

# Motor Control Theories

## Lecture Week 7

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### Previous Lecture

- In the previous lecture, you were introduced to the theories of Sequencing and Timing in Motor Control.
- In this lecture, you will be introduced to three (newer) more traditional theories:
  1. Generalized Motor Programs theory
  2. Dynamical Systems theory
  3. Optimization theory

Welcome back, everyone. Last time, we looked at how the motor system controls the precise order and timing of our movements. We explored how each small movement is organized and managed, whether you're playing a musical instrument or doing a dance routine.

Today, we're changing focus to look at three key ideas that provide better understanding of why and how movements happen the way they do. We'll start with Generalized Motor Programs theory, to see how general movement patterns guide our actions. Then, we'll check out the Dynamical Systems theory, which highlights how changes in conditions can suddenly change movement patterns. Lastly, we'll talk about Optimization theory, which suggests that our motor system chooses movement strategies by balancing costs like accuracy, speed, or energy usage. Together, these theories give us a clearer view of motor control, building on what you learned about order and timing in our last session.

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## 1. Introduction to Theories of Motor Control

- Overview of three main perspectives on motor control
- Highlight practical examples from sports, rehabilitation, and everyday activities
- Emphasize the importance of understanding different theoretical frameworks

So, let's start our discussion of Motor Control theories. In this session, we will examine three important viewpoints: Generalized Motor Programs, Dynamic Systems Theory, and Optimization Theory. Each of these frameworks provides unique insights into how we organize, carry out, and improve our movements.

We will start by examining Generalized Motor Programs (GMP), which focus on general patterns of movement and how they are changed for new situations. Next, we will move to Dynamic Systems Theory, which explains how stable patterns emerge—or suddenly shift—due to interactions between the body, the environment, and the task at hand. Finally, we will discuss Optimization Theory, which examines how the central nervous system chooses movement strategies by balancing costs like energy use, accuracy, or speed.

Throughout, we will draw examples from sports, physical therapy, and everyday motor tasks to show how these theories help us understand skill learning, rehabilitation, and performance improvement. By the end of this talk, you should have a clearer understanding of each theory's strengths, where they differ, and how they can be applied in practical situations.

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### 1.1 Introduction to GMP

- Closed-loop theory explains specificity of practice
- Doesn't account for skill generalization
- A basketball player shooting from different court positions

Welcome to our first major topic: Generalized Motor Programs, or GMPs. From the readings, you might remember that Adams' closed-loop theory highlights how repeated practice and feedback narrow our movement patterns, explaining the importance of practice. However, as the chapter points out, closed-loop processes alone struggle to explain how people easily adjust to new or slightly different situations—this is where skill generalization becomes important.

A simple example, drawn from various athletic situations, is a basketball player who has spent hours practicing free throws from the foul line. Although the player's practice took place

mostly at one spot on the court, they can still perform a well-coordinated jump shot from the baseline or the three-point line. According to GMP theory, this is because the player’s motor program for shooting a basketball is not limited to just one spot on the court. Instead, they have developed a more flexible, generalized idea of the shooting action. This stronger pattern enables them to adjust their technique—changing distance, force, and angle—across different game situations.

In upcoming slides, we’ll see how GMP theory builds on the strengths of closed-loop explanations while adding the key idea of movement templates. This concept allows for variety in practice and movement execution, giving insight into why someone can shoot, pass, or dribble with relative ease in new conditions.

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## 1.2 Schemas and Generalized Programs

- Knowledge structures instantiated in different ways
- Parameters affect the forms that actions take
- Accounts for variability and novelty of performance
- Explains consistency in movement patterns

Schemas and generalized motor programs, help us understand how individuals can take a learned skill—such as shooting a basketball or writing their signature—and flexibly adapt it to new situations. From the chapter, you might recall that schemas are broad “knowledge structures” formed through repeated experiences. Each time we perform a movement, we gather information about initial conditions, movement outcomes, and sensory feedback, all of which contribute to a schema.

A “generalized program” is... essentially a schema for a specific class of actions, complete with adjustable parameters. For instance, in handwriting, regardless of the size or speed at which you write, certain fundamental features of your pen strokes remain consistent. In sports, consider a soccer player’s pass—the core movement pattern remains the same, but the exact force and angle are adjusted to accommodate the required distance or speed.

This approach not only accounts for variability and novelty in performance (we can adapt without having practiced every possible variation), but it also explains how individual movement patterns remain remarkably consistent over time. Whether we’re shooting a basketball from the free-throw line or the three-point line. Or whether we’re signing our name on a large poster or a small notepad, the generalized program remains the same while the parameters are recalibrated to fit the context.

