

Movement Form of the Overarm Throw for Children at 6, 10 and 14 Years of Age

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Abstract

This study investigated overarm throwing technique at different developmental ages in children from the perspective of three distinct, though potentially complementary, approaches to motor skill acquisition. Children at 6, 10, and 14 years of age (N = 18), completed dominant overarm throws during which whole-body kinematic data were collected. Firstly, application of Newell's (1985) stages of learning identified three distinct age-related coupling modes between forward motion of the centre-of-mass (CoM) and the wrist, which demonstrated a greater range of couplings for older children. Secondly, in line with Bernstein's (1967) hypothesis of freezing before freeing degrees of freedom, a significantly smaller range of motion (ROM) at the ankle and knee joints, but greater ROM at the hip and upper limb joints was found for the 6 year old group compared to the 10 and 14 year old groups. Thirdly, based on the components model (Robertson & Halverson, 1984), the overarm throws demonstrated by 6 year olds were characterised as primitive to intermediate, where 10 and 14 year old's throws were characterised by the penultimate action level for each component. Characteristics of CoM-wrist coupling more clearly identify children's age-related technique and highlight the importance of posture-ball release dynamics. The posture-ball dynamics were supported by changes in ROM and the components model, revealing the complementary nature of the 3 approaches to the analysis of age-related differences in overarm throwing action.

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Key words: Motor control, Motor learning, Biomechanics, Children

26 The overarm throw is a fundamental movement pattern that requires coordination and
27 control of the limb and torso segments of the whole-body (Robertson & Halverson, 1984;
28 Van den Tillaar, & Ettema, 2007), particularly when the task demands (distance, time,
29 accuracy etc.) are toward the upper end of the performance capacity of the individual
30 throwing. Children typically learn to throw in early and middle childhood in both home and
31 school contexts. Throwing requires the formation of a stable but flexible movement pattern
32 (technique) to eventually release a range of task outcomes with maximal certainty and
33 efficiency (Keller, Lamenoise, Testta, Golomer & Rosey, 2011; Palmer, Newell, Gordon,
34 Smith & Williams, 2018; Robertson & Halverson, 1984; Stodden, Langendorfer, Fleisig &
35 Andrews, 2006a,b; Yan, Payne & Thomas, 2000).

36 The majority of studies on throwing have investigated children learning to throw an
37 object (usually a small ball that can be held in one hand) with their dominant arm towards
38 a target goal for accuracy, speed or both (Halverson, Robertson & Langendorfer, 1982;
39 Robertson & Halverson, 1984; Robertson, Halverson, Langendorfer & Williams, 1979;
40 Robertson & Konczak, 2001). Early studies measured properties of the throwing pattern via
41 a rating scale approach (Halverson et al., 1982; Robertson & Halverson, 1984; Robertson et
42 al., 1979). In more recent research, greater use of motion capture devices that provide the
43 capacity for recording the kinematic details of the thrower's movement have been used
44 (Stodden et al., 2006a,b; Yan et al., 2000). However, there are few studies that have taken
45 advantage of the full capacity of motion capture and analysed the kinematics of the arm
46 motion in throwing along with the kinematics of the whole-body motion so as to examine
47 the important role of postural support in learning to throw or performance on any single
48 throw (Palmer et al., 2018).

49 Capturing whole-body actions is particularly important since research supports the
50 theoretical proposition that motor control is organized with overall system dynamics at the

51 centre (Kelso, 1995; Newell, 1985). From this view the overarm throwing movement might
52 be underpinned by the coordination of the arm motion to the postural motion (single step,
53 trunk rotation). In order to study this proposition further, integrated approaches that
54 encompass posture and ball release dynamics need to be applied.

55 Three different though potentially complementary approaches are used here to examine
56 technique of overarm throwing at different ages: Newell's (1985) stages of learning
57 coordination, control and skill; Robertson and Halverson's (1984) components model of
58 overarm throwing; and Bernstein's (1967) hypothesis of freezing and freeing redundant
59 mechanical degrees of freedom. It is anticipated that the combination of approaches can
60 provide a more comprehensive understanding of the change in technique with age and
61 better inform understanding of the processes and mechanisms by which changes to the
62 system occur with age, and so inform skill development.

