

QUALITATIVE AND QUANTITATIVE CHANGE IN THE KINEMATICS OF
LEARNING A NON-DOMINANT OVERARM THROW

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Qualitative and Quantitative Change in the Kinematics of Learning a
Non-Dominant Overarm Throw

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05/07/18

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Abstract

2 This study investigates changes in non-dominant arm throw technique over a 3-week
3 period of practice with respect to three complementary approaches to motor skill
4 acquisition. Ten participants (mean±SD age 22±2yrs, stature 1.71±0.60m, mass
5 73±14kg) practiced for nine sessions, during which kinematic data were collected. In
6 line with Newell's (1985) learning stages of coordination, control and skill, coupling
7 between the Centre of Mass (CoM) and wrist movement were explored. During initial
8 practice, coupling began in-phase moving to wrist-led coupling. With further practice
9 a more complex backwards wrist-led coupling that progressed to forward wrist-led
10 coupling was observed. The components model of overarm throwing (Robertson &
11 Halverson, 1984) and Bernstein's (1967) hypothesis of freezing and freeing redundant
12 mechanical degrees of freedom were used to understand technique changes
13 underpinning changes in the collective dynamic. Participants began in mid to high
14 action levels for the torso/arm components, while the step component progressed to
15 higher action levels with practice. A significant increase in joint angle range of motion
16 (ROM) at the lower limb joints and shoulder and a significant decrease in elbow and
17 wrist ROM coincided with the time course of changes in the components model. Key
18 aspects of technique change were taking a contralateral step which was associated with
19 greater ROM of the lower extremities and CoM, and underpinned a more complex
20 CoM-wrist coupling. In identifying stages of learning, commonalities in changes in the
21 collective dynamic were supported by individual strategies at the joint space level.

22 *Word count: 241*

23 *Keywords: motor control, motor learning, biomechanics, throwing*

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24 Knowledge of the characteristics of technique change during motor learning can
25 provide insight into how the demands of a task influence the process of motor skill
26 acquisition. In this study, non-dominant overarm throwing action was the motor skill
27 used to explore technique changes during learning. The overarm throw is a fundamental
28 discrete motor skill (Knudson, 2007) that requires the formation of qualitative
29 kinematic properties in the organization of the limb segments that constrain the
30 quantitative change in movement technique and task outcome (Kernodle & Carlton,
31 1992; Robertson & Halverson, 1984; Southard, 2006).

32 Overarm throwing is a skill for which the non-dominant arm action generally
33 has less advanced movement organization than the dominant arm (Kernodle & Carlton,
34 1992; Southard, 2006). Two studies have investigated the effect of instruction and
35 feedback on the development of non-dominant overarm throwing in adults (Kernodle
36 & Carlton, 1992; Southard, 2006). Southard (2006) reported an increase in the arm and
37 trunk segments experiencing positive segmental lag, while Kernodle and Carlton
38 (1992) showed that the key cues to technique change related to the lag of the upper arm
39 and elbow with respect to the shoulder. Interestingly, whilst segmental lag provides a
40 biomechanically relevant technique parameter, it is not emphasised in the stages of
41 learning models proposed in motor control literature.

42 Three complementary approaches for quantifying technique changes in human
43 movement were used in the study; Newell's (1985) learning stages of coordination,
44 control and skill and Bernstein's (1967) hypothesis of freezing and freeing the
45 redundant mechanical degrees of freedom are generalised models for the development
46 of motor skills, underpinned by a dynamical systems theory perspective. The
47 component model of overarm throwing (Robertson & Halverson, 1984) is a model