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### 1.3 Advantages of Schemas and Generalized Programs

- Reduces the number of distinct programs in memory
- Core set of programs maintained
- Parameters tailored to immediate task demands
- Experiment on choosing between movement sequences

One of the most significant benefits of schemas and generalized programs is that they minimize the need to store a unique motor program for every possible movement sequence. Instead, the motor system maintains a core set of programs that can be adapted by altering specific parameters—much like adding details to a basic template. This approach is efficient and explains how individuals can quickly shift between different tasks without learning each one from scratch.

An interesting experiment highlighted in the text further illustrates this principle: College students were asked to perform finger-tapping sequences with their left or right hand, guided by a visual signal. When the two possible sequences were mirror images of each other, their response times were notably shorter compared to when the sequences differed in more complex ways. The takeaway is that if the generalized program only needs to adjust a single parameter—such as switching from left to right—it can respond quickly. However, if an entirely different pattern of finger movement is required, the system must specify multiple parameters, resulting in a longer response time.

This finding supports the idea that schemas and generalized motor programs enable the motor system to function flexibly yet efficiently. By storing a manageable number of “core” programs and fine-tuning them through parameter changes, individuals can adapt to a wide range of tasks—like switching between different piano chords or executing a mirrored dance routine—without the heavy cognitive load of memorizing a separate program for every new variation.

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### 1.4 Parameter Setting in GMP

- Generalized program with ordered finger tap instructions
- Parameter for left or right hand

- Additional parameter for non-mirror image sequences
- Specifying extra parameters takes more time

Here, we see how generalized motor programs (GMPs) become more flexible—or more time-consuming—depending on how many parameters we need to specify. In the experiment described in the reading, the researchers looked at finger-tapping sequences in which participants decided whether to use their left or right hand. If the two tapping sequences were mirror images of each other, only a single parameter—left or right hand—had to be adjusted. Because the motor system simply “flipped” the sequence, it made the choice much faster.

However, when the two sequences were not mirror images, additional parameters came into play—like exactly which finger taps were required in the sequence. As a result, participants needed more time to set these extra parameters before executing the movement. This finding underscores one of the key advantages of GMPs: They’re efficient when only one or two parameters need to be changed, but as soon as more variables have to be specified, the response time naturally increases.

Think of it like customizing a basic recipe: If you only need to decide whether to add sugar or salt, that’s easy. But if you also have to choose different spices, cooking temperatures, and so on, it takes longer to finalize your decision. In the same way, our motor system can rapidly “flip” a known pattern (mirror image) but must slow down when configuring multiple or more detailed parameters.

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## 1.5 Predictions of Generalized Program Theory

- Variable practice leads to better transfer than consistent practice
- Consistent practice: practice on one task
- Variable practice: practice on a range of related tasks
- Surprising prediction, but supported by data

From the chapter, we learn that focusing on a single task repetitively—often called “consistent practice”—seems intuitively beneficial, but research shows that “variable practice” can lead to more robust skill transfer. In other words, by practicing multiple related tasks, learners develop a more adaptable generalized motor program capable of handling new or slightly altered conditions.

A memorable example detailed in the literature involves children practicing with beanbags of varying weights. Those who practiced throwing different weights were better at adapting to

a brand-new weight than those who had only practiced with a single weight. The flexibility gained from variable practice enhances our capacity to “tune” parameters for novel situations—like adjusting throwing force or release angle when encountering a new object or distance.

Although it may appear paradoxical that doing many variations could outperform sheer repetition of one task, variable practice encourages the formation of abstract movement schemas. Consequently, these schemas can be applied more readily to new but related tasks. This finding is especially relevant in fields like physical therapy or athletics, where diversity in training often promotes quicker recovery or improved performance under changing conditions.

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## 1.6 Benefits of Variable Practice

- Forming an “average” representation of experiences
- Average more stable with randomly presented instances
- Running average example with numbers
- Greater stability leads to better learning

Building on the concept of variable practice, one plausible explanation for its benefits is that we develop an “average” of our experiences—much like computing a running average of numbers. According to the chapter, when these practice instances (or numbers in an example) are presented in a random order, the running average that our motor system constructs becomes more robust and less influenced by any single instance. As a result, the representation of the skill stabilizes, leading to improved long-term performance and transfer to new tasks.

For instance, consider a tennis player practicing various serve placements: wide, down the middle, or into the body. In the variable (random) approach, they frequently switch targets, forcing themselves to continuously adapt. This challenge results in a more “flexible” serving schema—similar to constantly updating that running average. Meanwhile, the player’s short-term performance may appear good in a blocked approach (repetitively serving to one spot before moving on). Still, they do not develop the same level of adaptability.

When it’s match time and the player must serve to multiple spots in quick succession, the athlete with a more stable, “averaged” representation from variable practice can more easily adjust. They have essentially trained their motor program to handle changing conditions and demands. In contrast, the player who practiced in a strictly blocked manner may find the sudden switches more challenging. In this regard, variable practice not only enhances adaptability but also fosters the kind of cognitive-motor flexibility that is vital for effective sports performance.

