

The propulsion phase of spear-throwers and its implications for understanding prehistoric weaponry

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Highlights

- We present a revised model for the functioning of the spear-thrower.
- A spear-thrower is more than a lever or arm extender.
- The displacement and the acceleration of its hook is the key point of the spear-thrower functioning.
- The flight of the dart is conditioned by the shaft characteristics, the useful length of the spear-thrower and the shooter's propulsion movement.

Abstract

Understanding the appearance and evolution of prehistoric weaponry is a key topic in archaeological research. While stone or osseous projectile points are identified archaeologically based on damage patterns and other wear traces, identifying how these weapons were propelled requires a more thorough understanding of the ballistic behaviour of each weapon system. Even if the spear-thrower and dart is a commonly known weapon system that is often used in projectile experiments, its functioning is still not yet fully understood. In this article, we contribute to its understanding with a detailed analysis of the propulsion phase of the dart. We use high-speed video recordings and show that the propulsion of a dart has a complexity that goes beyond a simple lever effect or an arm extender provided by the spear-thrower. We argue that the focus should not only lie on the rotation of the spear-thrower but also on the displacement of the spear-thrower hook and the dart's butt during the entire propulsion phase. We demonstrate that the gestures of the user and the specific characteristics of both the spear-thrower and the dart represent three inseparable elements that determine a dart's flight and its ballistic behaviour. Knowledge on the propulsion phase of the dart is therefore a prerequisite for insights into the impact phenomenon, for an adequate understanding of impact fractures on projectile points, and for the recognition of weapon propulsion modes on an archaeological level.

Keywords

spear-thrower, propulsion phase, motion analysis, projectile behaviour, experiments

1. Introduction

Projectile technology used in hunting is a major innovation in human evolution (Ambrose 2001). Projectile points are considered to signal planning abilities and possibly complex cognition and to mark identity (e.g., Hughes, 1998; McBrearty et al., 2000; Rots et al., 2017; Brooks et al., 2006; Shea, 2006, 2009; Shea and Sisk, 2010). In spite of rich literature on projectiles (e.g., Knecht, 1997; Iovita and Sano, 2016) and studies that claim to have identified propulsion modes (e.g., Metz et al., 2023; Sano, 2016; Sano and Oba, 2014, 2015; Sano et al., 2019), little is actually known about Palaeolithic hunting technology and how it evolved through time, even though it is vital for discussions on technological evolution, subsistence strategies, group identity and human behaviour. Traditionally, four main propulsion modes are

52 considered: thrusting spears, throwing spears, spear-throwers and darts, and bows and
53 arrows. In evolutionary terms, a separation is often made between the former two being
54 weapons used at short distance and the latter two being weapons permitting hunting at a longer
55 distance, which is frequently regarded as a significant advance (Sisk and Shea, 2009, 2011;
56 Sahle and Brooks, 2019; Lombard and Shea, 2021; Lombard 2022a, b; Metz et al., 2023).
57 There are indeed important advantages at being able to hunt from a distance, but the view is
58 generally oversimplified, as the selection of what weapon to use in a complex activity such as
59 hunting is not solely based on the potential range of the weapon. Multiple factors may influence
60 the choice, such as the goal and desired precision, amongst several others. Organic remains
61 that document the earliest existence of these weapon systems are few and restricted to the
62 Lower and Middle Palaeolithic wooden spears or spear fragments from Schöningen (Thieme,
63 1997), Clacton-on-Sea (Oakley et al., 1977) and Lehringen (Movius and Hallam, 1950), the
64 spear-thrower hook from Combe-Saunière attributed to the Solutrean (Cattelain, 1989;
65 Stodiek, 1993), and the arrows from Stellmoor and the bow from Holmegaard (Junkmanns,
66 2013; Rust, 1943), both attributed to the Mesolithic period. All these discoveries were made in
67 Europe, and despite the exceptional importance of these finds, they are too scattered and
68 incomplete to permit an understanding of the appearance and evolution of prehistoric
69 weaponry through time and space.

70
71 In the absence of organic materials, detailed studies of stone (and bone/antler) tools have
72 been used to identify projectile points (Fischer, 1981, 1984; Geneste and Plisson, 1990;
73 Pargeter et al., 2016; Shea, 2006) and to explore whether long-distance weaponry could be
74 identified on the basis of the stone tools only (Hutchings, 2015; Iovita et al., 2014; Pargeter et
75 al., 2016; Sano et al., 2019; Sano and Oba, 2015; Shea, 2006; Shea and Sisk, 2010). Several
76 approaches have been proposed, using proxies based on morphometrics such as TCSA/TCSP
77 values (Friss-Hansen, 1990; Hugues, 1998; Salem and Churchill, 2016; Metz et al., 2023;
78 Shea, 2006; Sisk and Shea, 2009), the length of so-called diagnostic impact fractures (DIFs)
79 (Iovita et al., 2014; Iovita and Sano 2016a, b; Sano and Oba, 2015; Clarkson, 2016) or Wallner
80 lines (Hutchings, 2011). Critics have highlighted major weaknesses for each of these
81 approaches (for extensive critiques about TCSA/TCSP see: Clarkson, 2016; Coppe, 2020;
82 Rots and Plisson, 2014; Villa and Roebroeks, 2014; for DIF length see Rots and Plisson, 2014;
83 Coppe and Rots, 2017; Salem and Churchill, 2016; and for the application of Wallner lines see
84 Douze et al., 2018). More recently, an alternative approach has been proposed on the basis
85 of macrofractures, other wear traces and extensive experimental programs, following
86 extensive ballistic work (cf. Coppe et al. 2019, 2022). Preliminary applications have permitted
87 to hypothesise the use of the thrusting spear at Hohle Fels (Germany, Middle Palaeolithic)
88 (Rots et al. 2021) and the bow for the Federmessergruppen at Lommel-Maatheide, Belgium)
89 (Tomasso et al. 2021). A large-scale application of the method permitted the identification of
90 spear-thrower use in the Gravettian at Maisières-Canal (Belgium; Coppe et al. 2023).
91 All approaches mentioned earlier share a focus on the stone armatures to try and identify the
92 mode of propulsion, but at the exception of the newly developed approach, they ignore the
93 weapon itself, in particular how each mode of propulsion works from a physical perspective
94 and what kind of mechanical stress is received by the stone armature upon impact. Spear-
95 throwers are a good case in point: while previous work has resulted in different theories about
96 the physical phenomena behind its functioning (without reaching a consensus), this ballistic
97 work was not incorporated in the study of stone armatures nor in attempts to identify the mode
98 of propulsion.

99
100 Spear-throwers have been known to prehistorians and ethnologists since the 19th century
101 (Cattelain, 2000: 60) and their use was described by ethnologists following contact with
102 populations who still used this weapon system (see for example Cundy, 1989; Victor and
103 Robert-Lamblin, 1989). Practical questions about its use have been raised since the second
104 half of the 20th century onwards. Researchers unanimously state that a spear-thrower allows
105 for a better energy transfer to the dart in comparison to throwing a spear by hand, but opinions
106 diverge on how this transfer occurs exactly. Some consider spear-throwers as a system that

107 extends the arm and thus the distance over which the spear is being pushed by the shooter
108 (Howard, 1974: 102; Palter, 1977: 164; Stodiek, 1988: 317; Raymond, 1986: 158). Other users
109 hypothesise that darts and certain types of spear-throwers bend during their propulsion
110 (Cundy, 1989; Perkins, 1993; Baugh, 1998: 38, 40; 2003: 349) and speculate about a spring
111 effect in which both dart and spear-thrower would accumulate energy during the propulsion
112 phase. Most authors converge towards seeing the spear-thrower as a lever, thereby focusing
113 on its rotating movement (Cattelain, 1994: 6, 1997; Cotterell and Kamminga, 1990: 166;
114 Cundy, 1989: 45; Lansac, 2004: 30; VanderHoek, 1998; Whittaker, 2014, 2016: 65; Whittaker
115 and Maginniss, 2006). Finally, purely theoretical models have also been proposed (Baugh,
116 2003; Denny, 2019), though these are not entirely satisfactory. In our view, most of these
117 studies focus on a specific part of the propulsion phase only (the rotating motion of the hand),
118 instead of on the complete propulsion phase, though the latter determines the phenomena that
119 occur during the flight and how the projectile impacts its target.

120
121 In any research that aims to identify the use of a spear-thrower archaeologically, be it on the
122 basis of stone or organic projectile points, an in-depth understanding of how exactly the spear-
123 thrower system functions is an essential first step. More specifically, we need to understand
124 (1) the interaction between the spear-thrower and the dart, (2) the influence of the spin if—of
125 the projectile, the length of the spear-thrower, and the throwing technique employed by the
126 shooter on the ballistic behaviour of the dart during its flight. In this article, we focus on the
127 propulsion phase exclusively and we break it down into its constituent components. A stepwise
128 experimental approach to each of these components permits us to understand how a spear-
129 thrower operates and to evaluate to what extent the gestures of the shooter and the technical
130 characteristics of the spear-thrower and dart influence the dart's propulsion. We argue that our
131 results provide a firm foundation for a method that aims to identify this weapon system
132 archaeologically, for instance by exploiting macro- and microscopic wear data on projectile
133 points.