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48 developed specifically for throwing actions. Firstly, Newell (1985) provided a
49 functional distinction between the constructs coordination, control and skill. In
50 Newell's (1985) framework variables that describe technique and directions of change
51 were purposefully not defined, since it was hypothesised that both were task specific.
52 More recent work has used collective variables to assess the constructs of the learning
53 stages (Ko, Challis & Newell, 2014; Wang, Ko, Challis & Newell, 2014; Dutt-
54 Mazumder, Challis & Newell, 2016; Dutt-Mazumder & Newell, 2017). The assumption
55 is that the collective variable provides the fundamental organization of the system's
56 macroscopic coordination patterns (Ko et al. 2014). A collective variable or order
57 parameter is defined as a high order, low dimension space variable that is representative
58 of multiple joints at the muscular-articular level (Haken, 1983; Mitra, Amazeen &
59 Turvey, 1998). It has been shown in learning projectile tasks that the collective
60 movements of the body (indexed by CoM) and the end effector during throwing (wrist
61 motion) become more strongly coupled (Verhoeven & Newell, 2016).

62 Bernstein's (1967) hypothesis of freezing and freeing the redundant mechanical
63 degrees of freedom captures properties of qualitative and quantitative technique
64 changes. In this view Bernstein (1967) defined coordination as the process of mastering
65 redundant mechanical degrees of freedom (DF), suggesting that movement is
66 coordinated through a three-stage embedded approach of freezing and freeing the joint
67 space DFs, and finally exploiting the reactive forces. Changes in joint angle range of
68 motion (ROM) (Newell, Kugler, Van Emmerik & McDonald, 1989; Vereijken,
69 Whiting & Beek, 1992; Chow, Davids, Button & Rein, 2008) and coordination
70 variables (Ko, Challis, & Newell, 2003; Verhoeven & Newell, 2016) during novel tasks
71 have been investigated in line with the notion of freezing before freeing during motor

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72 learning. The postulation of Bernstein (1967) has since been proposed to be task
73 specific and dependent on the level of analysis during learning (Hong & Newell, 2006;
74 Newell & Vaillancourt, 2001). This paper investigates changes in the ROM of the
75 mechanical degrees of freedom with practice in learning the overarm throw.

76 Lastly, the components model of overarm throwing (Robertson & Halverson,
77 1984) tracks qualitative technique changes through relative changes in four segmental
78 components: ‘step’, ‘trunk’, ‘humerus’ and ‘forearm’. The components model has been
79 examined extensively in children learning to throw (Robertson & Halverson, 1984;
80 Robertson & Konczak, 2001; Langendorfer & Robertson, 2002; Stodden, Langendorfer,
81 Fleisig & Andrews, 2006*a,b*) and older adults ranging in age from 61 – 82 years
82 (Williams, Haywood & VanSant, 1998). The model was the product of years of
83 longitudinal study in children up to 13-years of age but has yet to be applied to
84 technique changes for young adults or for non-dominant arm throws. It is important to
85 have an understanding of the mechanics of qualitative developmental changes in the
86 fundamental skills to establish if young adult technique changes in line with that of
87 children and older adults.

88 This paper examines the pathways of change in the movement organization that
89 provide structure to the formation of a new task relevant movement coordination mode
90 for the overarm throw with the non-dominant arm. The aim of this research was to
91 investigate the evolution of changes in technique of the non-dominant overarm throw
92 over practice with respect to three complementary approaches to qualitative and
93 quantitative change of movement dynamics: Newell’s (1985) stages of coordination,
94 control and skill, Bernstein’s (1967) hypothesis of freezing and freeing redundant
95 mechanical degrees of freedom, and the components model of overarm throwing

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96 (Robertson & Halverson, 1984). We expect that collective dynamics capture common
97 changes in technique during learning. It was expected that quantitative changes in joint
98 rotations and Centre of Mass (CoM) movements are embedded in sequential qualitative
99 changes in ‘trunk’/arm relative motion during learning to throw with the non-dominant.
100 The approach focuses on the qualitative and quantitative kinematic changes at the
101 individual participant level as a function of practice to reveal the individual pathways
102 of change that are likely to be evident when not masked by averaging procedures.