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## 1.7 Conclusion on GMP

- GMP's predictive power highlights the importance of practice variability
- Variable practice enhances skill transfer more effectively than consistent practice

Generalized Motor Program (GMP) theory offers a powerful lens through which we can understand how movements are learned and adapted across different contexts. As we've seen throughout these slides, a key insight is that variable practice—practicing a range of related tasks—promotes more robust skill transfer than simply repeating the same task over and over. By challenging learners to adjust parameters in new ways, variable practice helps shape a flexible motor program that can adapt to novel demands.

This perspective has significant applications. In sports training, for instance, incorporating diverse drills rather than focusing on a single repetitive movement can help athletes quickly adjust to different game situations. Similarly, in rehabilitation settings, therapists might use variable practice strategies to foster more generalized motor improvements, ensuring that patients can adapt their movements in daily life. By developing a deeper understanding of GMPs and the value of variable practice, educators, coaches, and clinicians can more effectively promote long-term learning and motor skill development.

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## 1.8 Generalized Motor Program (GMP) Theory: Key Takeaways

- GMPs are abstract representations of movement patterns
- They can be adapted to specific tasks by adjusting parameters
- Schema theory suggests that practicing variations of a task leads to the development of a more flexible and adaptable GMP
- Variable practice enhances transfer of learning to novel situations
- Contextual interference during practice facilitates the development of robust GMPs

By now, we've seen how Generalized Motor Programs (GMPs) serve as abstract templates for movement. Rather than storing every possible variation of a skill, the motor system keeps a

framework that can be “fine-tuned” via specific parameters—like speed, force, or direction—so we can adapt quickly to new demands. This aligns with schema theory, which emphasizes that practicing a variety of related tasks helps build a more flexible and easily updated motor representation.

One key takeaway is the strong evidence showing that variable practice (where tasks are mixed up) supports better long-term transfer than repetitive, consistent practice. Contextual interference—introducing random or unpredictable changes to the order of tasks—can also strengthen these programs, making our motor skills more resilient under real-world conditions. Think about volleyball drills where you alternate serves, sets, and spikes in random sequences: even though it feels harder at first, this approach ultimately develops a more robust, generalized pattern of movement.

Overall, GMP theory provides a compelling explanation for how our motor system remains both efficient—storing fewer, more abstract “programs”—and adaptive, ready to tackle new challenges with only minor adjustments.

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## 2.1 Introduction to Dynamical Systems Theory

- Approach to studying time-varying systems
- State of the system at a given time is a function of earlier states
- System operates under a regime characterized by an attractor
- Regimes have underlying equations

Dynamical Systems Theory, as discussed in our reading, offers a framework for understanding how complex systems evolve and change over time. Rather than viewing movements as pre-set, stored programs, this approach emphasizes that the system’s current state depends on its previous states—often described mathematically through differential equations or other formal models. In simpler terms, it’s like saying your position on the dance floor right now is partly influenced by where you just were, how fast you were moving, and the feedback you received from the music or your partner’s movements.

A key concept here is the notion of an “attractor,” which is a stable, preferred state or pattern that the system naturally “gravitates” toward under certain conditions. In human movement, an attractor might be a well-coordinated gait pattern in walking or running. For instance, when you increase your walking speed gradually, at some point you spontaneously switch to a running pattern—this running pattern can be thought of as an attractor that emerges due to changes in speed and body constraints.



These attractor regimes are underpinned by mathematical principles. By defining certain equations or rules (sometimes referred to as “control parameters”), researchers can predict when a system is likely to shift from one attractor state to another. This approach has important implications for fields like physical therapy, sports training, and even motor development in children—situations where we want to guide or influence the natural dynamics of movement coordination. Whether it’s helping a stroke patient regain a stable walking pattern or training a sprinter to move more efficiently, understanding the “time-varying” properties and attractor landscapes can lead to more targeted and effective interventions.

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## 2.2 Complexity and Unpredictability in Dynamical Systems

- Simple equations can lead to complex events
- Nonlinear equations can result in unpredictable outcomes
- Deterministic systems can still produce dramatically different results
- Applications in meteorology, finance, and human motor control

One of the most remarkable insights from Dynamical Systems Theory is that even small changes can lead to large, unexpected outcomes—especially in systems governed by nonlinear rules. You might have heard this referred to as the “butterfly effect,” a term coined by Edward Lorenz when he discovered that minuscule differences in initial conditions dramatically altered long-term weather simulations. The fact that these effects emerge in deterministic systems, which theoretically follow strict cause-and-effect relationships, underscores just how sensitive such systems can be to minor fluctuations.

While the “butterfly effect” is famously associated with weather prediction, its reach extends far beyond meteorology. In fields like finance, small variances in trading decisions or market conditions can cascade into large-scale shifts in economic trends. Similarly, in human motor control, subtle changes in the timing or force of muscle activation can lead to notably different movement outcomes or coordination patterns over time.