134

135 **2. Background**

136

137 Darts and spear-throwers have been in use since the prehistoric period up until today. No
138 remains of prehistoric spear-thrower handles have ever been found in Europe, but some
139 complete examples are known in the USA (for an extensive list see Pettigrew and Whittaker,
140 2012). Generally, only the hook or a portion of the distal part have been preserved (Cattelain,
141 1988, 1989, 2005, 2017; Garrod, 1956). The oldest known evidence is a spear-thrower hook
142 found at the site of Combe-Saunière (France) and dated to 17,500 BP (Ly-3329 17,470 +/- 249
143 BP; 21,807–20,511 cal BP (Ly-3329 conventional); Cattelain, 2005: 307; 2018: 154) though its
144 attribution to the Solutrean or early Magdalenian has been questioned on stratigraphic grounds
145 (Cattelain and Pétilion, 2015: 22; Cattelain, 2018). Finds of hooks are significantly more
146 abundant for the Magdalenian (Cattelain, 1994: 7; 2005: 313), suggesting that this weapon
147 system was commonly used in Europe until the beginning of the upper Magdalenian (most
148 recent finds date to 11,220 +/- 120 BP (B-3327) at Kesslerloch; Cattelain, 2005: 311). Whether
149 the spear-thrower was used in Europe before 17,500 BP is uncertain (Cattelain, 1994: 20).
150 Some prehistoric hooks show elaborate decorations testifying to a significant investment in
151 their manufacture. These objects likely had important lives (Cattelain, 1991; Cattelain and
152 Bellier, 2002) and may have marked social ties or identities (Cattelain, 2005; Stodiek, 1988).

153

154 While organic remains are rare and do not permit researchers to truly pinpoint the appearance
155 and distribution of this weapon system, ethnographic data for different continents allude to the
156 fact that its use in prehistory may have been widespread. The spear-thrower and dart are
157 attested in multiple cultures, including the Basketmaker Culture in the Southwest
158 USA, cultures in Central America, and in South America (Brazil, Peru, Chile) (Donnan, 2016;
159 Groshmeier, 2017a, b; Pettigrew, 2015a; Prins, 2010; Whittaker, 2009, 2015, 2016b, 2017;
160 Whittaker and Kamp, 2011). It was also frequently used in Australia and Papua New Guinea
161 up until the first half of the 20th century (Cundy, 1989; Davidson, 1936; Palter, 1977). Its use

162 is also documented among the Inuit where a decline can be noted around the same time
163 (Drieux, 2016; Hall, 2007; Victor and Robert-Lamblin, 1989, 2016), but the spear-thrower
164 remained in use with certain arctic communities for hunting marine mammals (Hall, 2007;
165 Drieux, 2016). The use of darts and spear-throwers has commonly been assumed to be linked
166 with open ecosystems, but likely a mixture of cultural, technical, and environmental factors
167 explain its choice, and these are difficult to disentangle. Sizes and shapes of ethnographically
168 known spear-throwers vary significantly. For example, Australian spear-throwers have variable
169 shapes and their size ranges between 54.3–114.1 cm (mean: 76.73 cm). Inuit spear-throwers
170 also vary in shape, but they are generally shorter (between 33–63 cm, mean: 48.53 cm). The
171 size of pre-Colombian spear-throwers varies between 43–75 cm (mean: 59.08 cm) and those
172 from Papua New Guinea between 63–120 cm (mean: 82.8 cm) (Cattelain, 2000: 62).

173
174 No darts have been preserved from Europe, but some rare prehistoric examples have been
175 found in North America (Groshmeier, 2017a, b; Hare et al., 2004, 2012; Pettigrew, 2015a, b;
176 Pettigrew and Whittaker, 2012), while many other examples exist in ethnographic collections
177 and museums (e.g., Cundy, 1989; Davidson, 1936). The dimensions and weights of darts show
178 an important cultural and regional variation and the same goes for the presence of fletching.
179 All darts share the fact that the energy for their propulsion is transferred through the dart's butt
180 end, similar to arrows, with the exception of some ethnographic examples (e.g., some Inuit
181 darts are propelled by a peg located near their centre; VanderHoek, 1998: 20).

183 **3. Materials and methods**

184
185 Ballistically speaking, firing a dart with a spear-thrower can be divided into three successive
186 phases, as is the case for other propelled weapons (Bell, 2012; Pirlot, 2014: 4): a propulsion
187 phase (internal ballistics) before the projectile leaves its propulsion device, an intermediate
188 phase (external ballistics) when the projectile is in flight, and a final phase (terminal ballistics)
189 when the projectile impacts its target. Here, we focus exclusively on the propulsion phase,
190 during which the projectile is provided with the necessary kinetic energy to reach its target.
191 Three autonomous entities work in synergy during the propulsion phase: the user, the spear-
192 thrower and the dart. In this study, we focus on the influence of each of these entities on the
193 propulsion phase. The results of a set of four experiments are discussed. In the first
194 experiment, we address to what extent the use of a spear-thrower differs from using a hand-
195 cast spear. In subsequent experiments, we study the impact of different variables: the influence
196 of the dart, more precisely its spine (experiment 2), the influence of the length of the spear-
197 thrower (experiment 3) and the influence of the shooter and the shooting technique used
198 (experiment 4). The combination of these experiments permits an in-depth understanding of
199 the weapon system. The experimental set-up benefitted from experiences gained during
200 previous experiments performed in collaboration with the ballistics lab of the Royal Military
201 School in Brussels (Abal, E.R.M. Brussels) (cf. Coppe et al., 2019, 2022). These first
202 experiments were filmed with a Photron S12 high-speed camera (7000 frames per second)
203 and the detailed study of these videos provided some initial insights (Clarenne, 2017: 41;
204 Coppe and Rots, 2017: 11). All experiments presented here were filmed using a Sony
205 RX100mIV camera (500 frames/second) that was set up at 6 m, perpendicular to the flight
206 trajectory.

208 **3.1. Spear-thrower**

210 **3.1.1. Technical parameters**

211
212 A spear-thrower is basically a wooden stick with a hook at one end and a grip at the other end.
213 The most complete spear-throwers (archaeological or ethnographic) exhibit actual handles to
214 provide a better grip (Cattelain, 2000: 64), either by carving them into the mass of the handle
215 or by adding parts or materials. The handle can also be made of leather straps into which the

216 user inserts their fingers. These modifications allow a better transfer of the shooter's force and
 217 a grip that remains constant between throws.

218 3.1.2. Spear-throwers used in experiments

219
 220 Six spear-throwers were used for the experiments. ST1, ST2 and ST3 are made of hazel wood
 221 with a hook made of antler glued and bound at their distal end. For a constant grip, their handle
 222 is equipped with a leather strap in which the shooter inserts their index finger of the gripping
 223 hand. These spear-throwers were used throughout all the experiments. ST4, ST5 and ST6
 224 were only used in experiment 4. These spear-throwers were used by three external shooters
 225 we invited to participate in the experiment to be able to compare their shooting technique.
 226 These three spear-throwers are also made of wood with an antler hook at their distal end, but
 227 spear-thrower ST5 has an additional supporting device at its handle to hold the dart. All spear-
 228 throwers used are rigid and do not flex during use.
 229

230
 231 For each spear-thrower, the rotation point (fulcrum) and the effective length were measured
 232 (Table 1). We fix the rotation point of the spear-thrower in the centre of its handle (Fig. 1)
 233 (Lepers, 2010: 129). The effective length is the distance between the rotation point in the centre
 234 of the handle (fulcrum) and the point of the spear-thrower hook (contact with the dart notch).
 235
 236

Spear-thrower	Ref spear-thrower	Total length (cm)	Effective length (cm)	Experimental use
reference spear-thrower	ST1	60	51	1,2,3,4
spear-thrower 30 CL	ST2	39.5	30	3
spear-thrower 75 CL	ST3	84.5	75	3
spear-thrower A	ST4	58.5	48	4
spear-thrower B	ST5	59	48.5	4
spear-thrower C	ST6	58.5	48.5	4

237
 238 Table 1 Characteristics of the spear-throwers used in the experiments.
 239

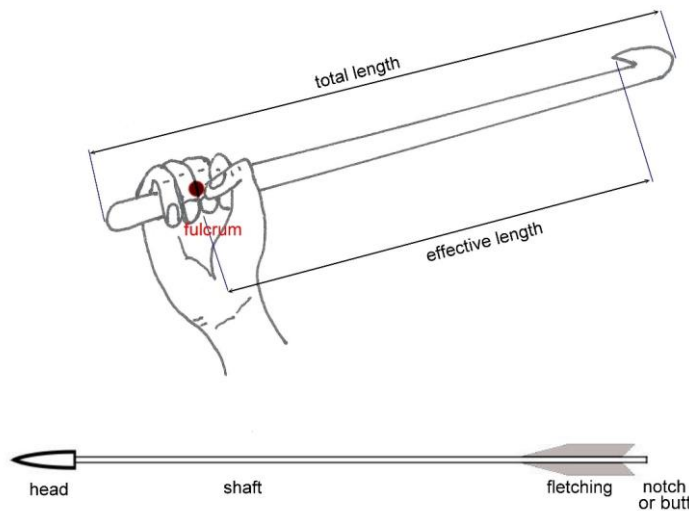


Fig. 1 Spear-thrower and dart.

3.2. Darts

3.2.1. Technical parameters

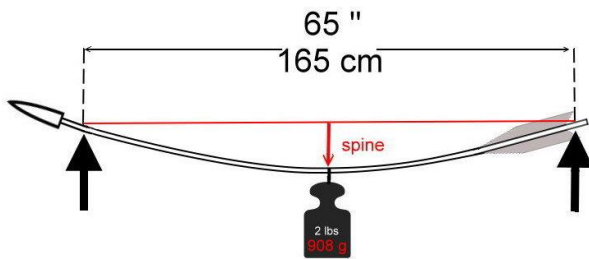
Darts are made of a wooden shaft with a point at their distal end and fletching and a notch at their base. To launch a dart, the hook of the spear-thrower is inserted into the notch of the dart. For each dart, wood species, length, weight, spine, balance point, FOC and the area of fletching are documented in Table 2.