63 In more detail, Newell's (1985) stages of learning provides a dynamical systems
64 approach to motor skill acquisition which offers a functional distinction between the
65 constructs of coordination, control and skill. Based on the interaction of the organism,
66 environment and task constraints leading to a self-organised movement outcome, Newell
67 (1985) did not prescribe the specific variables to quantify the stages of learning. Rather, it
68 was hypothesised that these variables would be task specific. For example, no specific
69 characteristics of joint or body actions were proposed that related to skill level,
70 'coordination' or 'control'. One aspect that was stipulated however, was that as skill level
71 increased dysfunctional variability would decrease, allowing the performers to cope with
72 perturbations presented by the task and environment. In answer to the problem of what
73 variables to study to capture 'technique' and technique change, recent work by Newell and
74 colleagues has emphasised macroscopic variables that capture the global topological space-
75 time properties of the system's coordination patterns. For example, paralleling the phase

76 relation between fingers used in the HKB model (Haken, Kelso, & Bunz, 1985; Kelso,
77 1995), relationships between centre of mass (CoM) and centre of pressure have been
78 investigated (Dutt-Mazumder, Challis & Newell, 2016; Dutt-Mazumder & Newell, 2017;
79 Ko, Challis, & Newell, 2014). Translating these ideas to study changes in non-dominant
80 overarm throw technique in adults, Palmer et al. (2018) investigated motion of the CoM
81 and wrist as adults practiced a non-dominant overarm throw. Practice induced changes in
82 the CoM-wrist coupling, where this coupling became more complex and less variable with
83 practice. It is of interest to determine if CoM-wrist coupling is also able to identify common
84 technique in overarm throwing action as a function of developmental age. Thus, the current
85 study applies the methods outlined by Palmer et al., (2018) but for a more representative
86 group of children. It was hypothesised that the relationship between the motion of the CoM
87 (postural variable) and the wrist (end effector) could capture generalizable age-related
88 changes in the macroscopic organisation of the system in this throwing task and the link
89 between postural support and instrumental limb action.

90 Secondly, Roberton and Halverson (1984) developed the components model of
91 overarm throwing following a 7 year longitudinal study of a single cohort of 39 children
92 from the ages of 6 to 13 years. As seen in Table 1, the components model is based on a
93 qualitative assessment of motions of body segments or groups of segments (feet, trunk,
94 humerus and forearm) during the throwing action, with a rating scale that categorises an
95 individual's throwing action with each on a continuum of 3 or 4 stages (Table 1). As the
96 only specific overarm throwing model of technique changes, the components model has
97 been applied to examine technique changes in children (Keller et al., 2011; Langendorfer
98 & Roberton, 2002; Roberton & Konczak, 2001; Stodden, et al., 2006a,b).

99 Thirdly, Bernstein's (1967) hypothesis of freezing and freeing the redundant
100 mechanical degrees of freedom captures technique changes at the joint-space level.

101 Investigating whether more joint actions are involved from proximal to distal with practice,
102 changes in joint angle range of motion (ROM) have been explored during learning novel
103 tasks (Chow, Davids, Button & Rein, 2008; Newell, Kugler, Van Emmeik & McDonald,
104 1989; Vereijken, Whiting & Beek, 1992). It is also noted that dynamical degrees of
105 freedom, such as coordination variables, have been defined and studied (Ko, Challis, &
106 Newell, 2003; Verhoeven & Newell, 2016). The direction of freezing and freeing seems to
107 be task specific and dependent on the level of the system being analysed during learning
108 (Hong & Newell, 2006; Newell & Vaillancourt, 2001). In order to study Bernstein's (1967)
109 hypothesis, biomechanical analysis of ROM is used here to provide information about
110 technique changes at individual joint level.

111 In a parallel study, Palmer et al. (2018) investigated the evolution of change in
112 technique of the non-dominant overarm throw as a function of a 3 week period of practice
113 in adult learners using the above three distinct approaches. Practice induced changes in the
114 CoM-wrist coupling were supported by individual strategies at the joint-space level
115 revealing the complementary nature of the three approaches. It is of interest to determine if
116 CoM-wrist coupling is also able to identify common technique changes in overarm
117 throwing action as a function of developmental age and whether individual strategies exist
118 at the joint-space level. The current study applies the methods outlined by Palmer et al.
119 (2018) but for a more representative group of children. Understanding the characteristics
120 associated with technique change during skill acquisition of a motor task in childhood can
121 provide valuable insight in to the task demands of the whole body.

122 The study reported here examines overarm throwing action of a cross-section of
123 children's ages that relate to distinct developmental age periods (Meister, Day, Horodyski,
124 Kaminski, Wasik & Tillman 2005; Mickle, Munro & Steele, 2011; Robertson & Halverson,
125 1984; Stodden et al., 2006a,b). The purpose was to establish: (1) if current approaches to

126 motor learning have adequately described dominant overarm throw technique differences
127 at 6, 10 and 14 years of age – particularly in the link of throwing arm to posture, trunk
128 rotation and a step; and (2) if differences in technique across age are consistent with
129 changes that occur during learning non-dominant overarm throw in adulthood as revealed
130 in Palmer et al. (2018). Finding the latter relation would provide evidence that the typical
131 poorer throwing technique of the non-dominant arm is primarily due to environmental
132 effects namely, the lack of practice and relevant throwing experience.