This phenomenon prompts a shift in how we study and manage complex phenomena: rather than attempting to predict exact states far into the future, researchers often focus on broader patterns, attractors, or stability regions that characterize a system’s behavior. This approach has significantly influenced our understanding of learning and skill acquisition as well. It highlights that progress isn’t always linear; small changes—like a new training drill or a subtle shift in technique—can generate major shifts in performance when amplified by the underlying dynamics of the motor system.

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## 2.3 The Two-Finger Oscillation Task

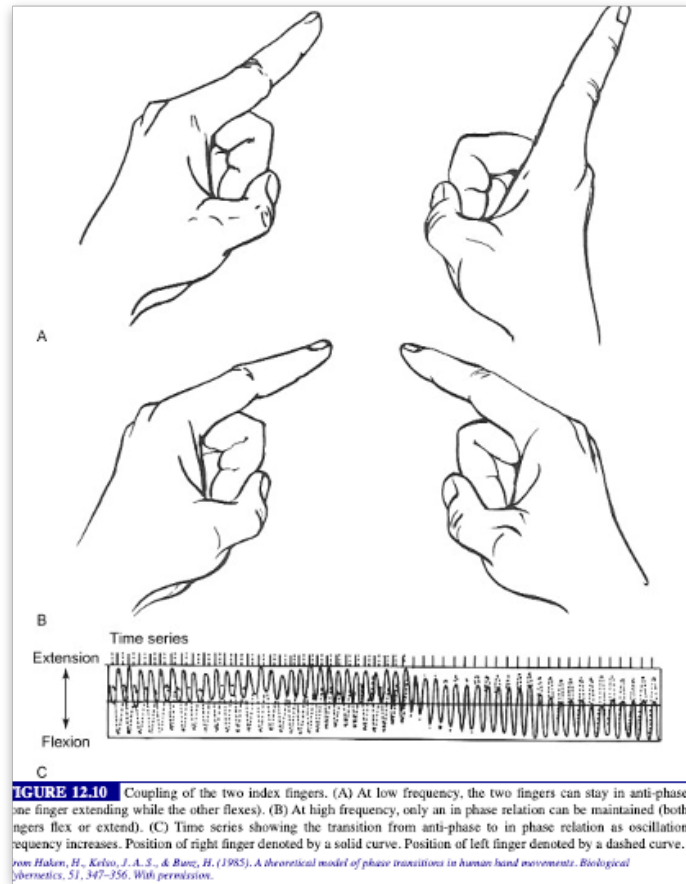


Figure 1: Two-Finger Oscillation Task

- Landmark study by Haken, Kelso, and Bunz (1985)
- Participants extend index fingers back and forth in time with a metronome
- At high frequencies, fingers suddenly point in the same direction
- Descriptive explanation using relative phase and potential energy landscape

One of the most iconic demonstrations of Dynamical Systems Theory in motor control is the two-finger oscillation task, first explored by Cohen and later modeled by Haken, Kelso, and Bunz. In this task, participants move their index fingers back and forth in time with a metronome—initially maintaining an “anti-phase” pattern in which each finger points in opposite directions. However, when the metronome’s frequency increases beyond a certain threshold, participants spontaneously switch to an “in-phase” pattern, where both fingers point in the same direction.

This abrupt shift, often termed a “phase transition,” is a prime example of how the coordination of movements can spontaneously reorganize under changing constraints. The HKB model explains this phenomenon using a concept known as a potential energy landscape. At lower frequencies, two stable states (in-phase and anti-phase) are both accessible, but anti-phase gradually loses stability as speed increases. Eventually, the system “falls” into the in-phase state, a more stable attractor at higher frequencies.

Importantly, once the fingers switch to in-phase, participants rarely revert back to anti-phase unless the frequency is lowered again—demonstrating how some attractor states become more dominant under certain conditions. This key insight shows that our motor system is not simply executing pre-planned instructions. Instead, it behaves like a self-organizing system, constantly adjusting in response to internal and external constraints.

Beyond fingers, similar phase-transition phenomena have been observed in activities like coordination between arms, legs, or even group dynamics in sports. These findings underscore the broad explanatory power of Dynamical Systems Theory for understanding how complex movement patterns emerge, stabilize, and shift due to seemingly small changes in task demands or environmental factors.

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## 2.4 The Haken–Kelso–Bunz Equation

- Describes the regime of the two-finger oscillation task
- Potential energy landscape changes with the ratio  $b/a$
- System can be in two stable states:  $\Phi = 180^\circ$  ( $b/a = 1$ ) and  $\Phi = 0^\circ$  ( $b/a = 0.125$ )
- Accounts for the observed behavior in the task

The Haken–Kelso–Bunz (HKB) equation provides a succinct mathematical model for understanding how coordination patterns emerge and shift in tasks like the two-finger oscillation experiment. Essentially, it specifies a potential energy function in terms of the relative phase

( $\Phi$ ) between two moving fingers and uses the ratio of two parameters— $b$  and  $a$ —to capture how stable each coordination pattern is.