3.2.1.1. The spine

The spine of a dart is important, as is the case for arrows too (cf. Lepers and Rots 2020). When a dart is shot, the spear-thrower pushes on the butt of the dart and initiates a flexion of the dart's shaft. This phenomenon is well-known and has been studied in detail for arrows (Baugh, 2013; Coppe and Rots, 2017: 115; Frédéric, 1985: 68; Greenland, 2000: 10; Klopsteg, 1943: 187; Lepers, 2005: 129, 2010: 113–119; Lepers and Rots, 2020). While the projectile recovers from the initial flexion, it bends in the opposite direction but with reduced amplitude. These parasitic flexions gradually decrease until the missile straightens and flies with a direction parallel to its theoretical trajectory. In our view, the intensity of this flexion depends on the propulsion characteristics (kinetic energy transmitted to the dart and distance over which it is pushed), gestures used by the shooter and the dart's flexibility. All these parameters influence each other and constitute what we call the "spine dynamics" of the missile. In practice, this flexion absorbs part of the missile's energy, and it influences the dart's flight.

The flexibility of a dart is determined by the material, length, diameter, and shape of the shaft. A rigid dart possesses a low spine, whereas greater flexibility results in a higher spine. For a cylindrical shaft, the flexibility is assumed to be the same over the entire length, but for a tapered shaft, the thinnest part of the shaft will be the most flexible. For good ballistic qualities and equilibrium (see below), the notch of tapered darts is always placed at the thinnest end of

295 the shaft and the spine is measured from its most flexible part. The flexibility of darts has not
 296 yet been studied as precisely as for arrows. The way to measure the spine of a dart is adapted
 297 from practices developed for arrows. The spine is measured by suspending a 2 lb (908 g) mass
 298 on a dart that is placed on two supporting devices, placed 65 inches (165.1 cm) away from
 299 each other (2.5 times the spacing used for the spine measurements of an arrow) (Lepers,
 300 2010: 119).
 301

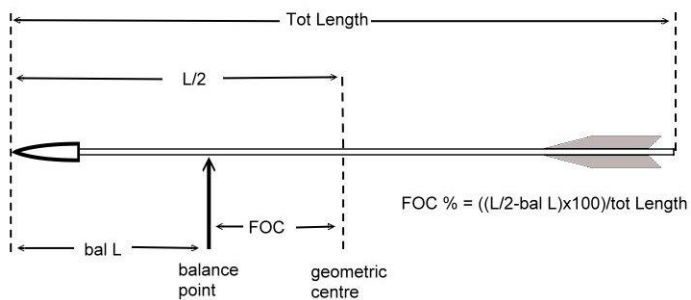


302
 303
 304 Fig. 2 Details on how to measure the spine of a dart.

305 3.2.1.2. FOC and balance point

306 To ensure a good flight, the point of equilibrium of the missile must be situated in front of its
 307 geometric centre (Frédéric, 1985: 71; Greenland, 2000: 37; Lepers, 2005: 130; 2010: 115).
 308 The precise location of the point of equilibrium can be achieved by adapting the weight of the
 309 head or by modifying the shaft. If the point of equilibrium is too far forward, it increases the
 310 inertia of the front of the missile and its flexion during flight. If the point of equilibrium is placed
 311 too far back, the projectile's flight is unstable (Cundy, 1989: 28; Hughes, 1998: 349). The ideal
 312 point of equilibrium for an arrow is situated between 35 and 40% of its length, as measured
 313 from the head of the missile. We found that these ballistic characteristics can be transposed
 314 to darts. Therefore, we use the same expressions for the balance of a dart by measuring its
 315 FOC (front of centre). The FOC is the percentage of the length of the dart (or arrow) between
 316 the balance point and the geometric centre of the dart (or arrow) (see also Lepers and Rots,
 317 2020).
 318
 319

$$320 \text{ FOC} = ((L_{\text{proj}}/2 - L_{\text{balance}}) \times 100 / L_{\text{proj}}) \text{ (Lepers, 2010: 115).}$$



323
 324
 325 Fig. 3 Calculation of the front of centre (FOC).
 326

327 As such, a point of equilibrium located at 35% and 40% of the length of a dart corresponds
328 to a FOC of 15% and 10%, respectively. In this paper, the calculation of the FOC is made from
329 the tip of the projectile. A different formula can be used to measure the FOC from the notch of
330 the arrow, but the result is the same.

331 332 3.2.1.3. Fletching

333
334 Fletching is a key factor to ensure the flight quality of traditional projectiles (arrows and darts),
335 but few studies have devoted attention to this (but see Lepers and Rots, 2020 for details on
336 arrow fletching) even though the usefulness of fletching is commonly accepted. Fletching
337 contributes to stabilising a projectile on its flight path by creating additional drag on the back
338 of the projectile. The underlying physical phenomena relate to the physics of fluids. The size
339 of the fletching area is important, but also other more subtle factors play a role (see Lepers
340 and Rots, 2020 for a complete overview).

341 342 3.2.2. Parameters of the projectiles used in the experiments

343
344 We opted for a total of 14 darts (Table 2). Except for darts D9, D10 and D11, all darts were
345 fletched with three half-feathers glued in the axis of the shaft and spaced at 120° (see Table 2
346 for details). These triangularly shaped feathers, 20 cm long and 3 cm high, offer a total fletching
347 area of 90 cm^2 (and a total friction area of 180 cm^2). Darts D9, D10 and D11 are those owned
348 by the external shooters involved in experiment 4. The total fletching surfaces of the latter three
349 darts has been estimated (values reported in Table 2). Dart D3 is a modified spear with a
350 fletching and a notch to transform it into a dart with a very low spine (spine of 0.6 cm; see table
351 2).

Projectile	Material	Haft type	Total length (cm)	Weight (g)	Spine (cm)	Fletching (l, h (cm))	Total fletching area (cm ²)	Balance point (from the tip) (cm)	FOC	Reference length (cm)	Experiment
S1	spruce (<i>Picea</i>)	tapered	215	660	< 0,5	unfletched	0	99	3,95	93	1
D1	hazel (<i>Corylus avellana</i>)	tapered	210	165	4,75	3 x (triangle, l 20, h 3 (30cm ²))	90	89	7,62	210	ERM
D2	hazel (<i>Corylus avellana</i>)	tapered	210	170	4,4	3 x (triangle, l 20, h 3 (30cm ²))	90	92,5	5,95	91	1,2
D3	spruce (<i>Picea</i>)	tapered	209	382	0,6	3 x (triangle, l 20, h 3 (30cm ²))	90	92	5,98	92,5	2
D4	hazel (<i>Corylus avellana</i>)	tapered	209	157	3,7	3 x (triangle, l 20, h 3 (30cm ²))	90	92,5	5,74	92	2
D5	hazel (<i>Corylus avellana</i>)	tapered	210	138	7,1	3 x (triangle, l 20, h 3 (30cm ²))	90	94	5,24	94	2
D6	Pine (<i>Pinus</i>)	cylindrical	215	98,2	14,5	3 x (triangle, l 20, h 3 (30cm ²))	90	102	2,56	103	2
D7	hazel (<i>Corylus avellana</i>)	tapered	216	176	4,7	3 x (triangle, l 20, h 3 (30cm ²))	90	98,5	4,40	98,5	2
D8	hazel (<i>Corylus avellana</i>)	tapered	212,5	161	5,7	3 x (triangle, l 20, h 3 (30cm ²))	90	89	8,12	212,5	3,4
D9	hazel (<i>Corylus avellana</i>)	tapered	212	174	5,6	3 x (triangle, l 20, h 3 (30cm ²))	90	89	8,02	212	4
D10	hazel (<i>Corylus avellana</i>)	tapered	213	170	4,8	3 x (triangle, l 20, h 3 (30cm ²))	90	90,2	7,65	213	4
D11	bamboo	cylindrical	202	85	12,3	3 x (triangle, l 15, h 3 (22,5 cm ² estimation))	67,5	83	8,91	83	4
D12	bamboo	cylindrical	229	108	11	3 x (parallelogram, l 20, h 3 cm (22,5 cm ² estimation))	180	90,5	10,48	90,5	4
D13	bamboo metake (<i>Pseudosassa japonica</i>)	cylindrical	210,5	84	no data	3 x (triangle, l 20 cm, h 3 cm (30cm ² estimation))	90	93	5,82	93	4

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Table 2 Characteristics of the projectiles used for the experiments.

3.3. Hand-cast spears

Hand-cast spears are only integrated to a minimal extent as a means of comparison with the spear-thrower and dart system. General technical parameters of hand-cast spears are described by Cotterell and Kamminga (1990: 163) and recent studies have begun to document its external and terminal ballistic behaviour (Coppe et al 2019; Milks et al. 2019). Spears consist of a wooden shaft with a point at their distal end. To ensure a good flight, the point of equilibrium of the missile must be situated in front of its geometrical centre. Therefore, spears are tapered towards their distal tip. The spear used is made of spruce and tapered toward the tip. It has a wooden point and no fletching. A coloured sticker marks its point of equilibrium (see Table 2). Its spine is less than 0.5 cm, but this value is irrelevant as a spear is not propelled by its back end (like a dart), but by placing the hand near its balance point. As for the dart, the distance between the tip of the projectile and the coloured sticker is used as a reference length when analysing the videos.

3.4. Gestures used in propulsion

3.4.1. Spear-thrower and dart

One propulsion gesture is used throughout experiment 1, 2 and 3. The gesture used tends to maximise the energy transmitted to the projectile, but it is made without a run-up. The gesture requires a stable position on widely spaced legs; the whole body is put in motion and a maximum of different muscles is used. For a right-handed person, the body weight is first supported by the right leg (placed at the back) and the body is tilted backwards with the shoulders perpendicular to the target. The movement begins with the body weight shifting from the right to the left leg. At the same time, the torso tilts forward and the shoulders rotate while the arm is projected forward, pulling the hand holding the spear-thrower. The hand and spear-thrower move toward the front of the shoulder and body. During this movement, the wrist flexes and the hand (which will end lower than its initial position) begins a rotational movement that drives the spear-thrower. Through its rotation, the spear-thrower acts as a speed amplifier lever (see section A1.2.2) and thus contributes to increasing the hook's speed. To ensure a stable flight trajectory, the acceleration generated throughout the entire movement must remain as regular as possible. Such a propulsion gesture ensures that the dart receives the maximal energy generated by the muscles, thereby maximising the distance over which the dart is propelled (see also Coppe et al., 2019: 11; Lepers, 2010: 121).