103 **Method**

104 **Participants**

105 Written ethical approval was gained from the host University’s Ethics
106 Committee (Faculty Research Ethics Panel, Anglia Ruskin University) prior to study
107 initiation. Ten participants (PT) (4 female, 6 males; age 22 ± 2 yrs, stature 1.71 ± 0.60 m,
108 and mass 73 ± 14 kg), all of whom had no specific experiences with non-dominant arm
109 throwing, gave written voluntary informed consent and successfully completed a health
110 questionnaire. Inclusion criteria were as follows: participants were not participating in
111 a throwing-based activity, had a dominant hand (as determined by Oldfield (1971)
112 Edinburgh handedness inventory), and were free from musculoskeletal injury.

113 **Procedures**

114 The longitudinal practice took place three times per week (Monday, Wednesday
115 and Friday) for 3 consecutive weeks. The same procedures were conducted for each
116 session. Between testing sessions participants were instructed not to practice throwing
117 with either their dominant or non-dominant arm. Baseline data were collected for each

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118 participant during 10 overarm throwing movements, with their dominant arm and non-
119 dominant arm. A standard issue tennis ball (Slazenger) was used. Participants were
120 given the ongoing aim of hitting a 0.4m target located 14m in front of them Target
121 height was adjusted to each participant's eye level. Knowledge of results from the target
122 and verbal encouragement were provided, phrases included: "nice", "well done" and
123 "good job". The target placement necessitated a forceful and accurate throw from the
124 participant and was best realized with a near horizontal trajectory of the ball to the
125 target.

126 **Data collection**

127 Kinematic data (200 Hz) were collected using 3D motion capture system
128 (CODAmotion, Charnwood Dynamics Ltd, UK). Three CX1 scanners provided a 360°
129 field of view around the participant. Centre of rotation for each joint was estimated and
130 active makers were located on the right and left lateral side of: 3rd metacarpal, ulnar
131 styloid process, lateral epicondyle of the elbow, shoulder joint at the centre of rotation,
132 xiphoid process, greater trochanter, thigh, femoral condyle, tibia, lateral malleolus,
133 calcaneus and 2nd metatarsal. The same researcher marked up each participant each
134 week. Data were collected for every trial performed by the participant. The throwing
135 trials were recorded using a two-dimensional camera (Fastcam high speed video
136 camera, Ultima 512 Photron, Model 32K) placed perpendicular to the sagittal plane of
137 the participant.

138 Raw marker data in the horizontal and vertical direction were identified from
139 the three-dimensional CODA output. A Butterworth low-pass fourth-order filter was
140 applied to the kinematic data at a cut-off frequency of 6 Hz (Winter, 2005). Data were

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141 analysed during the propulsive phase of the throw, defined from the instance that a
142 marker started moving in the direction of the throw until the instance of ball release.

143 **Variables**

144 **Newell's (1985) learning stages of coordination, control and skill:** Vector
145 coding (VC) was performed on the displacement of the CoM and wrist in the anterior
146 posterior direction (Sparrow, Donovan, Van Emmerik & Barry, 1987). Based on
147 Chang, van Emmerik and Hamill (2008) four key coordination patterns can be defined
148 for vector coding: (1) anti-phase coupling ($112.5\text{--}157.5^\circ$ or $292.5\text{--}337.5^\circ$), variables are
149 moving in opposite direction; (2) in-phase coupling ($22.5\text{--}67.5^\circ$ and $202.5\text{--}247.5^\circ$)
150 variables are moving in the same direction; (3) wrist-led phase coupling ($0\text{--}22.5^\circ$ 157.5--
151 202.5° or $337.5\text{--}360^\circ$), wrist is a more predominant variable; and (4) CoM-led phase
152 coupling ($67.5\text{--}112.5^\circ$ $247.5\text{--}292.5^\circ$), CoM is the more predominant variable. Average
153 standard deviation of the within-session VC profiles was used to determine variability
154 of the movement coordination pattern as a function of practice.

155 **Components Model (Robertson and Halverson, 1984):** 'step' 'trunk',
156 'humerus' and 'forearm' were classified by the principal investigator and were verified
157 by another author for all trials for all participants in line with the components model
158 (Robertson & Halverson, 1984).