When the ratio  $b/a$  changes, the shape of the potential energy landscape is altered, affecting which coordination pattern (in-phase at  $\Phi = 0^\circ$  or anti-phase at  $\Phi = 180^\circ$ ) is more stable. At lower speeds (or lower  $b/a$  ratios), both patterns can coexist, but as speed increases—or as  $b/a$  passes a critical threshold—the anti-phase pattern loses stability, and the system spontaneously transitions to an in-phase pattern.

What makes this model so valuable is that it clearly links a mathematically specified landscape (the potential function) to the observable behavioral shift people demonstrate in real time. While we used finger movements here as a simple demonstration, the same principles help explain the emergence and disruption of stable movement patterns in many other contexts. For instance, small changes in running speed or cycling cadence can tip the system from one well-coordinated gait into another, much like flicking a switch.

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## 2.5 Applying Dynamical Systems Theory

- Uncovering underlying equations for various tasks
- Connecting equation terms to causal mechanisms
- Examples: rhythmic tapping, two-handed pendulum swinging
- Cognitive factors can be expressed within the equations

Dynamical Systems Theory has proven remarkably flexible, finding applications well beyond the simple two-finger oscillation task. Researchers often aim to identify or develop mathematical models whose terms correspond to meaningful causal influences—such as excitatory or inhibitory connections between neural oscillators in rhythmic tapping tasks. This approach allows us to see how small shifts in neural dynamics can lead to large, observable changes in movement timing or coordination.

In more physically rooted tasks, like swinging two handheld pendulums, the governing equations stem from classical physics principles—gravity, mass, torque—and the patterns of coupling between the hands. Yet, what makes Dynamical Systems Theory particularly powerful is its ability to incorporate cognitive elements as well. For instance, a person’s intention to synchronize pendulum swings or coordinate them in antiphase could be conceptualized as shifting a parameter in the model—perhaps similar to changing the ratio of “excitatory” to “inhibitory” effects in a neural circuit.

By embedding cognitive factors into these models, we start to capture not only the external mechanics but also the internal decision-making or attentional processes that shape how movements unfold over time. Whether it's explaining why a drummer locks into a groove with perfect timing or understanding how a dancer synchronizes limbs in a complex routine, Dynamical Systems Theory offers a framework to account for both the physical and psychological underpinnings of coordinated behavior.

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## 2.6 Practical Applications of Dynamical Systems Theory

- Analyzing fluctuations of time intervals between events
- Cardiac health: perfectly regular heartbeat may indicate illness
- Gait analysis: distinguishing elderly people likely to fall, Parkinson's patients likely to freeze
- Cognitive load during walking: subtracting by 7s while walking
- Mathematical techniques for carrying out these analyses

Dynamical Systems Theory offers powerful tools for examining how small variations in behavior can reveal critical information about health and performance. One illustrative example is cardiac function: contrary to what one might assume, a heartbeat that's "too regular" can indicate a lack of physiological adaptability, suggesting illness or an impaired cardiovascular system. Researchers measure heart rate variability—a key indicator of a healthy, responsive heart—and interpret it using principles of Dynamical Systems Theory.

In mobility studies, clinicians apply the theory to gait analysis to pinpoint individuals at risk for falls or sudden movement freezes. For example, older adults who exhibit less variability in their stride lengths or timing are often found to be at higher risk for falls, while Parkinson's patients prone to "freezing" display distinct fluctuations in their gait cycles. By quantifying these time-series data, practitioners can intervene sooner and tailor therapies to improve stability and coordination.

Cognitive load also factors into how we move. Take a simple scenario: asking someone to subtract by 7s while walking. Dynamical analyses of gait fluctuations—like stride-to-stride intervals—can disclose how the extra mental task changes movement patterns. If those intervals become more rigid or erratic, it suggests that the cognitive resources needed for subtraction reduce the brain's capacity to maintain the usual fine-tuned control of walking.

These examples underscore the broad applicability of Dynamical Systems Theory. By focusing on variability and time-series data, researchers and clinicians gain insights that often go unnoticed by traditional measurements. Moreover, the mathematical techniques—ranging from phase-space reconstructions to fractal analyses—open new doors for personalized diagnostics and targeted interventions in fields like cardiology, neurology, physical therapy, and beyond.