For experiment 4, a shorter propulsion movement was used in order to be able to compare the result. This shorter movement is made as follows: before propulsion, the chest is vertical, and the shoulders are parallel to the direction of the throw. The movement begins with the horizontal rotation of the chest followed by the arm being launched forward, thereby pulling the hand holding the spear-thrower. Videos of other shooters using their usual gestures and their personal equipment were also examined to verify if our method of motion analysis could be generalised.

3.4.2. Hand-cast spears

The propulsion movement is made without a run-up. The grip of the spear is located at the equilibrium point of the shaft (Coppe et al., 2019: 11). The propulsion movement requires good support on widely spaced legs and puts the whole body in motion, using a maximum of different muscles. For a right-handed person, the body weight is first supported by the right leg (placed at the back) with the body tilted backwards. The movement begins with the shift of the body weight from the right to the left leg. At the same time, the torso tilts forward and the shoulders rotate (see also Coppe et al., 2019: 11) while the arm is projected forward, thereby pulling the hand holding the spear. The hand passes in front of the shoulder and the body of the shooter.

408 During its movement, the wrist flexes and the hand begins a rotational movement. The spear
 409 leaves the hand at the higher point of this rotation.

410 3.5. Experimental protocol

412 The first three experiments involved two shooters of similar posture but differing levels of
 413 experience: Christian Lepers (CL) with a height of 1.82 m and 25 years of experience in using
 414 a spear-thrower, and Justin Coppe (JC) with a height of 1.84 m and 5 years of experience in
 415 throwing spears by hand and darts with a spear-thrower. The fourth experiment was performed
 416 by CL and three external experienced shooters (A, B, C) who regularly participate in the
 417 European Prehistoric Shooting Championship. In order to guarantee representative
 418 measurements, several propulsion sequences were performed for experiments 1 and 2. The
 419 spear was fired at two distances (10 m and 5 m) for JC and at 5 m for CL (experiment 1). All
 420 darts were fired at a distance of 10 m from the target. The centre of the target was placed 1.25
 421 m from the ground to maintain the same elevation between all shots (i.e. angle between the
 422 horizontal plane and the axial direction of the projectile) (experiment 1, 2, 3 and 4). All
 423 measurements performed in the different videos are detailed in the online supplementary files.
 424

425 Each dart (and spear-thrower when relevant) was marked with a coloured sticker indicating
 426 the point of equilibrium of the projectile. The distance between the tip of the projectile and this
 427 coloured sticker was used as a reference length allowing the calibration of the measurements
 428 and permitting the analysis of the footage and comparisons between the throws (for certain
 429 videos the complete length of the dart was used).
 430

- 431 • The first experiment focused on comparing the propulsion phase between hand-cast
 432 spear S1 (21 videos) and dart D2 propelled with spear-thrower ST1 (28 videos) used by
 433 both shooters (CL and JC). Dart D2 presents similar characteristics to our usual
 434 standards, such as the dart used in the experiments performed in the ballistics lab in
 435 Brussels previously (see also Coppe et al., 2019). This first experiment served as a
 436 basis to study propulsion movements and their effects on the projectile's trajectories.
- 437 • The second experiment was focused on the influence of the dart's spine. A total of 53
 438 videos were recorded with five darts of varying flexibility (D3, D4, D5, D6, D7). They
 439 were fired with spear-thrower ST1 used by both shooters (CL and JC). Two of the darts
 440 were more flexible than reference D2 (D6: spine 14.5 cm, D5: spine 7.1 cm) and two
 441 more rigid (D4: spine 3.7 cm, D3: spine 0.6 cm, i.e., the spear turned into a "rigid" dart).
 442 Another dart (D7: spine 4.7 cm), very close in characteristics to D2, was also tested. All
 443 results were compared with data obtained for reference dart D2 (experiment 1).
 444
- 445 • In the third experiment, the influence of the spear-thrower length was studied. One
 446 shooter (CL) used three spear-throwers of different lengths (ST1: effective length of 51
 447 cm, ST2: 30 cm, ST3: 75 cm) for throwing a single dart (D8) with a gesture identical to
 448 experiment 1 and 2 (three videos).
- 449 • In the fourth experiment, the influence of the length of the propulsion phase was studied
 450 and it was evaluated whether our analytical method could also be applied to other
 451 shooters, materials, and practices. First, a single spear-thrower (ST1) was used in
 452 combination with three darts (D8, D9, D10) and one shooter (CL) used both his usual
 453 long gesture and a short gesture (seven videos). Secondly, the propulsion movements
 454 of three external experienced shooters (A, B and C) were filmed (five videos). Selected
 455 shooters used their own equipment and personal technique (darts D11, D12 and D13,
 456 spear-throwers ST4, ST5 and ST6).

457 3.6. Video recordings and analysis

458 A total of 117 videos were recorded and analysed for all four experiments. The slow-motion
 459 playback of the different videos was studied and analysed with Kinovea software (0.8-15
 460 www.kinovea.org). For each video, we traced the trajectories followed by the spear-thrower
 461
 462

hook, and by the hand holding the spear-thrower. Distances, angles, and times were measured (see online supplementary files). In order to smooth out irregularities between different shots of the same series, comparisons between the different series of shots were made when possible using the arithmetic average of the series considered (rounded off to: 1 cm; 1°; 0.01 s) with their standard deviation in order to assess their dispersion and accuracy (or single measurements if only one video was made). To permit a correct appreciation of the times measured from the start of the propulsion motion, we conventionally fixed the initial moment (t_0) after a displacement of 5 cm of the spear-thrower hook or the hand.

With the exception of shots fired with dart D2, the speed measurements of the dart after separation from the spear-thrower were not taken into account because of possible parallax issues. Indeed, the point where the dart left the spear-thrower was at the edge of the field of the camera and parallax issues may thus have hindered the accuracy of the measurements.

4 Results

4.1. Comparison of the propulsion phase between hand-cast spears and darts (experiment 1)

The videos from experiment 1 show that the trajectories of the hand throwing the spear and of the contact point between the dart and the spear-thrower differ and that both weapon systems are thus ballistically distinct. For both propulsion modes, the movement gradually accelerates due to the cumulative effect of the investment of different body parts, while the arm and wrist only start to intervene during the final propulsion phase. For the hand-cast spear, the propulsion also proves to follow an ascending trajectory. Whatever the shooting distance, the spear starts at a greater angle than the dart; its larger mass (540 g) largely explains this increase.

4.1.1. Differences

A hand-cast spear is projected along a trajectory that is generally rectilinear and ascending (Fig. 4), whereby the hand travels parallel to the projectile throughout the propulsion motion. The application of force is located where the hand holds the spear (close to its point of equilibrium). For a spear-thrower, the force is exerted further back on the notch of the dart. The hand begins the movement with a trajectory parallel to the dart, but both paths separate once the spear-thrower rotates (Fig. 5). The spear-thrower propulsion movement can be divided into two main phases: a linear phase followed by an elliptical phase. the push starts further back, and the elliptical phase (thanks to the spear-thrower) ends further forward than for the manual propulsion.

When both systems are compared, it is clear that the altitude at which the projectile becomes autonomous (for both weapons fired at 10 m) is the same, but that the dart's propulsion distance is more important than the one of the spear (see Table 3).

The videos show that the overall trajectory of the spear-thrower hook is not linear, contrary to what some authors have argued (i.e., Denny, 2019: 69; Howard, 1974: 102; Lepers, 2010: 124; Palter, 1971: 164; Raymond, 1986: 158; Stodiek, 1988: 317). However, it is also not comparable to the circular trajectory followed by the tip of a lever, where both ends move along a circular path.

Propulsion distances were calculated for both hand-cast spears and darts for each shooter (Table 3). For both shooters, the use of the spear-thrower allowed an increase of 30 to 40% of throwing distance compared to a hand-cast spear but note that this distance is partly conditioned by the length of the spear-thrower (see below), though the increase is greater than the effective length of the spear-thrower and thus also relates to its movement (for more detail

518 see supplementary online file 1). The measured data cannot be generalised, as they are
 519 influenced by numerous factors related to the shooter and the equipment used. However, the
 520 significant increase in propulsion distance achieved with the spear-thrower clearly
 521 demonstrates the difference between the two weapon systems. A more precise comparison
 522 between both remains challenging at this stage, as the ballistic exploration of hand throwing is
 523 only in its early stages (see Milks et al., 2019).
 524

Hand-cast spear		Spear-thrower ST1			Difference (cm)	Difference (%)
Shooter	Average propulsion distance spear (cm)		Average propulsion distance spear-thrower hook (cm)	Average total rectilinear spear-thrower hook displacement (cm)		
JC 10m	167 +/-11	JC 10m	238 +/-18	235 +/-20	71	29.80
JC 5m	146 +/-7				92	38.70
CL 5m	151 +/-10	CL 10m	232 +/-11	224 +/-13	81	34.90

525
 526 Table 3 Comparative analysis of the propulsion of the hand-cast spears and the spear-
 527 throwers and darts.