159 **Bernstein (1967) joint range of motion:** Ankle joint was defined from the 2nd
160 metatarsal, lateral malleolus and calcaneus. The knee joint was defined from lateral
161 malleolus, femoral condyle and greater trochanter. The hip joint was defined from
162 femoral condyle, greater trochanter and xiphoid process. Shoulder joint was defined
163 from lateral epicondyle of the elbow, shoulder joint at the centre of rotation and xiphoid

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164 process. Elbow joint was defined from shoulder joint at the centre of rotation, lateral
165 epicondyle of the elbow ulnar and styloid process. The wrist joint was defined from the
166 3rd metacarpal, ulnar and styloid process and lateral epicondyle of the elbow.

167 Angles were defined in 3D where an angle of 180° would represent maximum
168 extension, while 0° would represent minimal flexion. ROM of CoM in the anterior-
169 posterior direction was also calculated, where CoM was defined as the average mass of
170 each segment midpoint of all the segments. To estimate the position of total body CoM
171 with 3D trajectories of the 16 active markers, CoM of individual segments were
172 calculated based on the anthropometric data provided by Dempster (1955). Then the
173 total body CoM position was derived from the combined individual CoM to provide
174 weighted summation of individual segment CoM positions (Ko et al. 2014; Winter
175 1995).

176 **Statistical analysis**

177 IBM 24 Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS Inc.) was used to
178 determine statistically significant differences between discrete variables: joint ROM of
179 the ankle, knee, hip, shoulder, elbow and wrist, CoM and the coupling variability of
180 CoM-wrist across testing sessions using repeated measures analysis of variance
181 (ANOVA), based on a single subject design ($p < 0.05$). Bonferroni post hoc correction
182 was used for multiple comparison test. Mauchly's test was used to determine the
183 sphericity assumption within the data; where sphericity was violated, probability was
184 corrected according to the Greenhouse-Geisser procedure.

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Results

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

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----- insert Figure 1 around here -----

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Fig 1. CoM-wrist coupling for single trial per session for PT06 (representative of PT03,

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PT04, PT05, PT08, PT09 and PT10) and PT07 (representative of PT01 and PT02).

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Two key profiles of this vector-coding angle were identified with practice. The

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first profile started the propulsive phase with in-phase coupling (22.5–67.5°) and

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progressed to wrist-led coupling (0-22.5°) at ball release (Fig 1) where the wrist is

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moving forward and the CoM is nearing stationary (zero degrees). At the start of

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practice, all participants demonstrated this coupling relation. The second profile started

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with wrist-led coupling (157.5–202.5°) where the wrist moved backwards and

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progressed through the following couplings; anti-phase coupling (112.5–157.5°) where

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the CoM is progressing forward as the wrist moves backwards, CoM-led coupling

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(67.5–112.5°) followed and is associated with the forwards movement of the CoM. Past

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60% of the propulsive phase, coupling angle passes through in-phase characterised by

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forward progression of CoM-wrist towards wrist-led phase coupling at ball release (Fig

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1). With practice, 7 of the 10 (PT03, PT04, PT05, PT06, PT08, PT09 and PT10)

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participants demonstrated the second profile. The remaining 3 of 10 participants (PT01,

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PT02 and PT07) continued to display in-phase coupling followed by wrist-led phase

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coupling at ball release for the duration of practice (Fig 1). Changes in CoM-wrist

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coupling (Fig 1) occurred at the same session as components model (Robertson &

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Halverson, 1984) (PT01 and PT03) and ROM (PT01, PT03, PT06 and PT10).

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208 By the end of practice non-dominant arm throws were more closely
209 representative of dominant arm throws for the majority of the participants. Seven of 10
210 participants (PT03, PT04, PT05, PT06, PT08, PT09 and PT10) were characterised by
211 wrist-led coupling moving towards zero at ball release. Three of 10 participants (PT01,
212 PT02 and PT07) dominant arm throws were characterised by in-phase coupling
213 progressing to wrist-led phase at ball release.