133 The hypothesis examined was whether individual-specific quantitative differences in
134 joint ROM and qualitative changes in Robertson and Halverson’s model are embedded
135 within age-related differences in the relative motion of the CoM-wrist.

136

137 **Methods**

138 **Participants**

139 Ethical approval was granted from the host University’s Ethics Committee prior to
140 study initiation. Analysis was performed on 18 children split into three age groups: 6 years
141 (5 females, 1 male; age 6.56 ± 0.30 years, stature 1.22 ± 0.05 m and mass 23.88 ± 5.02 kg),
142 10 years (4 females, 2 males; age 10.32 ± 0.33 years, stature 1.47 ± 0.10 m, mass $39.29 \pm$
143 3.26 kg) and 14 years (4 females, 2 males; age 14.22 ± 0.48 years, stature 1.64 ± 0.11 m,
144 mass 61.02 ± 6.97 kg).

145 All participants provided assent alongside parent/guardian written informed consent.
146 Parent/guardians also completed a pre-exercise health questionnaire and the Edinburgh
147 handedness inventory (Oldfield, 1971) on behalf of their child. Inclusion criteria at
148 recruitment were as follows: participants were not competing in a throwing-based activity,
149 had a dominant hand, and were free from musculoskeletal injury.

150 **Procedures**

151 Each participant attended a single data collection session. Kinematic data were

152 collected for 5 overarm throws performed with the dominant arm. Overarm throws were
153 completed from a standing position, with each participant free to choose their preferred
154 stance. Participants were given the aim of hitting 0.4m target located 14 m in front of them
155 by throwing a standard issue tennis ball (Slazenger) ball as hard as possible. The target
156 height was adjusted to each participant's standing eye level using a tape measure. Pilot
157 testing determined that a throwing distance of 14 m encouraged a more forceful throw.
158 Previous research indicates scaling up velocity is positively correlated to advances in
159 overarm throwing technique (Southard, 2006). Participants were not blinded from
160 knowledge of the results and verbal encouragement was provided; phrases included the
161 words 'nice', 'well done' and 'good job'.

162 **Data collection**

163 Kinematic data were collected at 200Hz using an automated 3D motion capture system
164 (CODAmotion, Charnwood Dynamics Ltd, UK). Three CX1 scanners provided a 360-
165 degree field of view around the participant and were synchronized to two Kistler Force
166 Platforms (9865, UK) flush to the floor. Active markers were placed on the estimated joint
167 centre of rotation using a bilateral full body marker set. The anatomical points used were
168 3rd metacarpal, ulnar styloid process, forearm, lateral epicondyle of the elbow, shoulder,
169 xiphoid process, greater trochanter, thigh, femoral condyle, lateral malleolus, calcaneus and
170 2nd metatarsal. Whole-body CoM was defined based on the mass and position of the
171 individual segment CoM's of both hands, forearms, upper arms, shank, feet, and the head
172 and torso were consider as a single segment (Plagenhoef, Evans & Abdelnour, 1983).

173 Following a residual analysis of the shoulder, elbow and wrist markers, a fourth-order
174 Butterworth filter was applied to raw marker data with a cut-off frequency of 6 Hz (Winter,
175 2005). Data were analysed during the propulsive phase of the throw, defined from the start
176 of forward and continuous motion of any marker in the direction of the throw until the

177 frame of ball release. The data were analysed and presented as a percentage of the total
178 propulsive phase of the throw and normalised to 100%.

179 **Variables**

180 *Newell (1985) stages of coordination, control and skill:* Coordination and variability
181 of the CoM-wrist coupling in the anterior-posterior direction was quantified using a
182 modified vector coding (VC) (Chang, Van Emmerik & Hamil, 2008; Needham, Naemi &
183 Chockalingam, 2014; Sparrow, Donovan, Van Emmerik & Barry, 1987). VC angles were
184 defined using four key coordination patterns: (1) anti-phase coupling ($112.5 \leq \gamma < 157.5^\circ$,
185 $292.5 \leq \gamma < 337.5^\circ$) where variables are moving in opposite direction; (2) in-phase coupling
186 ($22.5 \leq \gamma < 67.5^\circ$, $202.5 \leq \gamma < 247.5^\circ$) where variables are moving in the same direction;
187 (3) wrist-led phase coupling ($0 \leq \gamma < 22.5^\circ$, $157.5 \leq \gamma < 202.5^\circ$, $337.5 \leq \gamma < 360^\circ$) where
188 wrist movement is dominant variable and; (4) CoM-led phase coupling ($67.5 \leq \gamma < 112.5^\circ$,
189 $2, 247.5 \leq \gamma < 292.5^\circ$) where CoM movement is more dominant. Average of the standard
190 deviation across the 101 point VC profiles of an individual was combined into the group
191 analysis to determine between group variability.