528 4.1.2. Specificity of the propulsion of spear-throwers and darts

529
 530 While the rotational movement of a spear-thrower centred on a user's hand is comparable to
 531 a lever movement, the videos show that the overall movement of the hook follows an elliptical
 532 path, because the hand continues its own movement at the same time. The propulsion
 533 movement cannot be considered as a simple lever because this would ignore the movement
 534 made by the hand before and during the rotation of the spear-thrower. The spear-thrower is
 535 also not a simple extension of the arm because even though it increases the distance of
 536 propulsion, this is due to the rotation of the spear-thrower as it modifies the initial linear
 537 trajectory of the hook.
 538

539
 540 A correct analysis of the propulsion phase must focus on the overall hook displacement. The
 541 linear phase initiates the shift of the hook, while the elliptical phase allows a significant increase
 542 in speed along a different orientation compared to the initial trajectory. This is caused by a
 543 longer hook displacement during the elliptical phase. However, the dart does not fully benefit
 544 from the speed and energy developed by the hook, due to which it bends.
 545

546
 547 None of the existing hypotheses regarding spear-throwers, be it that it functions as a lever
 548 (Cattelain, 1994: 6; Cotterell and Kamminga, 1990: 166; Cundy, 1989: 45; Lansac, 2004: 30;
 549 Whittaker, 2016a: 65; Whittaker et al., 2014; Whittaker and Maginniss, 2006) or an arm-
 550 extender (Howard, 1974: 102; Palter, 1977: 164; Raymond, 1986: 158; Stodiek, 1988: 317)
 551 fully explain the movements of the hand and the hook or the composition of the different forces
 552 that work on the dart. The overall motion must therefore be considered as a mix of both
 553 hypotheses: the spear-thrower increases the length of the projectile's propulsion phase and
 554 the speed by its rotation at the end of the movement. The assumption that energy would
 555 accumulate in the dart through bending (Baugh, 1998: 38, 40; 2003: 349; Cundy, 1989;
 556 Perkins, 1993) is incorrect and was invalidated previously (Whittaker and Maginniss, 2006;
 557 Denny, 2019). The detailed analysis of the elliptical propulsion phase (supplementary online
 558 file 1) shows that the flexions of the dart are easily explained when the movements of the hook
 559 are deconstructed.



Fig. 4 Throwing motion of a spear and trajectory of the hand. The trajectories of the hand (in yellow) and of the point where the spear is held (in red), from the initiation of the movement to the moment when the hand releases the projectile (shooter JC).

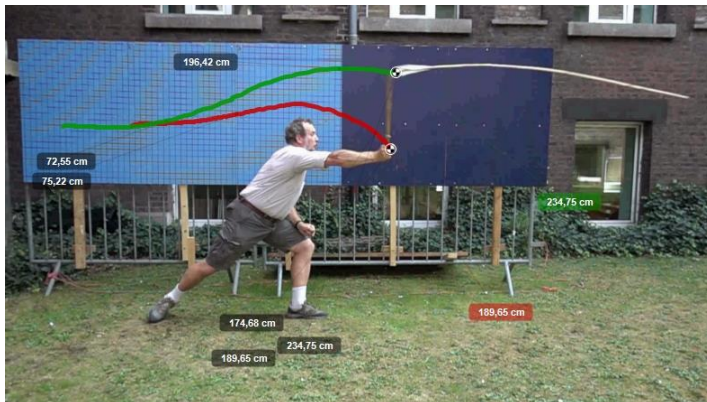


Fig. 5 Trajectory of the hand (in red) and the spear-thrower hook (in green) during the dart's propulsion phase from the initiation of the movement up to the release of the dart (shooter CL). Also note the third flexion (n-shaped) (see below).

4.1.3. Dart flexion during the propulsion phase

At the end of the linear propulsion phase, the dart begins to bend. This flexion occurs when the torso bends forward, the shoulders are rotated and the hand begins its forward upward movement, but before the spear-thrower starts to rotate. This convex flexion¹ is visible on the central part of the dart and results from the upward component of the hand movement while the dart is held by the hook and the fingers (Fig. 6).

¹ Concave or u-shaped flexion: flexion in which the centre of the dart is lower than its extremities. Convex or n-shaped flexion: flexion during which the centre of the dart is higher than its extremities.

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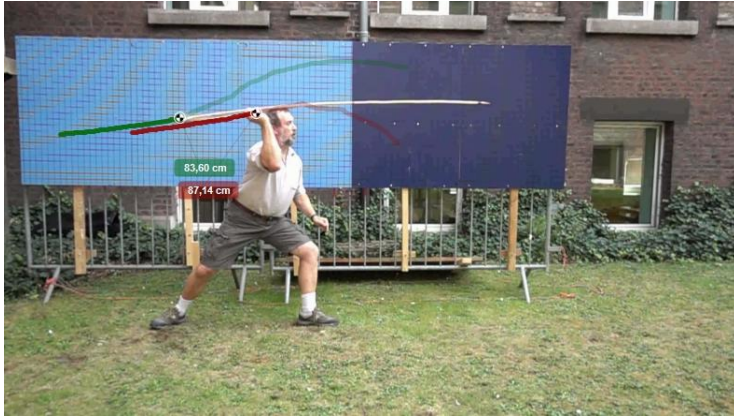


Fig. 6 End of the linear phase and first convex bending of the dart.



Fig. 7 Photo and plot of hook and hand trajectories from the beginning of the elliptical phase to the end. The concave flexion of the dart can be seen when the spear-thrower is in its ascending phase.

During the first part of the spear-thrower rotation, the dart undergoes a concave (u-shaped) flexion (second flexion) which originates near the butt (Fig. 7) and thus differs from the previous one. Shortly before the hook of the spear-thrower reaches a vertical position, the flexion disappears and is followed by a convex (n-shaped) flexion (third flexion), again initiated at the butt (Fig. 5). Subsequently, the dart becomes autonomous and moves towards the target. These deflections of the dart during the rotation of the spear-thrower are not unique to our equipment or projection technique and have been observed by others as well (e.g., Baugh, 1998: 40; Cattelain, 1994: 6; Cotterel and Kamminga, 1990: 169; Denny, 2019: 71; Perkins, 1993; Pettigrew, 2013, 2014: 10, 2015a: 10; Whittaker, 2014: 1, 2016a: 67; Whittaker et al. 2017: 163; Whittaker and Maginniss, 2006: 1).

Analysis of the videos shows that these bends are concave (in a u-shape) when the spear-thrower hook is up, and convex (in an n-shape) when the hook is down. These dart flexions (made possible by the shaft's flexibility) are created by the vertical movement of the hook. This vertical hook movement is inherent to the elliptical phase and essential to its normal unfolding.

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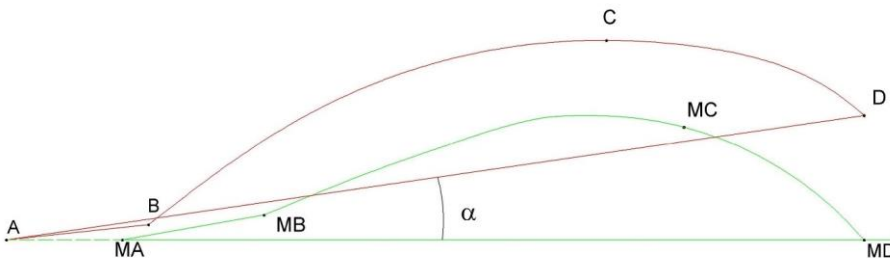
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605 Contrary to many authors (Baugh, 2003; Cundy, 1989; Lyons, 2011; Perkins, 1993, 2000;
 606 Perkins and Leininger, 1989a, b, 1990), we believe that these flexions do not constitute a
 607 storage but a loss of energy for the projectile because the vertical movements of the hook and
 608 dart butt are not made in the direction of the target. The mathematical simulations made by
 609 Denny (2019: 71) show that these vibrations of the dart reduce its speed and range.
 610

611 4.1.4. Projection angle of the dart

612
 613 The dart and hand move in different directions. A straight line can be drawn from the initial
 614 point of the hook to its position when the dart leaves the spear-thrower. If we draw a second
 615 line from this same initial point to the position occupied by the hand when the dart becomes
 616 autonomous, we can measure this difference in trajectory by an angle (α) that we call the
 617 projection angle (Fig. 8) (projection angle of CL: $12 \pm 1^\circ$, of JC: $10 \pm 1^\circ$). This angle appears
 618 to be specific to the propulsion movement and differs from the angle of elevation that the
 619 shooter will communicate to the projectile in order to hit a more or less distant target.



620
 621
 622 Fig. 8 Existing projection angle (α) between the trajectory of the hand and that of the
 623 spear-thrower hook when two rectilinear segments are traced between the point of
 624 origin of the movement of the spear-thrower hook and their respective positions when
 625 the dart becomes autonomous. A: Initial point of the hook; B: start of the elliptical phase
 626 of the hook; C: maximum elevation reached by the hook and the dart's butt; D: release
 627 of the dart. MA, MB, MC and MD, position of the hand at these different propulsion
 628 moments.
 629

630 The projection angle varies according to the individual technique and the length of the spear-
 631 thrower. For an experienced shooter, this angle remains constant, as it is a fundamental
 632 condition for the repeatability between throws and, consequently, for accuracy. This
 633 measurement is therefore a valuable tool for evaluating technical variations between shooters
 634 and assessing the consistency of their movements.
 635

636 4.1.5. Conclusive observations for experiment 1

637
 638 Four distinctive features could be identified that are essential to understand how a spear-
 639 thrower operates:

- 640 • a longer displacement of the spear-thrower hook in comparison to the hand;
- 641 • the movement of the hook begins with a linear phase and continues with an elliptical
 642 displacement;
- 643 • the dart undergoes several successive flexions;
- 644 • the overall trajectories of the hand and the hook of the spear-thrower create a specific
 645 projection angle.
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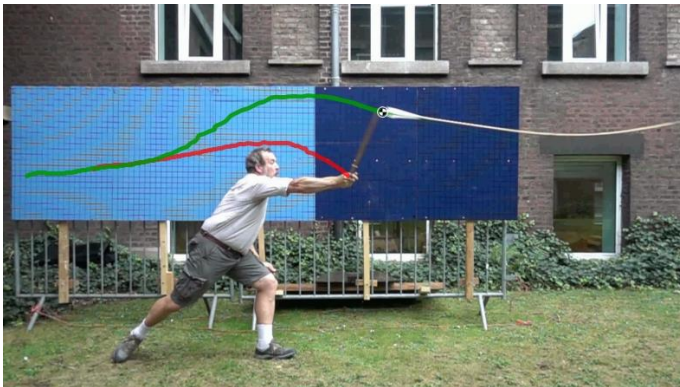
647 4.2. Evaluating the impact of different variables on dart propulsion

648

649 A set of experiments was conducted to evaluate the impact of the flexibility of the dart (spine),
 650 the length of the spear-thrower and the length of the propulsion phase.