214

215 **Table 2.** Coupling variability with practice for CoM-wrist.

216 ----- *insert Table 2 around here* -----

217 With practice, 7 of 10 participants (PT01, PT03, PT04, PT05, PT06, PT08, and
218 PT09) significantly increased ($p < 0.05$) CoM-wrist coordination variability (Table 2).
219 Three of 10 participants (PT02, PT07, and PT10) significantly decreased ($p < 0.05$)
220 coordination variability with practice. Seven of 10 participants (PT02, PT03, PT05,
221 PT06, PT07, PT08, and PT09) more closely resembled dominant arm baseline trials
222 with practice (Table 2).

223 **Components model (Robertson & Halverson, 1984)**

224 ----- *insert Table 1 around here* -----

225 **Table 1.** Developmental action level with practice.

226 No participants were categorised as action level 1 or over practice regressed
227 down the skill action levels. Most participants progressed up an action level,
228 participants PT01 and PT10 did not progress or retreat with practice. Specifically, from
229 Session 6 onwards, 7 of the 10 participants were categorised as action level 3 for the

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230 'step' and 3 of 10 participants at level 4 for 'step'. For the 'trunk' 2 of 10 participants
231 were categorised as action level 2 and 8 of 10 participants were categorised as action
232 level 3. For 'humerus' and 'forearm' 3 of 10 participants were categorised as action
233 level 2 and 7 of 10 participants were categorised as action level 3. Key changes occurred
234 at Session 2 (PT05), Session 4 (PT02, PT04, PT07), and Session 6 (PT03, PT06).
235 Dominant arm throw configurations were characterised in higher levels (Table 1).

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

237 ----- insert Figure 2 around here -----

238 **Fig 2.** Representation of group changes in range of motion of the joints and centre of
239 mass over 3-weeks of practice.

240 ----- insert Figure 3 around here -----

241 **Fig 3.** Group ROM development at the right ankle, knee, hip, left shoulder, elbow and
242 wrist joint as a function of practice. There was a significant increase in ROM of the
243 lower limb joints and shoulder with practice (9 of 10 participants at the ankle and 8 of
244 10 participants at the knee, hip and shoulder) ($p < 0.05$). Six of 10 participants
245 significantly decreased ROM at the elbow and 7 of 10 participants at the wrist ($p <$
246 0.05). Eight of 10 participants significantly increased ROM of the CoM in the anterior-
247 posterior direction ($p < 0.05$) (Fig 2).

248 Changes in 'step' (PT02, PT04, PT05, PT06), 'trunk' (PT03, PT05, PT07,
249 PT08, PT09), 'humerus' (PT03, PT04, PT07, PT08, PT09) and 'forearm' action (PT03,
250 PT04, PT05, PT07, PT08, PT09) (Table 1) occurred at the same session as ROM for all
251 participants that changed action level. Six of 10 participants did not change 'step' action
252 from level 3 but did significantly increase lower limb ROM (Fig 3).

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Discussion

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The aim of this research was to investigate the evolution of changes in technique of the non-dominant overarm throw over practice with respect to three complementary approaches to qualitative and quantitative change of movement dynamics: Newell's (1985) stages of coordination, control and skill, the components model of overarm throwing (Robertson & Halverson, 1984), and Bernstein's (1967) hypothesis of freezing and freeing redundant mechanical degrees of freedom. A common single pathway of change in technique with practice was not present across participants. However, for individuals, the findings from the three measurement approaches did complement each other in revealing aspects of the skill progression. There were periods across the multiple practice sessions (4, 5, and 6) where each approach revealed distinct changes in the technique of the participants. Additionally, participants fell into certain subgroups in relation to particular characteristics of technique change, not an uncommon finding in the learning of whole-body motor skills (Williams, Irwin, Kerwin, & Newell, 2015; Teulier & Delignières, 2007; Haibach, Daniels & Newell, 2004); that are likely due to differences in individual constraints and intrinsic dynamics.