192 *Components model (Robertson & Halverson, 1984):* Action of the ‘step’ ‘trunk’,
193 ‘humerus’ and ‘forearm’ were qualitatively classified by the principal investigator for all
194 trials for all participants in line with the model description. A classification of 1 is
195 representative of the least skilled action level, with action level 3 or 4 representative of
196 skilled action of that component (Robertson & Halverson, 1984; Table 1). If a participant’s
197 technique was split across two action levels for a component across the five throws the
198 action level with the highest number of trials was recorded.

199 *Bernstein (1967) joint range of motion:* To capture the freeing of degrees of freedom,
200 joint ROM during the propulsive phase of the throw was calculated. The ankle joint was

201 defined from the 2nd metatarsal, lateral malleolus and calcaneus; knee joint from lateral
202 malleolus, femoral condyle and greater trochanter; hip joint from femoral condyle, greater
203 trochanter and xiphoid process; shoulder joint from shoulder joint centre of rotation,
204 xiphoid process and lateral epicondyle of the elbow, elbow joint from shoulder joint centre
205 of rotation, lateral epicondyle of the elbow, styloid process of ulna, and the wrist joint was
206 defined from the 3rd metacarpal, styloid process of ulna and lateral epicondyle of the elbow.
207 Average ROM across the 5 trials was calculated for each participant. The mean was
208 calculated for each age group. Angles were defined in 3D where an angle of 180° would
209 represent maximum extension, while 0° would represent minimal flexion.

210 **Statistical analysis**

211 Data were assessed for normality using a Shapiro-Wilks test. Once confirmed, a one-
212 way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted for each dependent variable ($p < 0.05$).
213 Mauchly's test was used to determine the sphericity assumption within the data; where
214 sphericity was violated, a Greenhouse-Geisser correction was applied. Comparisons of
215 vector coding coordination variability were examined between age groups. Bonferroni post
216 hoc correction was used as needed for multiple comparisons.

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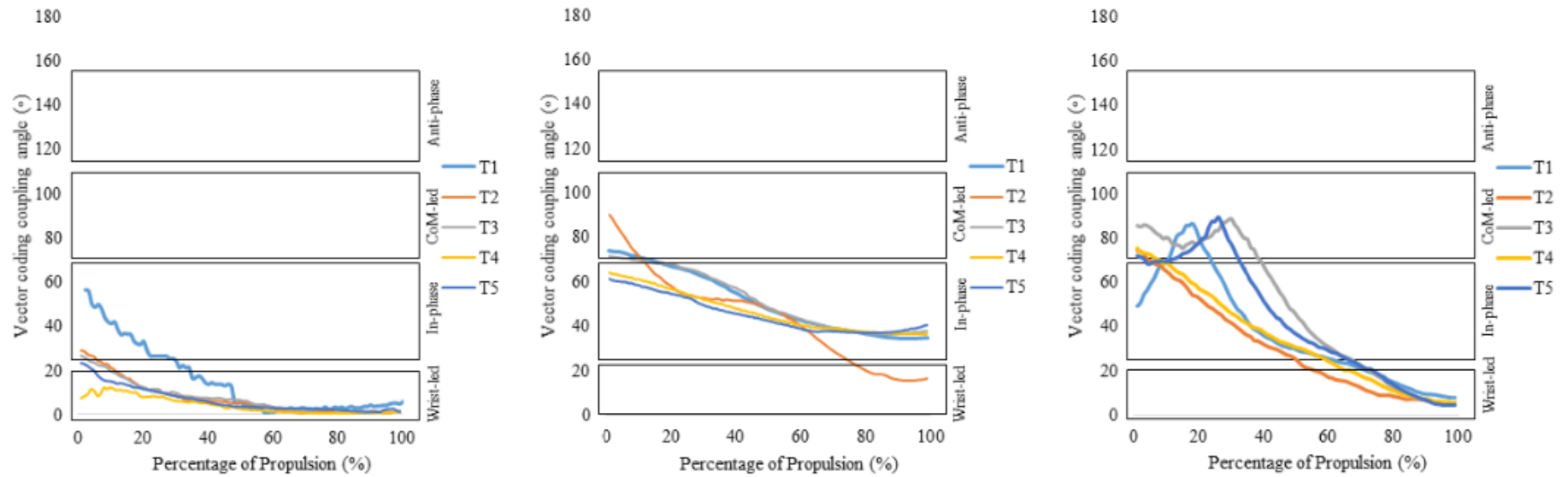
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220 **Results**

221 3.1 Newell's (1985) stages of learning of coordination, control and skill

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223 **Fig 1.** Vector coding angle between CoM-wrist coupling for 5 trials (Fig 1a, representative 6-year old; Fig 1b, representative 10-year old; and Fig
224 1.1c representative 14-year old).