651 4.2.1. Impact of the dart's spine (experiment 2)

652
 653 In addition to the reference dart (D2) used in the first experiment, we tested five more darts
 654 (D3–D7). Independent of the rigidity of the dart, all confirm the same four characteristics of the
 655 propulsion phase identified earlier: the hook moves more than the hand, the propulsion shows
 656 two linear and elliptical phases, the dart flexes, an angle of propulsion results from the differing
 657 trajectory of the hand and the hook. No significant differences can be noted for the altitude
 658 reached by the hook and the hand (supplementary online file 2, Table 1) or for the propulsion
 659 times. Nevertheless, the most flexible darts (D5 and D6) have a greater propulsion distance
 660 than the other darts (supplementary online file 2, Table 2). The increased flexion of the dart
 661 and perhaps also the slightly later separation may explain this. The increased flexibility does
 662 not, however, seem to offer any gain in terms of the energy transferred to the dart, judged by
 663 their more limited penetration into the target (impact energy was not measured in this
 664 experiment). We found that D6, because of its important flexibility, shows a delay in its flexion
 665 when it separates (see Fig. 9). The comparison of Fig. 5 and 9 clearly shows the influence of
 666 the spine on the behaviour of the dart. The second flexion of the dart (concave, u flexion) is so
 667 intense that the descending movement of the hand and the spear-thrower attenuate it, but this
 668 is not sufficient to fully straighten the dart or to create the third convex flexion (n flexion), as
 669 observed for more rigid projectiles. The third flexion appears once the dart has become
 670 autonomous, probably caused by the downward movement of the hook and the inherent
 671 elasticity of the projectile. The more rigid darts (D3 and D4) also show these successions of
 672 flexions, but to a lesser extent, and a certain tendency for the projectile's butt to tilt during
 673 separation. This experiment shows that the dart's spine significantly influences the flight of the
 674 projectile and the angle of incidence, i.e., the angle between the ballistic trajectory and the
 675 actual trajectory of the projectile's tip at impact (see Coppe et al., 2022). For more details, see
 676 supplementary online file 2.
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681
 682
 683 Fig. 9 Dart D6: because of its great flexibility, it shows a bending “delay” at the moment
 684 of its separation.

685 4.2.2. Impact of spear-thrower length (experiment 3)

686
 687 Three spear-throwers with different lengths were used to shoot a single dart by one shooter to
 688 evaluate the impact of spear-thrower length. For the three spear-throwers, the same four
 689

690 characteristics of the propulsion phase mentioned earlier could again be observed. We
 691 observe that the length of the spear-thrower influences the linear and the elliptical sub-phase
 692 of the hook as well as the total propulsion distance (supplementary online file 3, Table 3). While
 693 the displacement and altitudes reached by the propelling hand remain the same regardless of
 694 the spear-thrower used, those reached by the hooks vary according to their length during the
 695 elliptical phase (supplementary online file 3, Table A.3.2 and A.3.3). This gives the dart
 696 launched by the 75 cm spear-thrower a greater angle of projection (16°) than the other two
 697 spear-throwers (angle of projection of 8° with the 30 cm spear-thrower, $12 \pm 2^\circ$ with the 51
 698 cm spear-thrower) (supplementary online file 3, Table A.3.4). The three curves for the hook
 699 show that the starting altitude of the movement is identical. Evidently, when the length of the
 700 spear-thrower increases, the starting point moves backward and the release moves further
 701 forward and upward. Whatever spear-thrower is used, the sequence of dart flexions detailed
 702 above remains the same. The total duration of the propulsion phase varies little amongst the
 703 three spear-throwers (max 0.04 s) (supplementary online file 3, Table A.3.4). A longer spear-
 704 thrower increases the distance covered in nearly the same time, thereby granting the hook and
 705 dart a higher release velocity, though this demands additional effort from the shooter. This
 706 increase in speed stems from the greater total distance travelled by the hook, both during the
 707 linear phase and, more notably, during the elliptical phase. Indeed, the longer the spear-
 708 thrower, the greater the circular velocity of the hook during the wrist's rotation but a longer
 709 spear-thrower requires more effort from the shooter's wrist (see section A 1.2.2). If the spear-
 710 thrower is too long (compared to the dart's weight) and the wrist lacks sufficient strength, the
 711 spear-thrower's rotation will be slower, thus prolonging the duration of the elliptical phase. The
 712 optimal length of a spear-thrower is likely to be found in balancing the increase in distance
 713 covered by the hook and the shooter's ability to ensure its rotation as swiftly as possible.
 714 Additional experiments will help to clarify the extent of the phenomenon and its limitations. For
 715 more details, see the supplementary files.
 716
 717



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 719
 720 Fig 10. Curves of hook and hand displacement for different spear-thrower lengths
 721 (experiment 3). To improve readability, travel curves of the hook have been artificially
 722 separated from those of the hand. The trajectories of the hand are highly similar regardless
 723 the spear-thrower, but the trajectory of the hook proves to be strongly influenced by spear-
 724 thrower length.
 725

726
 727 4.2.3. Influence of the length of the propulsion phase and the shooter (experiment 4)
 728

729 This experiment has two components: first, the influence of the length of the propulsion phase
 730 is evaluated and subsequently the influence of the shooter. Again, the same four
 731 characteristics were observed and details can be found in supplementary file 4.
 732

733 4.2.3.1. Shorter propulsion phase

734
 735 In the case of a shorter propulsion phase, the movement is essentially centred on the arm and
 736 shoulders, the body is in a more vertical position and the starting point moves upward. This
 737 gain in altitude is maintained throughout the two phases of propulsion. The curves made by
 738 hand and hook have the same general shapes but with a variation in altitude due to the
 739 shooter's body position. We see that the total propulsion distance is shorter than for the
 740 reference series: the linear displacement phase is about 30 cm shorter, while the elliptical
 741 phase remains largely the same. The linear displacement now represents only 25% of the
 742 motion whereas it was 34% of the total propulsion previously (Fig. 11). By contrast, the
 743 propulsion time is longer for the short movement. Several hypotheses can explain this: a lack
 744 of experience on our part with the difficulty of setting the projectile in motion over a short
 745 distance, or the difficulty to rotate the spear-thrower during the elliptical phase when the mass
 746 of the projectile is high (the dart used weighs 161 g). The angle between the hand and hook
 747 trajectory increases by 3 to 4° in comparison with a long movement. As a result, the dart flies
 748 along an accentuated parabola (cf. Fig. 11).



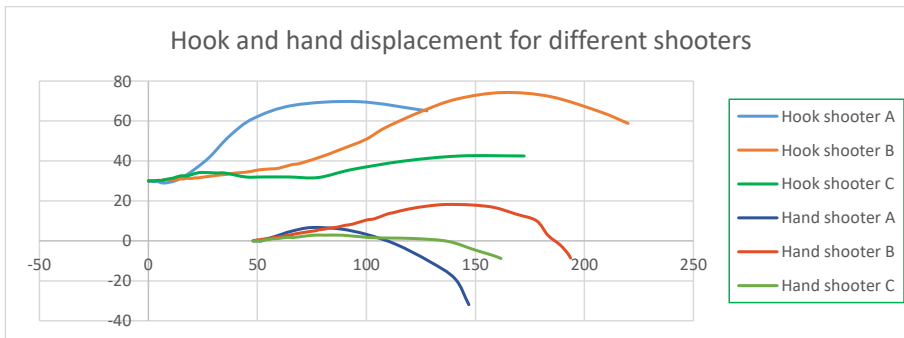
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 751 Fig. 11 Curves of the hook and hand displacement for the spear-thrower (ST1) used
 752 with different propulsion gestures (experiment 4). For clarity, the curves over which the
 753 hook travels have been separated from those of the hand. In reality, different body
 754 positions and gestures can cause variations in initial hand and hook altitude.
 755

756 4.2.3.2. Influence of the shooter

757
 758 Exploratory videos were made with three external shooters who regularly participate in the
 759 European Prehistoric Weapons Championship. The general propulsion trajectories prove to
 760 correspond to our model with some variation due to the individual gestures (Fig. 12). Shooter
 761 A uses a very short propulsion movement centred on the arm and forearm, with very little

762 rotation of the chest. His propulsion movement takes place in a vertical plane. Shooter B uses
 763 a propulsion movement similar to ours with a displacement of the body weight from one leg to
 764 the other and a rotation of the chest. The propulsion movement also takes place in a vertical
 765 plane. Shooter C uses an intermediate propulsion movement centred on the arm and forearm,
 766 with a rotation of the chest, but with a movement in an oblique plane. Ideally, the latter gestures
 767 require another observation angle to be able to adequately take into account the displacement
 768 in three dimensions. The very short linear phase of shooter A (29 cm!) is particularly noteworthy
 769 with the elliptical phase representing the main part of the propulsion movement. The lateral
 770 movement of shooter C is difficult to analyse but his linear phase appears to be intermediate
 771 between shooter A and B.
 772

773 With the starting altitude as reference, the dart launched by shooter B has a "flat" trajectory
 774 (angle of $11^\circ \pm 2^\circ$) that is quite similar to the ones of JC, CL and shooter C. Shooter A reaches
 775 very high altitudes during projection because of his size, position and short movement (the
 776 hook is 206 cm from the ground during dart separation, in comparison to between 125 and 170
 777 cm for other users. Given his particular gesture, shooter A also has the highest projection angle
 778 (22°). Shooter C keeps a rather constant altitude, but his elliptical propulsion phase ends
 779 higher, probably to provide his projectile with sufficient elevation to fly to the target. The angle
 780 between the trajectory of the hook and the hand is difficult to specify for Shooter C.
 781 Shooter A shoots with the shortest propulsion phase (0.112 s) (but not necessarily the fastest
 782 given the short distance travelled by the spear-thrower); shooter B shows propulsion times
 783 similar to JC and CL, while shooter C is again difficult to classify given the difficulty of analysing
 784 his propulsion sequence (see Fig. 12).
 785