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

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Dynamical systems approaches to motor skill acquisition seek a macroscopic variable(s) that captures the essential properties of the structure and integrity of the movement pattern in action (Kelso, 1995; Mitra et al., 2002). The CoM represents a higher order, low dimensional global space variable that results from the muscle joint actions at the muscular-articular level (Haken, 1983). In this view, the relation between the movement of the CoM and the wrist as the end effector provides information of the

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277 macroscopic organization of the system in this throwing task and the link between
278 postural support and instrumental limb action (Verhoeven & Newell, 2016).

279 Two key coupling relations were observed. At the beginning of practice, all
280 participants demonstrated in-phase coupling at the start of the propulsive phase of the
281 throw, where the CoM and wrist both travelled forwards together, towards zero at ball
282 release (Fig 1). With practice, 7 of the 10 participants began to incorporate
283 differentiated movement of the CoM and wrist, where coupling began at 180° before
284 progressing to 0° at release. The strategy is representative of initial wrist-led coupling
285 where backwards movement of wrist is the predominant influencer on the kinematic
286 chain. Coupling progressed through anti-phase (forward movement of the CoM and
287 backwards movement of the wrist) and CoM-led coupling (forward movement of the
288 CoM) before in-phase coupling and forward wrist-led coupling at ball release (Fig 1).

289 This later strategy is in-line with dominant arm throws (Verhoeven & Newell,
290 2016; Ko, Han & Newell, 2018) and provides evidence for the freeing of dynamical
291 degree of freedom (Newell & Vaillancourt, 2001). Specifically, the macroscopic
292 organisation of the system has become more complex, utilising a broader range of phase
293 relations associated with the arm kinematic chain. While this macroscopic variable does
294 not describe the nuances of an individual's technique, it was able to capture a transition
295 in system organisation despite individual differences in organismic constraints that
296 effect joint space organisation.

297 In terms of Newell's (1985) learning stages, 3 of the 10 participants significantly
298 decreased coupling variability with practice, suggesting they had reached the control
299 stage of learning (Newell, 1985), while the remaining 7 participants significantly
300 increased coordination variability with practice suggesting they remained in the

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301 coordination stage (Table 2). With practice the coupling variability of 7 of the 10
302 participants became more similar to that of the dominant arm throws, through either an
303 increase or decrease in coupling variability. A paradox is then set since we can assume
304 variability across dominant arm throws is facilitating functional changes and exploiting
305 redundancy, whereas the variability in the non-dominant arm was used for exploring
306 new coupling strategies in the process of learning (Wilson, Simpson, Richard, Van
307 Emmerick & Hamill 2008; Verhoeven & Newell 2016).

308 To understand the kinematics underpinning the collective dynamic, technique
309 changes were examined using the components model (Robertson & Halverson, 1984)
310 and Bernstein's (1967) observations of freezing and freeing the redundant mechanical
311 degrees of freedom. Both these approaches provide a distinct description of the
312 movement pattern, and the findings provide support for changes demonstrated in CoM-
313 wrist coupling following practice.

314 **Components Model (Robertson and Halverson, 1984)**

315 To our knowledge this is the first paper to apply Robertson and Halverson (1984)
316 components model to non-dominant arm throwing in adults. As a foundation, the
317 participants did not start practice with a throwing technique at action level 1. This is
318 consistent with the expectations of motor learning and transfer (Adams, 1987), where
319 a previously learnt skill positively influences the learning of a new skill or a skill
320 performed with the other side of the body. For example, this finding is in line with those
321 of Aune, Aune, Ingvaldsen, and Vereijken (2017) who reported motor learning transfer
322 from the dominant arm to the non-dominant arm during a computer simulated tracking
323 task. More generally, our findings are consistent with the pattern of findings on cross-

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324 education of upper limb performance (Hore, Watts, Tweed, & Miller, 1996; Sainburg
325 & Kalakanis, 2000).