225 Three CoM-wrist coupling modes were identified across the three age groups.
226 Six-year olds tended towards in-phase coupling of the CoM-wrist at the start of the
227 propulsive phase of the throw, where the CoM and wrist were moving forward together.
228 Meanwhile for the majority of the propulsive phase, wrist-led coupling dominated at
229 around 20% and continued towards ball release ($0 \leq \gamma < 22.5^\circ$) (Fig 1a).

230 In line with Figure 1b all the 10 year olds and three of the six 14 year olds used
231 CoM-led coupling at the start of the propulsive phase, progressing to in-phase coupling
232 (at around 20%), finishing with wrist-led phase coupling at ball release (Fig 1b). The
233 remaining three of the six 14 year olds exhibited CoM-led coupling at the start of the
234 propulsive phase of the throw, which moved further into CoM-led coupling before
235 progressing to wrist-led coupling at release (Fig 1c).

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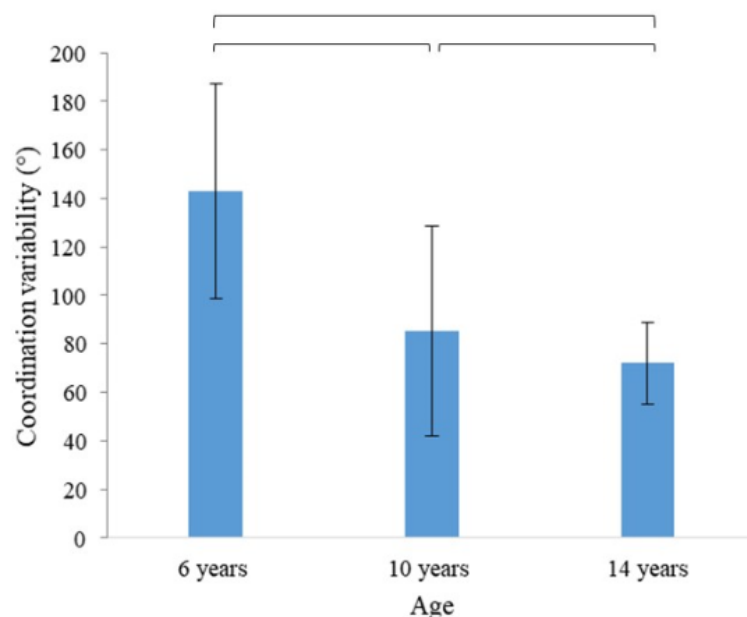
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244 **Fig 2.** Standard deviation between subjects during 5 trials of the CoM-wrist coupling
245 in the anterior posterior direction for dominant arm overarm throws at 6-, 10- and 14-
246 years of age.

247 Significant differences were present in CoM-wrist coordination variability for
248 dominant arm throws between 6, 10 and 14 years of age. Coordination variability of 6
249 year olds was significantly greater than 10 year olds ($p = 0.001$; $d = 0.67$) and 14 year
250 olds ($p = 0.001$; $d = 1.72$). Coordination variability at 10 years of age was significantly
251 greater than the 14 year old group ($p = 0.04$; $d = 0.14$).

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267 3.2 Components model of overarm throwing (Robertson & Halverson, 1984)

268 **Table 1.** Action level at ages 6-, 10- and 14-years.