786 Fig. 12 Hook and hand curves obtained from external users (experiment 4). Each
 787 shooter's hand movement curves were drawn from a single initial point. In reality, body
 788 positions and gestures can cause variations in initial hand and hook altitude. For clarity,
 789 curves travelled by the hook have been separated from those of the hand.
 790

791 4.3. Theoretical model for dart propulsion

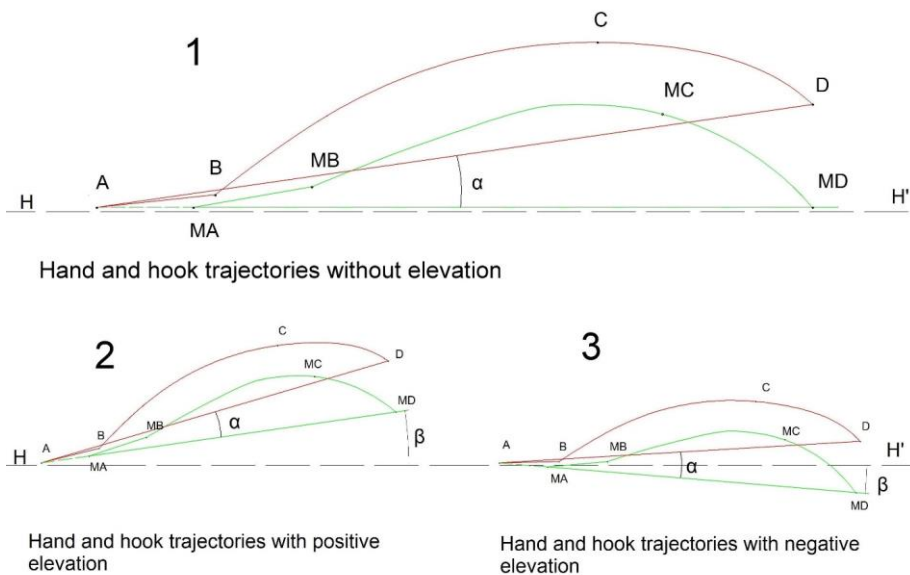
792 The experiments and analyses of propulsion sequences (also see supplementary online file 1)
 793 show that the four characteristics of the propulsion phase observed during the first experiment
 794 occur whatever the material (dart and spear-thrower) and gesture used. They can thus help to
 795 explain how a spear-thrower operates. A theoretical model can thus be proposed that reflects
 796 the greater displacement of the spear-thrower hook than the hand, two successive phases
 797 (linear and elliptical) for the hand and hook movement, a specific propulsion angle due to how
 798 the hook and hand move and the flexions of the dart created by the elliptical movement of the
 799 hook (see Fig. 13). During the linear phase (between points A and B), hook and dart trajectories
 800 are parallel and almost straight. The angle between the trajectory and the horizontal reference
 801 varies depending on the elevation provided by the shooter and his gesture. During this phase,
 802
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804 a first convex flexion of the dart may appear due to the lifting of the propelling hand. Between
 805 point B and D, the hook follows a more or less accentuated elliptical trajectory. The path of the
 806 hook results from the movement of the wrist combined with the rotation of the spear-thrower.
 807 Between B and C, the hook goes up and pushes the dart's butt upwards (which causes the
 808 concave (u-shaped) dart flexion). Between C and D, the hook goes downwards together with
 809 the dart's butt (which causes the convex (n-shaped) dart flexion). Between MA and MB, the
 810 movement of the hand is linear. Between MB and MD, the hand follows an elliptical trajectory
 811 where MC corresponds to the position of the hand when the hook is higher. MD is the point
 812 reached by the hand when the projectile takes off.

813
 814 The particular characteristics of the trajectories and their different segments are influenced by
 815 the shooter, his gestures and the effective length of the spear-thrower. The degree to which
 816 the dart flexes depends on its spine and the energy transferred by the spear-thrower hook.
 817 This theoretical model can be used as a reference to study the positions and gestures of other
 818 shooters, but also to simulate propulsion curves for when a shooter changes his movement or
 819 his spear-thrower.

820 While the theoretical model is based on an ideal shooting distance, two variations are also
 822 presented (Fig. 13). When propulsion conditions remain the same, a heavier dart or a differing
 823 launching distance will necessitate another angle under which the dart will be launched. The
 824 movement of the hand will remain the same, but the angle of elevation will have to be modified.
 825 This practice (common to all types of projectiles, balls, bows and firearms) will be marked by
 826 the appearance of a more or less important angle (β) between the MA–MD line (movement of
 827 the hand) and a horizontal reference line (the maximum range is reached at an angle close to
 828 45° , Courty and Kierlik, 2012).

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Fig. 13 Theoretical model of propulsion. (1) Propulsion trajectory of the dart's butt and the spear-thrower hook without initial elevation (10 m shots). (2) Modelled trajectory for

836 when the shooter wants to reach a greater distance (positive elevation angle β). (3)
 837 Modelled trajectory for when the target is nearby (negative elevation angle β). A: Initial
 838 point of the hook; B: start of the elliptical phase of the hook; C: maximum elevation
 839 reached by the hook and the dart's butt; D: release of the dart. MA, MB, MC and MD,
 840 position of the hand at different propulsion moments.

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843 4.4. The flight of the dart

844

845 In theory, and without considering the elevation angle at which it was propelled, a dart flies
 846 along a more or less accentuated parabolic trajectory (Benson, 2004: 95; Cotterell and
 847 Kamminga, 1990: 160; Lepers, 2010: 111) determined by its own characteristics (mass, spine,
 848 fletching area, etc.) and the energy received during the propulsion phase. In reality, the
 849 displacement of the dart is not parallel to the theoretical trajectory but shows an undulating
 850 movement in a conical volume of which the characteristics have been mentioned earlier (see
 851 Coppe and Rots, 2017: 114; Coppe et al., 2022; Lepers, 2010: 114). Many authors mention
 852 these oscillations without considering their orientation (Baugh, 1998: 40, 2003: 349; Cotterell
 853 and Kamminga, 1990: 169; Denny, 2019: 71; Pettigrew, 2014: 10, 2015: 7; Whittaker, 2014:
 854 1, 2016a: 67, 2017: 163; Whittaker and Maginnis, 2006: 1), though Pettigrew (2015: 9)
 855 specifies that "spinning is not correlated with the plane of oscillation". The oscillating movement
 856 results from the combination of several factors (Coppe and Rots, 2017: 114; Lepers, 2010:
 857 111, 114): the amount of energy transferred to the dart's butt by the spear-thrower, the flexion
 858 resulting from the various vertical impulses received during propulsion, and the dart's
 859 characteristics (spine, tip mass, fletching surface). These oscillations can have a significant
 860 effect on the accuracy and angle of incidence of the projectile (Coppe et al. 2022). If the flight
 861 distance before impact is sufficiently long, these flexions disappear and the dart adopts a flight
 862 parallel to its theoretical ballistic trajectory (Lepers, 2010: 114, Coppe and Rots, 2017: 114).
 863 In the case of our experiments with firing distances of 10 m and a dart with a spine of less than
 864 5 cm, the dart's shaft is not yet completely "straightened" at the time of impact and its actual
 865 trajectory does not (yet) correspond to the theoretical ballistic trajectory (Coppe et al., 2022).

866 5. Discussion

867 The experiments presented here document the interactions between the shooter and the
 868 spear-thrower. This allows for a more detailed explanation of the complex phenomenon in
 869 which energy is transferred from the shooter to the dart. Compared to a manual launch, the
 870 spear-thrower offers several advantages: it extends the projectile's propulsion distance without
 871 significantly increasing the duration of the initial movement (first acceleration) and it enhances
 872 the projectile's velocity by considerably increasing the speed of the spear-thrower's hook
 873 during the elliptical phase (second phase of acceleration). The spear-thrower also facilitates a
 874 more efficient transfer of muscular effort from the shooter to the projectile. Up to now, three
 875 hypotheses had prevailed in the literature to explain the functioning of the spear-thrower. Most
 876 authors consider that the spear-thrower is a lever (Cattelain, 1994, 1997; Cotterell and
 877 Kamminga, 1990; Cundy, 1989; Lansac, 2004; Whittaker, 2016a; Whittaker et al., 2014;
 878 Whittaker and Maginnis, 2006) that operates like a speed amplifier (Cundy, 1989; Cotterell and
 879 Kamminga, 1990; Whittaker, 2016a: 66), though Cundy admits that this does not represent the
 880 complete picture (1989: 53). Other authors argue that the spear-thrower provides a thrust
 881 extender (Howard, 1974; Palter, 1977; Raymond, 1998). Stodiek (1988) considers the spear-
 882 thrower as an arm extender, but he relies on Cundy's technical explanations (Stodiek 1993).
 883 A third group of authors considers that the spear-thrower and dart function as a spring (Perkins
 884 and Leininger, 1989a, b, 1990; Perkins, 1993, 2000a). By contrast, we have shown that two
 885 phenomena interact, the lever and the arm extender and that an important part of the flexions
 886 of the dart is created by the vertical movement of the spear-thrower.
 887

888 Even though many authors consider that spear-throwers operate through a “complex lever
889 system” or a multiple lever system (Cattelain, 1994: 6; Cundy, 1989; Cotterel and Kamminga,
890 1990: 166; Lansac, 2004: 30; Whittaker, 2016a; Whittaker et al., 2014; Whittaker and
891 Maginniss, 2006), consisting of a series of successive body levers, we are not aware of a
892 detailed study that would support this hypothesis. Some authors offer partial explanations of
893 how the wrist and forearm operate (Cundy, 1989; Cotterel and Kamminga, 1990) but they do
894 not extend their study to the other joints of the body, aside from mentioning that the spear-
895 thrower’s energy can be increased by mobilising the entire body (Cotterel and Kamminga,
896 1990: 164). As an example, our films showed very clearly that the spear-thrower provide a
897 greater extension of the forearm at the end of the propulsion movement compared to a hand-
898 cast spear (Fig. 4 and 5). This extension allows for an increase in the horizontal movement of
899 the spear-thrower and increases the energy transmitted to the projectile by the work of the
900 forearm. It seems that since the rediscovery of the spear-thrower and its practice, the attention
901 has mainly been focused on the rotational movement of the spear-thrower, wrist and forearm
902 to the detriment of the entire propulsion phase. By contrast, the displacement of the spear-
903 thrower through the movement of the hand before and during rotation is not taken into account.
904 In fact, we have observed that the key point of the propulsion phase is not the rotation of the
905 spear-thrower, but the displacement of the spear-thrower hook during the entire propulsion
906 phase. The hook transmits the energy of the shooter and the spear-thrower to the dart. A
907 spear-thrower cannot be reduced to a lever or an arm extender, but its operation combines
908 both. The spear-thrower increases the propulsion distance, the acceleration given to the
909 projectile, and it changes the propulsion angle (the difference between the movement of the
910 hook and the hand).