326 The findings showed that an advanced action level in one component did not
327 combine with lesser action levels in another component, arguably because the
328 advancement of one component drives forward the development of another component
329 (Langendorfer & Robertson, 2002). For example, taking a contralateral step places the
330 body in a position that progresses trunk and arm components (Stodden et al. 2006a).
331 Indeed, by the end of practice (Table 1) the throwing movement patterns were similar
332 to those reported by Stodden et al. (2006a,b) who used a cross sectional design to
333 explore developmental changes in dominant arm throwing in children. Stodden et al.'s
334 (2006a,b) participants were more advanced than those studied in Halverson et al.
335 (1982) and William et al. (1998), who examined longitudinal developmental changes
336 in children and older adults, respectively. Our results show that participants started non-
337 dominant arm practice with an intermediate developmental profile particularly for the
338 'humerus' and 'forearm' (Table 1).

339 At the end of practice, 7 of the 10 participants had not reached the highest 'step'
340 action level, suggesting the skill was not fully developed. The highest action level for
341 dominant arm throws was categorised by 6 of 10 participants for the 'step', 9 of 10
342 participants for the 'trunk' and 'humerus', and 8 of 10 participants for the 'forearm'
343 (Table 1). The advanced developmental profiles for the dominant arm suggest that non-
344 dominant arm throws can be directly compared to those of adults performing the
345 overarm throwing skill. Moreover, we would expect that if there was a longer period
346 of non-dominant arm practice participants would have continued to advance up the
347 action levels of components. As discussed later, these changes did, however, underpin

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348 the key change in CoM-wrist coupling described above but suggest that further
349 organisation changes at the level of components are still occurring at session 9.

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

351 In line with freeing mechanical degrees of freedom, seven of the 10 participants
352 produced an increase in lower limb and shoulder joint ROM with practice (Fig 3).
353 Specifically, a significant increase in ROM at the lower extremities and CoM occurred
354 along with the more advanced 'step' action (Table 1; Fig 2). Increased ROM of the
355 lower extremities facilitated increased displacement of the CoM, which provides
356 evidence for increased weight transfer in the act of throwing (Knudson & Morrison,
357 1996). The development of this fundamental aspect of throwing technique provides
358 evidence for freeing of the mechanical degrees of freedom at the lower limbs, consistent
359 with Bernstein's (1967) postulation.

360 Interestingly, ROM of the elbow and wrist significantly decreased for the
361 majority of participants with practice (Fig 3). In parallel, the majority of participants
362 were categorised in advanced action (Table 1) of 'humerus' and 'forearm' from the
363 beginning of practice. While no other research has analysed ROM for non-dominant
364 arm throwing, Southard (2006) reported that instructional cues positively influenced
365 segmental distal lag, specifically the hand relative to the forearm. When viewed in
366 conjunction with the components model (Robertson & Halverson, 1984) the ROM
367 results suggest that participants had the ability to effectively use the elbow and wrist
368 joint at the start of practice, and reducing ROM was a common strategy to adopt. This
369 finding provides support for the proposition of Hong and Newell (2006) that freezing
370 or freeing degrees of freedom is task specific, rather than a universal directional rule

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371 for skill learning, and furthers the proposition by suggesting that different limb
372 segments (arms or legs) may follow different patterns of change.

373 At the whole-body level, all participants showed a transition in technique that
374 was captured by a significant change in ROM of three or more joints during one single
375 session. However, the combination of joints involved was individual specific, not an
376 uncommon finding in motor learning literature (Williams, Irwin, Kerwin, & Newell,
377 2015; Teulier & Delignières, 2007; Haibach, Daniels & Newell, 2004). A drawback of
378 describing technique change through individual degrees of freedom is the inability to
379 explore how these joints are coordinated. Since the timing and the combinations of
380 joints involved in change were individual specific, it is of interest to investigate whether
381 a measure of inter-joint coordination would capture common characteristics of
382 technique change in spite individual constraints and intrinsic dynamics.