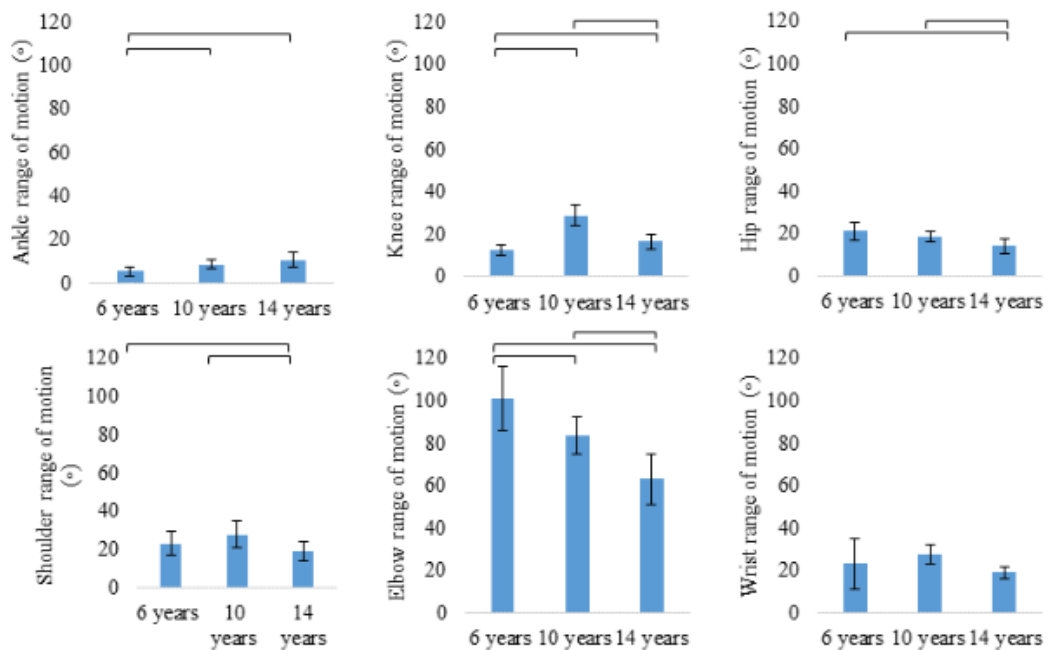
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Segment	Action level	Description	6-yrs	10-yrs	14-yrs
Step	1	<i>No step.</i> Throws from initial foot position.	3		
	2	<i>Ipsilateral step.</i> The child steps with the foot on the same side as the throwing hand.	1		
	3	<i>Contralateral short step.</i> The child steps with the foot on the opposite side from the throwing hand.	2	6	6
	4	<i>Contralateral long step.</i> The child steps with the opposite foot a distance of over half the child's standing height.			
Trunk	1	<i>No trunk action.</i> No twist-up precedes the arm movement. If trunk action does occur, it accompanies the forward thrust of the arm by first extending and then flexing at the pelvis.	1		
	2	<i>Upper trunk rotation.</i> The spine and pelvis both rotate away from the intended line of flight and then simultaneously begin forward rotation.	5	6	6
	3	<i>Differentiated trunk rotation.</i> The thrower twists away from the intended line of ball flight and then, begins forward rotation with the pelvis while the upper spine is still twisting.			
Humerus	1	<i>Humerus oblique.</i> The humerus forms an oblique angle to the horizontal line of the shoulders during forward movement.	6		
	2	<i>Humerus aligned but independent.</i> The humerus forms a right a right angle to the trunk during forward movement, but at front facing has horizontally adducted to a positions ahead of the outline of the trunk.		6	6
	3	<i>Humerus lag.</i> At front facing, the humerus remains within the outline of the body.			
Forearm	1	<i>No forearm lag.</i> The forearm and ball move steadily forward to ball release.	6		
	2	<i>Forearm lag.</i> The forearm and ball appear to 'lag' i.e., to remain stationary behind the thrower of move downward or backward in relation to them.		6	6
	3	<i>Delayed forearm lag.</i> The lagging forearm delays reaching its final point of lag until the moment of front facing.			

270 Participants at 6, 10 and 14 years of age progressed through action levels of the
 271 components model (Table 1). The 6 years olds overarm throws were characterised by
 272 humerus and forearm action that was classified at action level 1. For the majority, trunk
 273 movement was characterised at action level 2, and step action distributed between level
 274 1-3.

275 At 10 and 14 years overarm throws were characterised by more advanced action
 276 levels, but only the penultimate action level for each component. By 14 years,
 277 participants had not reached the highest action level of the components model for the
 278 ‘step’ component but had achieved this for the ‘trunk’, ‘humerus’ and ‘forearm’.

279 3.3 Bernstein (1967) joint range of motion



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 281 **Fig 3.** Joint range of motion at the ankle, knee, hip and shoulder, elbow and wrist during
 282 overarm throwing at 6-, 10- and 14-years of age.

283 Significant age differences were found in ROM in the majority of joints. Six
284 year olds ankle ROM was significantly smaller than 10 year olds (ankle, $p = 0.003$) and
285 14 year olds ($p = 0.001$). Knee ROM at 6 years was significantly smaller than at 10
286 years ($p = 0.002$) and 14 years ($p = 0.01$), however, greater at 10 years compared to 14
287 years ($p = 0.003$). Hip ROM was significantly greater in 6 year old age group compared
288 to 10 year olds ($p = 0.01$) and 14 year olds ($p = 0.007$). Shoulder ROM at 14 years was
289 significantly smaller than at 6 years ($p = 0.02$) and 10 years ($p = 0.03$). Elbow ROM was
290 significantly greater at 6 years compared to 10 years (elbow, $p = 0.001$) and 14 years
291 ($p = 0.001$). The 6 year olds wrist ROM was significantly smaller compared to 10 year
292 olds ($p = 0.04$) and greater than 14 year olds ($p = 0.03$), whereas 10 year olds were
293 significantly greater compared to 14 year olds ($p = 0.02$).