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## 2.7 Dynamical Systems Theory: Key Takeaways

1. Focuses on the self-organizing principles governing the coordination of complex movements
2. Emphasizes the role of stability, instability, and phase transitions in motor control
3. Demonstrates how simple rules can give rise to complex, emergent behaviors
4. Has been successfully applied to understanding coordination dynamics in various tasks, such as bimanual coordination and gait
5. Offers a framework for analyzing and predicting complex motor behaviors based on their temporal dynamics and variability

Dynamical Systems Theory has expanded our view of motor control by illustrating how patterns emerge spontaneously from the interplay of system components—muscles, joints, neural signals, and even environmental constraints. Rather than relying on a single, central “controller,” this theory posits that stability and coordination can arise via self-organization, much like birds flocking together in intricate formations without a designated leader.

By investigating phenomena such as phase transitions, we see how a movement pattern can shift abruptly with changes in speed or other control parameters. Think of someone gradually increasing their walking speed until, at a critical point, they seamlessly transition to a jog or run. This switch to a new “attractor” state—running—mirrors the in-phase versus anti-phase transitions observed in the two-finger oscillation task.

Moreover, this theoretical lens isn’t limited to finger-wiggling demonstrations. Dynamical Systems Theory has proven vital in understanding everything from how pianists coordinate their hands to how runners maintain a stable gait pattern over uneven terrain. Researchers also employ it to examine heart rate variability—a measure linked to overall cardiovascular health—and to assess fall risk by analyzing subtle fluctuations in stride timing among elderly individuals.

As a unifying framework, Dynamical Systems Theory encourages us to focus on the “temporal dynamics” of behavior: how motion evolves from moment to moment and how even seemingly minor alterations can lead to large-scale changes in the overall movement pattern. This approach has opened up new possibilities for both research and practice in motor control, informing how we design rehabilitation protocols for stroke patients, structure athletic training regimens, and even study the interplay between cognitive load and fine motor performance.

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### 3.1 Introduction to Optimization Theory

- Maximizing or minimizing variables in human motor control
- “Running a body” – moving arms, legs, eyes, mouth, and maintaining stability
- Optimization as the cornerstone of motor control
- Dominant approach in theorizing about motor control

A central theme in Optimization Theory is that the motor system behaves like a problem-solver, constantly seeking the most “cost-effective” way to achieve movement goals. Just as a business tries to maximize profits while reducing expenses, our bodies aim to minimize energy use, reduce fatigue, or optimize accuracy when performing tasks. For example, when reaching for a cup on a table, the brain doesn’t randomly activate muscles; it chooses a movement path and muscle activation pattern that balances speed, efficiency, and accuracy.

This principle can extend to a variety of tasks: running, throwing a ball, or playing a musical instrument. In each scenario, the motor system “tests” possible solutions (either implicitly through trial-and-error or guided by past experiences) and updates its strategies to refine performance. This quest for an optimal solution can occur at multiple levels—ranging from high-level planning (e.g., choosing the right angle to release a basketball shot) to subtle adjustments in muscle recruitment (e.g., controlling individual fingers on a piano keyboard).

Many different optimization criteria have been proposed, including minimizing jerk (sudden changes in acceleration), minimizing overall energy, or minimizing movement time. Which criterion becomes most relevant often depends on the specific demands of the task, the environment, and the individual’s goals or skill level. Although pinpointing the exact objective function the brain uses can be tricky, Optimization Theory remains highly influential in explaining how people coordinate their movements so effectively—despite the body’s immense complexity.

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### 3.2 Examples of Optimization Criteria

- Smoothness of movement (minimum jerk principle)
- Minimizing movement time in Fitts' aiming task
- Optimized submovement model (Meyer et al., 1988)
- Minimizing movement endpoint variance (Harris & Wolpert, 1998)

When we think about Optimization Theory in motor control, a core idea is that the central nervous system picks the “best” solution from multiple possible movement strategies. Each solution reflects a different optimization goal or cost function. For instance, one commonly studied goal is *smoothness*, measured as the reduction of “jerk” (the rate of change in acceleration). This *minimum jerk principle* often predicts the graceful, curved trajectories we see when we reach for objects or move a pen across paper.

Another line of research focuses on *minimizing movement time*, as illustrated by Fitts' aiming task. According to Fitts' law, there's a trade-off between movement speed and accuracy: reaching for a smaller or farther target tends to slow us down. Optimization models formalize this by suggesting that the motor system balances the desire for speed with the requirement to land on the target accurately.

Building on this idea, the *optimized submovement model* proposed by Meyer et al. suggests that we don't necessarily complete a single, continuous reach. Instead, we often perform a series of smaller, faster “submovements,” each one honing in on the target. These submovements are planned based on how much error we can tolerate at each step—minimizing the total time while maintaining a certain level of accuracy.

Lastly, the work of Harris and Wolpert addresses a key aspect of neural control known as *signal-dependent noise*. Essentially, the faster or more forceful the movement, the greater the variance in the final position. According to their model, the motor system chooses a velocity profile that strikes a balance between speed and the inherent variability (noise) in muscle commands. The resulting bell-shaped speed curve helps minimize endpoint variance.