383 **Integrating Frameworks to the Acquisition of Overarm Throwing**

384 Exploring different levels of the system is related to different theoretical
385 propositions on motor control (Schoner & Kelso, 1988; Hong & Newell, 2004; Gray,
386 Watts, Debicki, & Hore, 2006). Emphasising a collective variable is based on the
387 theoretical proposition that motor control is associated with overall system dynamics
388 rather than the control of individual degrees of freedom (Ko et al., 2014; Wang et al.
389 2014; Dutt-Mazumder et al. 2016). Arguably, the components model (Robertson &
390 Halverson 1984) provides collective variables through the hypothesis of four
391 components, however, this model is skill specific and cannot be generalised across
392 movement tasks. In supporting these different emphases on system organisation, our
393 findings suggest that a more complex CoM-wrist coupling is achieved by taking a
394 contralateral step in the throwing action which is associated with greater ROM of the

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395 lower extremities. Thus, in increasing the complexity of the collective dynamics,
396 participants followed the sequence of components change in the Robertson and
397 Halverson (1984) components model, while Bernstein's (1967) postulation of freeing
398 mechanical degrees of freedom was limb specific. Founded on Newell's (1985) stage
399 of learning collective dynamics did change, however variability of this collective
400 dynamic was not clearly directional. Overall, a higher order variable was better able to
401 identify commonalities in technique change across individuals than single joint
402 motions, and therefore, might be key to understanding the dynamics of technique
403 change across different task and organismic constraints from a dynamical systems
404 theory perspective.

405 From an applied perspective, the integration of the three approaches provide a
406 comprehensive view of technique changes during overarm throwing action because
407 each approach explores a different aspect of the system organization that can be
408 practically relevant. This study has revealed experimental evidence of the progression
409 of individual technique changes during non-dominant overarm throwing. The findings
410 highlight the importance of the lower extremities and dynamic postural control in what
411 is usually characterised as an upper extremity action. Specifically, the ability to take a
412 contralateral step to facilitate greater ROM of the lower extremities and CoM
413 movement in weight transfer.

414 Future work could explore the coordination between multiple joint segments
415 during learning. In addition, future work is required to explore the extent to which these
416 three complimentary approaches characterise technique development in overarm
417 throwing across childhood.

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525

List of Figure and Table Headings

526 **Figure 1.** *CoM-wrist coupling for single trial per session for PT06 (representative of PT03, PT04,*
527 *PT05, PT08, PT09 and PT10) and PT07 (representative of PT01 and PT02).*

528

529 **Figure 2.** *Representation of group changes in range of motion of the joints and centre of mass during*
530 *3-weeks of practice.*

531

532 **Figure 3.** *Group ROM development at the right ankle, knee, hip, left shoulder, elbow and wrist joint*
533 *during practice. A general trend showed significant increase in ROM of the lower limb joints and*
534 *shoulder with practice (9 of 10 participants at the ankle and 8 of 10 participants at the knee, hip and*
535 *shoulder) ($p < 0.05$). Six of 10 participants significantly decreased ROM at the elbow and 7 of 10*
536 *participants at the wrist ($p < 0.05$). Eight of 10 participants significantly increased ROM of the CoM*
537 *in the anterior-posterior direction ($p < 0.05$) (Fig 1.).*

538

539 *Changes in 'step' (PT02, PT04, PT05, PT06), 'trunk' (PT03, PT05, PT07, PT08, PT09), 'humerus'*
540 *(PT03, PT04, PT07, PT08, PT09) and 'forearm' action (PT03, PT04, PT05, PT07, PT08, PT09) (Table*
541 *1.) occurred at the same session as ROM for all participants that changed action level. Six of 10*
542 *participants did not change 'step' action from level 3 but did significantly increase lower limb ROM*
543 *(Fig 2.).*

544

545 **Table 1.** *Developmental action level with practice.*

546 **Table 2.** *Coupling variability with practice for CoM-wrist.*

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