294 **Discussion**

295 The aim of this paper was to investigate the differences in technique over
296 childhood and adolescence during dominant overarm throwing with respect to three
297 different, though potentially complementary, approaches to qualitative and quantitative
298 change of movement dynamics: Newell's (1985) stages of learning coordination,
299 control and skill; the component model of overarm throwing (Robertson & Halverson,
300 1984); and Bernstein's (1967) hypothesis of freezing and freeing redundant mechanical
301 degrees of freedom. The key findings included more advanced CoM-wrist coupling
302 profile where the coupling progressed through a greater range of phase relations with
303 increments of age, the use of a contralateral step and increased ROM at the ankle and
304 knee joint with age.

305 **Newell's (1985) stages of learning coordination, control and skill**

306 It was anticipated that the older children in this study would display more

307 developed overarm throwing action (Langendorfer & Robertson, 2002; Stodden et al.,
308 2006). In order to gain a macroscopic overview of changes in technique and apply
309 Newell's (1985) stages of learning model the CoM-wrist coupling was studied. The
310 macroscopic organisation of the system became more complex with age (Fig 1b; Fig
311 1c), providing evidence in line with that shown by Palmer et al. (2018) for adults
312 learning to throw with the non-dominant arm. This was demonstrated by children at 10
313 and 14 years of age utilising a broader range of phase relations associated with the arm
314 kinematics chain. While this macroscopic variable does not describe the nuances of
315 technique, it was able to capture a transition in system organisation despite individual
316 differences that influenced joint-space organisation.

317 Palmer et al. (2018) showed that CoM-wrist coupling captured robust
318 characteristics of technique change across adult participants during non-dominant arm
319 practice. The current study showed more advanced modes of CoM-wrist coupling
320 patterns emerged with age which could be generalizable to the motor learning of all
321 advanced skills. Specifically, coupling mode 1 and 2 (Fig 1a; 1b) displayed a similar
322 but simpler profile than previously reported by Palmer et al. (2018) as the children spent
323 less time in-phase coupling (mode 1; Fig 1a) and CoM-wrist led coupling (mode 2; Fig
324 1b). Coupling mode 3 (Fig 1c) was similar to the coupling reported by Palmer et al.
325 (2018), while the progression of coupling angle further into the CoM-led coupling was
326 a progression not present for adult participants. These differences in findings could be
327 due to differences in dynamical degrees of freedom and potentially different postural
328 control of the CoM in children compared to adults learning to throw.

329 The current findings provide support for global macroscopic variables being
330 associated with common inter-individual changes during learning which are not seen at
331 the joint-space level of technique changes. Intra-individual coupling variability

332 decreased with the progression of age from 6 to 14 years (Fig 2), suggesting that older
333 children were able to produce more consistent CoM-wrist coupling patterns than
334 younger children (Fig 2). Based on the reduction of variability for the older children it
335 is suggested that they may have reached the control stage of learning (Newell, 1985).
336 Meanwhile younger children displayed higher variability suggesting they remained in
337 the initial coordination stage (Newell, 1985); although it should be acknowledged that
338 this is only relative. This pattern of findings is consistent with Wagner et al. (2012) who
339 reported that movement variability decreased with skill level in the standing throw and
340 was associated with skilled players having the ability to compensate for any increases
341 in movement variability. To provide further evidence for reduction in variability and
342 changes from coordination to control stages, further research is still needed, with
343 different skills and longer periods/more distinct groups being observed.

344 The application of a postural (CoM) and end-effector (wrist) macroscopic
345 variable approach raises an important distinction regarding the level of the dynamical
346 system that might capture fundamental characteristics of technique change. This stands
347 as an epistemological shift from the joint-space level of analysis in previous research
348 (Bernstein, 1967; Chow et al., 2008; Newell et al., 1989; Vereijken et al., 1992).

349 To understand the kinematics associated with the macroscopic dynamics,
350 technique changes were examined using the components model (Robertson &
351 Halverson, 1984) and Bernstein's (1967) hypothesis of freezing and freeing the
352 redundant mechanical degrees of freedom.

353 **The components model of overarm throwing (Robertson & Halverson, 1984)**

354 Six year olds were the least skilled at overarm throwing as categorised by the
355 components model (Robertson & Halverson, 1984; Table 1). They also displayed the
356 greatest range of step action configurations of the three age groups (Table 1), including

357 no step and ipsilateral step configurations. These step configurations create a closed
358 body position and place constraints on the body that limit progression in ‘humerus’ and
359 ‘forearm’ components through restricting rotation of the trunk and preventing the
360 production of angular velocity (Stodden et al., 2006a). Ten and fourteen year olds all
361 displayed a contralateral, short step (Table 1), however, no further qualitative technique
362 changes were found between 10 and 14 years of age suggesting technique were similar.

