007/s12311-011-0321-y
- Lange-Küttner, C. (1998). Pressure, velocity, and time in speeded drawing of basic graphic patterns by young children. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 86, 1299-1310. doi: 10.2466/pms.2000.90.1.3

- Lange-Küttner, C. (2000). The role of object violation in the development of visual analysis. *Perceptual and Motor Skills, 90*, 3-24. doi: 10.2466/pms.2000.90.1.3
- Lange-Küttner, C (2008). Figures in and out of context: Absent, simple, complex and halved spatial fields. In C Lange-Küttner and A Vinter (Eds.). *Drawing and the non-verbal mind: A life-span perspective* (pp. 199-220). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Lange-Küttner, C., Kerzmann, A., & Heckausen, J. (2002). The emergence of visually realistic contour in the drawing of the human figure. *British Journal of Developmental Psychology, 20*, 439-463. doi: 10.1348/026151002320620415
- Leonard, H.C., & Hill, E.L. (2015). Executive difficulties in Developmental Coordination Disorder: methodological issues and future directions. *Current Developmental Disorder Reports, 2*, 141-149. doi: 10.1007/s40474-015-0044-8
- Ling, D., Wong, C.D., & Diamond, A. (2017). Do children need reminders on the Day-Night task, or simply some way to prevent them from responding too quickly? *Cognitive Development, 37*, 67-72. doi:10.1016/j.cogdev.2015.10.003
- Livesey, D., Keen, J., Rouse, J., & White, F. (2006). The relationship between measures of executive function, motor performance and externalising behaviour in 5- and 6-year-old children. *Human Movement Science, 25*, 50-64. doi: 10.1016/j.humov.2005.10.008
- Luquet, G.H. (2001). *Children's drawings* (A. Costall, Trans.). London: Free Association Books [Original work published 1927].
- Marshall, P.J. (2016). Embodiment and Human Development. *Child Development Perspectives, 10*, 245-250. doi: 10.1111/cdep.12190
- Morra, S., & Panesi, S. (2017). From scribbling to drawing: the role of working memory. *Cognitive Development, 43*, 142-158. doi: 10.1016/j.cogdev.2017.03.001
- Panesi, S., & Morra, S. (2016). Drawing a dog: The role of working memory and executive function. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology, 152*, 1-11. doi: 10.1016/j.jecp.2016.06.015
- Piaget, J. (1952). *The origin of intelligence in the child*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

- Piaget, J., & Inhelder (1969). *Psychology of the Child*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Preacher, K.J. & Hayes, A.F. (2008). Asymptotic and resampling strategies for assessing and comparing indirect effects in multiple mediator models. *Behavior Research Methods, 40*, 879-891. doi: 10.3758/BRM.40.3.879
- Riggs, K.J., Jolley, R.P., & Simpson, A. (2013). The role of inhibitory control in the development of human figure drawing in young children. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology, 114*, 537-542. doi: 10.1016/j.jecp.2012.10.003
- Rigoli, D., Piek, J.P., Kane, R., & Oosterlaan, J. (2012). An examination of the relationship between motor coordination and executive functions in adolescents. *Developmental Medicine and Child Neurology, 54*, 1025-1031. doi: 10.1111/j.1469-8749.2012.04403.x
- Roebers, C.M., Rothlisberger, M., Neuenschwander, R., Cimeli, P., Michel, E., & Jager, K. (2014). The relation between cognitive and motor performance and their relevance for children's transition to school: A latent variable approach. *Human Movement Science, 33*, 284-297. doi: 10.1016/j.humov.2013.08.011
- Sabbagh, M.A., Moses, L.J., & Shiverick, S.M. (2006). Executive functioning and preschoolers' understanding of false beliefs, false photographs, and false signs. *Child Development, 77*, 1034-1049. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8624.2006.00917.x
- Selfe, L. (1983). *Normal and anomalous representational drawing ability in children*. London: Academic Press.
- Shapiro, L. (2011). *Embodied Cognition*. New York: Routledge.
- Simpson, A., & Riggs, K.J. (2007). Under what conditions do young children have difficulty inhibiting manual actions? *Developmental Psychology, 43*, 417-428. doi: 10.1037/0012-1649.43.2.417
- Simpson, A., & Riggs, K.J. (2009). What makes responses prepotent for young children? Insights from the grass-snow task. *Infant and Child Development, 18*, 21-35. doi: 10.1002/icd.576
- Simpson, A., Riggs, K.J., Beck, S.R., Gorniak, S.L., Wu, Y., Abbott, D. & Diamond, A. (2012). Refining the understanding of inhibitory control: How response prepotency

is created and overcome. *Developmental Science*, 15, 62-73. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-7687.2011.01105.x

- Smith, L.B., & Thelen, E. (2003). Development as a dynamic system. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, 7, 343-348. doi: 10.1016/S1364-6613(03)00156-6
- St. John., T., Estes, A.M., Dager, S.R., Kostopoulos, P., Wolff, J.J., Pandey, J., Elison, J.T., Elison, J.T., Paterson, S.J., Schultz, R.T., Botteron, K., Hazlett, H., & Piven, J. (2016). Emerging Executive Functioning and Motor Development in Infants at High and Low Risk for Autism Spectrum Disorder. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 7, 1-12. doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2016.01016
- Thelen, E., Schoner, G., Scheier, C., & Smith, L.B. (2001). The dynamics of embodiment: A field theory of infant perseverative reaching. *Behavioural and Brain Sciences*, 24, 1-86. doi: 10.1017/S0140525X01003910
- Toomela, A. (2002). Drawing as a verbally mediated activity: A study of relationships between verbal, motor, and visuospatial skills and drawing in children. *International Journal of Behavioural Development*, 26, 234-247. doi: 10.1080/01650250143000021
- Wells, K.R. (2006). In K. Krapp & J. Wilson (Eds.). *The Gale Encyclopedia of Children's Health: From Infancy to Adolescence*. Pennsylvania: Thomson Gale.
- Wiebe, S.A., Sheffield, T.D., & Espy, A. (2012). Separating the fish from the sharks: a longitudinal study of preschool response inhibition. *Child Development*, 83, 1245-1261. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8624.2012.01765.x
- Willoughby, M.T., Wirth, R.J., & Blair, C. (2011). Contributions of modern measurement theory to measuring executive function in early childhood: An empirical demonstration. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, 108, 414-435. doi: 10.1016/j.jecp.2010.04.007
- Wilson, M. (2002). Six views of embodied cognition. *Psychonomic Bulletin & Review*, 9, 625-636. doi: 10.3758/BF03196322