All these examples underscore the power of Optimization Theory to unify diverse aspects of motor control under one framework. Whether we're talking about the fluidity of reaching, the speed-accuracy trade-off, or the interplay of movement speed and muscle noise, the consistent theme is that the motor system seems to search for a “cost-minimized” way to achieve its goal.

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### 3.3 Issues in Optimization Approach

- Determining which variable(s) are optimized
- Optimization criteria change depending on the task
- Flexibility in defining task goals is the essence of motor control
- Switching between tasks may involve re-ranking or re-weighting optimization criteria

One of the main challenges for Optimization Theory in motor control is pinpointing exactly what the motor system is trying to “optimize.” While some tasks—like a speed-focused sprint—may clearly prioritize minimum movement time, many real-world movements hinge on multiple, sometimes conflicting, goals. Think of painting a fine line: you might want to paint it quickly, but you also want it to be smooth and aesthetically pleasing, which can shift the emphasis away from raw speed toward precision or fluidity.

This flexibility to redefine goals is a hallmark of human motor control. Athletes regularly switch from one objective to another—say, from practicing fast footwork in soccer to working on precise corner kicks. Each task demands a different set of optimization criteria, and re-configuring the motor system to meet those new demands can come with a “switching cost,” evident in initial performance dips as the brain updates its internal models and adjusts muscle activation patterns.

Additionally, individuals differ in how they weigh these optimization criteria, shaped by experience, physical constraints, and immediate situational factors like fatigue or urgency. In learning contexts, the ability to dynamically re-rank these criteria enables gradual refinement of skills. Over time, as the motor system explores various movement strategies, it converges on solutions that best fit each unique task goal or environment.

Researchers continue to investigate how the brain manages this process. Do we have an internal library of optimization “rules,” or are these strategies selected on the fly based on sensorimotor feedback and cognitive constraints? Though the details remain under active study, the overarching message is clear: human motor control is highly adaptable, constantly juggling different cost functions, which underscores both the promise and complexity of applying Optimization Theory to real-life movements.

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### 3.4 Parsimony in Optimization Theories

- Ockham’s razor: “Plurality should not be posited without necessity”

- Tradeoff between theory simplicity and complexity of explained phenomena
- Theory space: theory complexity vs. number of explained phenomena
- Striving for the upper left region (“holy grail”) of theory space

Parsimony—keeping theories as simple as possible—serves as a guiding principle in developing optimization frameworks. Ockham’s razor reminds us not to pile on extra assumptions unless they’re truly needed. Yet, in motor control, we face a real balancing act: if a theory is too simple, it might not capture the nuances of human movement; if it’s too intricate, it risks becoming unwieldy or overly tailored to specific scenarios.

We can envision a “theory space” where one axis represents how many phenomena a theory explains (its explanatory breadth) and the other reflects its complexity (like the number of parameters, assumptions, or equations). In an ideal world, we’d station ourselves in the “upper left” corner of that space, where we account for many aspects of behavior with very few assumptions. But in practice, theories often drift away from that sweet spot as researchers refine models to handle new data or unanticipated exceptions.

This compromise between simplicity and thoroughness isn’t unique to motor control. The same tension is present in biology, physics, psychology—virtually any scientific discipline. Our goal is to craft theories elegant enough to illuminate the core principles of movement, yet robust enough to accommodate real-world variability. It’s a tall order, but it’s precisely what makes the pursuit of parsimonious, yet comprehensive, optimization theories so engaging—and so necessary—for advancing our understanding of motor behavior.

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### 3.5 Keyframes and Interframes in Motor Control

- Analogy to computer animation and cartoon animation
- Goal postures as keyframes, series of postures as interframes
- Criteria for determining goal postures and movements to goal postures
- Avoiding obstacles, minimizing rotation of costly joints

A helpful way to visualize how the motor system plans movements is by drawing on the concept of keyframes and interframes in animation. In animation, the keyframes are the major, defining positions of a character or object, while the interframes fill in the transition between these significant poses. Translating that idea to motor control, we can imagine that

our body uses “goal postures” (keyframes) for critical points in a movement and then rapidly interpolates the intermediate positions (interframes) en route to each goal.

For example, reaching for a cup on a cluttered table might have a few main postural landmarks: start position, an “elevated elbow” posture to clear obstacles, and the final posture grasping the cup. Between these keyframes, the motor system calculates a sequence of joint configurations—much like the automated in-between frames of a digital animation. Each joint’s rotation and path are determined by cost factors such as energy, speed, or the need to avoid hitting objects. In practice, we rarely think consciously about each step of this interpolation; the central nervous system is adept at evaluating and selecting efficient “in-between” movements automatically, while accounting for constraints like obstacle avoidance or fatigue.

Not every movement demands the same optimization criteria. Some tasks require minimal exertion, while others emphasize speed or precision. By flexibly adjusting which variables are most important at any moment—like how an animator chooses the main dramatic poses and then fine-tunes the transitions—the human motor system can gracefully adapt to a vast range of movement challenges.