911
912 The essential point to understand the total movement of the spear-thrower hook requires a
913 fixed reference point, outside the movement. Indeed, the propulsive hand or the spear-thrower
914 fulcrum are not acceptable reference points because they move and participate in the
915 propulsion movement.

916
917 Whittaker has argued that the spear-thrower functions as a lever based on a comparative
918 experiment using two atlatls of different length in which he consistently achieved a greater
919 distance with a longer atlatl (Whittaker and Kamp, 2011: 21, Whittaker, 2016a: 66). The
920 extended lever of a longer spear-thrower indeed ensures that the hook achieves a greater
921 velocity at the end of its rotation. However, our theoretical model introduces two additional
922 factors that contribute to the increased range of the dart when a longer spear-thrower is used:
923 the hook’s starting position lies further back and the angle of projection of the overall propulsion
924 motion is higher. These three factors (extended thrust distance, higher hook speed, greater
925 angle of projection) collectively explain the superior range achieved with the longer spear-
926 thrower. This explanation is consistent with the principles of ballistics: it is possible to increase
927 the range of the projectile by increasing the energy of the projectile (in our case a longer and
928 faster movement) and/or by throwing the projectile with a higher elevation angle (Courty and
929 Kierlick, 2012: 96; Pirlot, 2014: 81).

930
931 As documented, the trajectory of the hook differs with the direction of movement of the dart
932 during the elliptical phase. It is thus the vertical component of the spear-thrower hook
933 displacement that causes the flexion of the projectile’s butt during the elliptic propulsion phase.
934 This also explains the origin of the rear flexions of the dart (which continue after the projectile
935 separates from the spear-thrower). Cundy (1989: 66) observes the same, but considers that
936 the deflections of the projectile store energy. The recognition of these flexions initiated the
937 theory that a spear-thrower functioned as a spring, which was popular for several years
938 (Baugh, 2003; Lyons, 2011; Perkins, 1993; 2000; Perkins and Leininger, 1989a, b; 1990), but
939 was convincingly refuted by the experiments of Whittaker and Maginniss (2006). Also,
940 mathematical simulations have shown that the dart’s vibrations reduce speed and range
941 instead of amplifying it (Denny, 2019: 71). We have shown that the dart undergoes varying
942 forces in different directions during the elliptical phase. The deflections of the dart result from

943 the vertical movements of the hook during the elliptical phase and constitute a loss of energy
944 for the projectile. This loss is unavoidable, but it is less important than the energy input provided
945 by the elliptical movement of the spear-thrower, which increases the thrust distance and the
946 acceleration of the dart. The amount of energy that is lost depends on how much the dart
947 flexes.

948
949 Cundy (1989: 69) and Cotterel and Kamminga (1990: 170) insist on the necessary adjustment
950 between the spear-thrower and the dart's spine. We think that this statement can gain in
951 precision. We consider that to improve the shooting of a dart, its spine must be adapted to the
952 amount of energy received during the entire phase of propulsion. The energy accumulation
953 depends not only on the spear-thrower but also on the power and the propelling gesture of the
954 shooter (the influence of which was already acknowledged by Cotterel and Kamminga, 1990:
955 164). We can compare this with archery where practitioners know that the arrow's spine must
956 be adapted to the force and draw length of the bow to limit the arrow's flexion in flight (called
957 the archer's paradox, Klopsteg, 1943: 186; Lepers, 2010: 112; Lepers and Rots, 2020). We
958 think that the dart's flexion is comparable to that of an arrow and cannot be completely
959 eliminated. The best way to limit the dart's flexions in flight is probably the use of a dart with a
960 spine adapted to the amount of energy developed by a given shooter during the propulsion
961 phase (the dart's paradox). The measurement system for the spine that we have proposed
962 above allows researchers and users to obtain more precise and reproducible data in
963 comparison to the visual observation proposed by Baugh (2013).

964
965 Our theoretical model integrates the entire propulsion movement performed by the shooter and
966 is consistent with physical laws (i.e., $W = F \cdot s$ or the work equals the product of the force
967 strength and the distance traveled; expressed in joules, as for energy) (Benson, 2004: 188).
968 In our case, the energy that is applied to the butt of the dart is equal to the force transmitted
969 by the hook multiplied by the distance travelled by it. This formula shows that force and
970 displacement are interactive variables and that a shooter with a spear-thrower of a given length
971 can increase the energy transmitted to the dart by increasing the force applied to the hook, the
972 pushing distance or both at the same time.

973
974 We have shown that the spear-thrower significantly increases the pushing distance compared
975 to a manual launch. The spear-thrower does not multiply energy or force (no mechanical device
976 provides more energy than it receives), but if adequately used, it allows a better exploitation of
977 the muscular potential of the wrist, forearm, arm and also other muscles mobilised to increase
978 the amount of energy transmitted to the dart (Cotterel and Kamminga, 1990: 164). Using a
979 spear-thrower with a motion that would stop before the rotation phase or during rotation as
980 proposed by Steckel is not realistic (Steckel and Vincent, 2006) because it would not lengthen
981 the propulsion phase and even requires an interruption of the movement when it becomes
982 most efficient. This sudden interruption (probably during the concave bending phase (u-
983 shape)), together with the orientation of the dart at that moment, would propel the dart at a
984 larger projection angle, which could in itself explain the increase in range that some authors
985 observed from which they deduced a possible spring effect. Caution is also warranted for
986 Baugh's interpretations that only consider the horizontal displacement and the torque of the
987 wrist (Baugh, 2003: 345). This simplification leads to erroneous mathematical simulations (see
988 also Denny, 2019: 70). By comparison, Howard's (1974: 102) and Raymond's (1986) models,
989 which match with Stodiek's (1988: 317) explanation, simplify the second part of the propulsion
990 phase and do not consider the complexity of the propulsion trajectories highlighted in our
991 experiments.

992
993 In spite of the great variability that may exist in how to launch a dart with a spear-thrower, due
994 to spear-throwers of differing length or varying propulsion gestures, a close examination of
995 descriptions (e.g., Baugh, 2003; Cundy, 1989; Whittaker, 2016a) and video footage permits us
996 to confirm that all share common points that are in agreement with our theoretical model. The
997 main differences concern a varying initial altitude of the dart when the propulsion movement

998 starts, the length of each propulsion phase, the ratio between the amplitudes of the linear and
 999 elliptical phases and the resulting propulsion angle. The use of our theoretical model in
 1000 combination with detailed motion analysis (e.g., by using appropriate software, for instance,
 1001 Kinovea) would significantly improve our understanding of how the spear-thrower and dart
 1002 interact. It would allow us to identify the ideal spine of a dart in correspondence with the
 1003 quantity of energy that needs to be transmitted, as has been done for bows and arrows
 1004 (Lepers, 2010: 109). It would also allow a better comprehension of a dart's flight. These issues
 1005 are also crucial when one aims to understand fracture patterns on projectile points.
 1006

1007 **Conclusion**

1008 Several ballistic experiments published over the last decades have provided answers to
 1009 fundamental questions and have improved our understanding of the hunting techniques used
 1010 by past societies, but even though spear-throwers have been used and studied for a
 1011 generation, they remain poorly understood. On the basis of an experimental program
 1012 combined with high-speed camera recordings and detailed motion analysis, we have
 1013 demonstrated that a lever effect or a prolongation of the arm do not fully explain the operation
 1014 of spear-throwers. We have shown that the essential element to consider is the displacement
 1015 of the spear-thrower hook during the entire propulsion movement. The flexion of the dart does
 1016 not store energy but is the result of the hook being displaced perpendicularly to the shooting
 1017 direction of the dart. We have proposed a theoretical model on the basis of ballistics that should
 1018 be widely applicable in future examinations of spear-thrower use, for instance for spear-
 1019 throwers and darts of ethnographic collections and for the few prehistoric darts found recently
 1020 (Groshmeier, 2017a, b; Hare et al., 2004, 2012; Pettigrew, 2015a). We think that a ballistic
 1021 approach is an essential complement to archaeological and ethnographic studies. Some
 1022 recent examples have shown that experimental and fundamental studies permit precise
 1023 knowledge about how ancient weapons were used (Coppe et al., 2019, 2022; Lepers and Rots,
 1024 2020, Coppe et al. 2023). In comparison, a similar approach was successfully carried out for
 1025 the study of medieval bows and arrows found on the Mary Rose (Strickland, 2005).
 1026 Many questions still remain unanswered with regard to the use of spear-throwers and
 1027 additional precise and controlled experiments will be required to answer them in the future.
 1028 Future progress in our knowledge of prehistoric weapons requires the acquisition of accurate
 1029 physical and ballistic models. Such studies are fundamental and while they may at first seem
 1030 to distract from the archaeological reality, they are a precondition for improving our
 1031 understanding of the evolution of prehistoric weaponry.
 1032

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 1038

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Declaration of interests

The authors declare no competing interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.



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