**Table 1.** Fixed order of tasks used in experiments.

Experiment 1		Experiment 2	
Session 1	Session 2	Session 1	Session 2
1 person	8 house	1 Stand on one foot	10 Button strip
2 grass/snow	9 day/night	2 Jump up	11 Dropping pellets
3 Cup	10 Balls	3 Catch a ball	12 grass/snow task
4 Lace a string	11 Cut a circle	4 Grasp a marker	13 Imitate
5 Cut a square	12 Fold paper	5 day/night task	14 Walk backwards
6 Build a pyramid	13 Diagonal-pyramid	6 Lace a string	15 Bouncing ball
7 Button strip	14 Touch Fingers	7 Stand on tiptoe	16 Tapping task
		8 Jump forward	17 Touch Fingers
		9 Hit a target overhand	18 Build a steps
			19 BPVS

**Table 2.** Descriptive statistics.

variables	n	minimum	maximum	mean	SD
Experiment 1					
Inhibitory Capacity	100	0	32	18.3	11.4
Fine Motor Capacity	100	0	16	9.14	4.77
Fig. Representation	100	0	4	1.91	1.46
Figurative Detail	100	0	15	4.67	4.52
Intellectual Realism	65*	-2	2	0.58	1.31
Age	100	36	54	44.2	6.77
Experiment 2					
Inhibitory Capacity	100	0	48	25.2	16.4
Fine Motor Capacity	100	0	12	6.78	3.25
Gross Motor Capacity	100	0	17	7.04	3.74
Age	100	36	59	48.4	7.81
General Intelligence	98	0	56	26.9	15.1

\* Number of children who produced at least one figurative picture in the Visual Realism drawing tasks.



**Table 3.** Correlations (\*  $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\*  $p < .001$ ).

a. Experiment 1

variables	Inhibitory Capacity	Fine Motor Capacity	Figurative Representation	Figurative Detail	Intellectual Realism
Gender	-.003	.031	.151	.238*	.047
Age	.470**	.577***	.597***	.544***	.540***
Inhibitory Capacity	-	.635***	.565***	.456***	.574***
Fine Motor Capacity		-	.735***	.683***	.530***
Fig. Representation			-	.844***	.567***
Figurative Detail				-	.466***

b. Experiment 2

variables	Inhibitory Capacity	Fine Motor Capacity	Gross Motor Capacity	General Intelligence
Gender	-.112	-.063	-.059	-.017
Age	.700***	.659***	.675***	.590***
Inhibitory Capacity	-	.749***	.631***	.563***
Fine Motor Capacity		-	.750***	.647***
Gross Motor Capacity			-	.600***

**Table 4.** Regression Analyses (IC = Inhibitory Capacity, FMC = Fine Motor Capacity, GMC = Gross Motor Capacity). All models are significant at  $p < .001$ .

a. Experiment 1

predictor	output variable								
	Fig. Representation			Figurative Detail			Intellectual Realism		
	F(4,95)=37.3, R <sup>2</sup> =.611			F(4,95)=28.7, R <sup>2</sup> =.547			F(4,60)=11.9, R <sup>2</sup> =.442		
	Beta	t	p	Beta	t	p	Beta	t	p
age	.239	3.01	.003	.222	2.59	.011	.269	2.12	.038
gender	.188	2.03	.045	.216	3.12	.002	.018	0.18	.855
IC	.128	1.53	.130	.006	.064	.949	.364	3.11	.003
FMC	.511	5.63	<.001	.545	5.56	<.001	.164	1.23	.225

b. Experiment 2

predictor	output variable								
	Inhibitory Capacity			Fine Motor Capacity			Gross Motor Capacity		
	F(5,92)=31.2, R <sup>2</sup> =.629			F(5,92)=44.3, R <sup>2</sup> =.707			F(5,92)= 31.9, R <sup>2</sup> =.635		
	Beta	t	p	Beta	t	p	Beta	t	p
age	.351	3.80	<.001	.013	0.151	.526	.278	2.95	.004
gender	.044	0.698	.487	.018	0.320	.750	.013	0.200	.842
GI	.042	0.472	.638	0.193	2.55	.013	.110	1.270	.207
IC	-	-	-	.373	4.43	<.001	.014	0.137	.891
FMC	.471	4.43	<.001	-	-	-	.492	4.71	<.001
GMC	.014	0.137	.891	.395	4.71	<.001	-	-	-

**Figure 1.** Mediated regression analysis for Experiment 1 of Figurative Representation (FR), Figurative Detail (FD) and Intellectual Realism (IR). Inhibitory Capacity (IC) is shown as the predictor and Motor Capacity (MC) the mediator, with Age and Gender entered as covariates. The arrows between IC and MC are shown as bidirectional, as we do not know what causes this association. Partial correlations (controlling for Age and Gender) and their significance are shown (ns not significant, \*\*p<.01, \*\*\* p<.001). The values in brackets additionally control for Motor Capacity.