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### 3.6 Simulations and Predictions of the Optimization Theory

- Adaptive changes in performance through simple means
- Complex reach-and-grasp movements with obstacle avoidance
- Multiple optimization criteria for obstacle-avoiding movements vs. direct reaches
- Successful simulations and predictions/post-dictions of data
- Promise for future theorizing about human motor control

Researchers using optimization-based models have demonstrated that subtle modifications—like increasing the “cost” of rotating a certain joint—can evoke significant and adaptive changes in movement. For instance, if the system “learns” that twisting the wrist is more energy-expensive or fatigue-inducing, the model will shift to solutions favoring less wrist rotation. These simulations offer a glimpse into how, in real life, your body might adapt its movement when injured or fatigued.

Moreover, the scope of these simulations extends to more challenging tasks, such as reaching for a cup in a crowded cupboard without knocking anything over. Avoiding obstacles often demands extra constraints—like keeping a certain clearance from fragile objects or stabilizing

liquids. It's no surprise, then, that young children, who may have fine-tuned the basic reach-and-grasp action, still spill milk when obstacles or additional constraints are introduced. Their motor system hasn't yet optimized for this new set of criteria.

The fact that these optimization models can not only “predict” outcomes in novel tasks but also retrospectively “explain” existing data (often called post-diction) highlights their power. As we incorporate more precise measures of cost—be it muscle energy, risk of collision, or cognitive load—these frameworks look increasingly promising for capturing the full richness of human motor control. Looking forward, continuing to refine these models could shed new light on rehabilitation protocols, robotics design, sports training, and any domain where precise yet adaptable movements are key.

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### 3.7 Optimization Theory: Key Takeaways

- Proposes that the motor system optimizes certain variables, such as energy expenditure, accuracy, or movement time
- Optimization criteria can vary depending on the task and context
- Optimal control models have been successful in explaining various motor phenomena, such as the speed-accuracy trade-off and the formation of bell-shaped velocity profiles
- The theory highlights the importance of considering the costs and benefits of different movement strategies
- Optimization Theory provides a unifying framework for understanding how the motor system adapts to different task demands and constraints

Optimization Theory has become a pivotal lens for understanding how our motor system chooses one movement strategy over another. Whether you're trying to throw a ball as fast as you can, conserve energy during a long run, or produce a perfectly straight line while drawing, the brain appears to be selecting from multiple possibilities to find the “best” solution according to the priorities of the moment—be it speed, energy efficiency, accuracy, or some combination of those factors.

From minimizing jerky accelerations to balancing the trade-off between speed and accuracy (as in Fitts' law), optimal control models capture a broad range of movement phenomena. For instance, they can predict the smoothly curved velocity profiles commonly observed in reaching tasks, suggesting that the motor system actively “engineers” its own motions to reduce unnecessary strain or variance. In a practical sense, this also implies that different individuals—and even the same individual under different circumstances—might emphasize

different costs. Athletes might prioritize speed and power, while someone recovering from an injury may focus on limiting joint stress.

One of the real strengths of Optimization Theory is how it unifies these various concerns under a single conceptual framework. Rather than treating every movement challenge in isolation, it shows us that the motor system consistently evaluates how to achieve a goal given its constraints and desired outcomes. This broader perspective not only helps explain how we develop highly skilled actions, but also guides clinical and training interventions by emphasizing how changing one cost parameter—like decreasing muscle fatigue or improving precision—can reshape the entire movement pattern.

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#### **4. Overall Takeaways from Theories of Motor Control**

- Generalized Motor Programs explain adaptability of movements via abstract templates
- Dynamical Systems Theory emphasizes self-organization, stability, and phase transitions
- Optimization Theory models the motor system as a cost-balancing problem-solver
- All three frameworks offer valuable insights for teaching, rehabilitation, and performance

As we wrap up this lecture, let's recap the key lessons we can carry forward. Generalized Motor Programs underscore how our movements can remain consistent yet flexible across varied contexts, thanks to abstract “templates” that adjust to new demands. Dynamical Systems Theory highlights how even simple rules can generate complex and spontaneous changes in movement, influenced by stability and self-organization. Finally, Optimization Theory shows how our motor system weighs different “costs”—like speed, accuracy, and energy use—to find solutions that best fit a given task.

None of these perspectives is mutually exclusive. In fact, each offers a unique piece of the puzzle. In sports, for instance, a coach might rely on GMP concepts to help athletes adapt their skills to new situations, or draw on Dynamical Systems Theory to guide them through stable and unstable movement patterns, and also consider Optimization Theory when training for efficiency or speed. Taken together, these frameworks not only deepen our understanding of how humans move, but also guide how we teach, rehabilitate, and refine motor skills across countless real-world settings.

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