363 No participants displayed the most advanced step or trunk action, suggesting
364 that overarm throwing action is not necessarily fully developed by 14 years of age.
365 While the trunk and arm segments are highlighted as invaluable contributors to overarm
366 throwing action (Nelson et al., 1991; Robertson & Konczak, 2001), it might be that
367 movements related to the step are currently more critical to the development of
368 technique than other key biomechanical parameters such as segmental lag and the
369 kinematic chain between torso and arm segments. Halverson et al. (1982) reported that
370 by 13 years of age their participants were far from having ‘mastered’ or ‘developed
371 proficiency’ in overarm throwing. While Stodden et al. (2006a,b), examined cross-
372 sectional kinematic variables in dominant arm throwing in children between 3 to 15
373 years of age, it was reported that a developmental level at 6 years of age to be in line
374 with current findings. However, children between 11 to 13 years displayed more
375 advanced developmental action levels (level 3 and level 4).

376 **Bernstein (1967) joint range of motion**

377 Consistent with Bernstein’s hypothesis (1967) ROM of the ankle and knee joint
378 increased with age (Fig 3) and occurred along with a more advanced ‘step’ action
379 (Table 1). Interestingly ROM of the hip and elbow decreased with age from 6 to 14
380 years of age (Fig 3). In parallel, children at 10 and 14 years of age were categorised in
381 advanced action levels of the ‘humerus’ and ‘forearm’ of the components model

382 (Robertson & Halverson, 1984).

383 The findings lead to the suggestion that the ankle, hip and elbow specifically,
384 might distinguish age-related differences between child throwers, and might be a key
385 coaching point for the skill. However, the context to these increased ROM's is likely
386 captured within the Robertson and Halverson (1984) components model which outlines
387 key coaching points.

388 **Integrating frameworks to the acquisition of overarm throwing**

389 Emphasising a CoM-wrist coupling as a macroscopic variable over control of
390 individual degrees of freedom is based on the theoretical proposition that motor
391 learning is associated with change in the overall system dynamics (Kelso, 1995; Newell
392 & Vaillancourt, 2001). Arguably, the use of CoM-wrist coupling as the macroscopic
393 variable, is underpinned by the technique changes seen in the components model
394 (Robertson & Halverson, 1984).

395 In supporting these different emphases on system organisation, the findings
396 imply that a more advanced CoM-wrist coupling is achieved during skill progression
397 throughout childhood by taking a contralateral step during throwing, which is
398 associated with increased ROM of the lower extremities. By increasing the complexity
399 of the macroscopic dynamics, participants followed the sequence of components
400 change in the Robertson and Halverson (1984) model, while Bernstein's (1967)
401 postulation of freeing the mechanical degrees of freedom was limb specific.

402 The findings of this paper support the theoretical proposition that motor control
403 is organized with respect to overall system dynamics rather than the control of
404 individual degrees of freedom (Kelso, 1995; Newell, 1985). The macroscopic variable
405 linking torso motion to ball release was more able to distinguish differences in overarm
406 throwing technique among the three age groups than single joint motions, and therefore,

407 might be key to understanding the dynamics of technique change from a dynamical
408 systems theory perspective. Moreover, the findings highlight the importance of the
409 lower extremities and dynamic postural control in overarm throwing in what is usually
410 characterised as an upper extremity action.

411 Finally, the cross-sectional design of the current study means that the age
412 manipulation is also in some ways and to some degree a general experience or more
413 specific practice effect. A long history of motor development research has provided
414 support for the interaction of nature and nurture effects in the emergence of the
415 fundamental skills (Haywood & Getchell, 2019), including throwing (Robertson et al.,
416 1982; Wickstrom, 1977). The study reported here was not designed to investigate the
417 nature–nurture interaction in the development of throwing but it can be usefully
418 contrasted to the findings of Palmer et al. (2018) where adults with the non-dominant
419 arm enhanced their CoM to wrist coupling as a function of throwing practice. This
420 provides support for the inference here of the influence of practice on the different
421 qualitative and quantitative variables that capture learning to throw overarm from early
422 through later childhood.

423 A limitation of this study includes the lack of an outcome measure in terms of
424 target accuracy and ball speed. Therefore, in order to understand other sources of
425 constraints of coordination dynamics during overarm throwing, future work looks to
426 explore the effects of age and skill level on throwing technique with a larger sample
427 group. In addition, the target distance of 14 m provides a specific task constraint which
428 may have affected the results of the study. In line with this, it is of interest to manipulate
429 throwing distance and target size in future work, in order to explore the mediating
430 effects of a speed-accuracy trade-off across age and skill level groups.

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