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2 **Observational Learning of** 3 **Complex Motor Skills: Dance**

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7 **Synonyms**

8 [Observational learning](#)

9 **Definition**

10 The ability to learn new actions through observation is
11 a ubiquitous feature of human behavior. Whether one is
12 attempting to learn how to put a saddle on a horse or
13 to dance the Irish Jig, observation, along with physical
14 practice, is key for effective task learning. Decades of
15 behavioral research have provided clues that observational
16 learning shares common cognitive and neurophysiological
17 underpinnings with physical learning. Recent advances in
18 human neuroimaging techniques are enabling scientists to
19 directly quantify the brain systems underlying skill learn-
20 ing. Research paradigms investigating dance learning via
21 physical practice or observation reveal common neural
22 processes underlying both types of learning.

23 **Theoretical Background**

24 When we learn to walk, use a fork, or drive a car, we learn
25 by first observing others do the task, and then practicing it
26 ourselves. A wealth of research has demonstrated that not
27 only is observation helpful for learning, but that physical
28 practice is more beneficial when paired with observation
29 of new movements (Hodges et al. 2007). Behavioral
30 research on action learning suggests simultaneously
31 observing and reproducing the correct pattern of move-
32 ments, results in the quickest and most accurate learning
33 (e.g., Bandura 1977). Nevertheless, the ability to learn or
34 improve task performance by observation alone, without
35 concurrent physical practice, is a powerful capacity of
36 humans.

37 Early behavioral investigations of observational
38 learning by Sheffield (1961) led to the proposal that

39 observation of a motor sequence improved learning by
40 means of providing a “perceptual blueprint,” or a standard
41 of reference for how the task should be performed. Behav-
42 ioral studies comparing observational and physical learn-
43 ing support the value of a perceptual blueprint. While the
44 bulk of observational learning research has focused on
45 learning from an expert human model, the use of
46 a human actor performing the target behavior is not
47 a requirement for forming a perceptual blueprint (Hodges
48 et al. 2007). A more inclusive conceptualization of obser-
49 vational learning encompasses encoding any instruction,
50 whether physical or symbolic, that can provide a sufficient
51 model of the to-be-performed actions. The key distinction
52 of what defines observational learning is not the *type* of
53 instruction, per se. Rather, pure observational learning
54 is defined as the subject not concurrently performing
55 physical practice at the time the observational instructions
56 are provided.

57 One of the primary theories why observational and
58 physical learning have so much overlap is that they both
59 engage similar cognitive processes (Bandura 1977; Hodges
60 et al. 2007). However, as researchers in this field are quick
61 to point out, such findings do not mean that physical and
62 observational learning are *identical* cognitive processes;
63 particular features remain unique to each kind of learning,
64 but the common ground shared by these two types of
65 learning might provide insights into how we are able to
66 learn from both kinds of instruction. Contemporary
67 research on observational learning thus attempts to more
68 fully characterize points of overlap and divergence
69 between physical and observational learning.

70 While the wealth of behavioral research on observa-
71 tional learning provides a foundation for exploring the
72 comparative effectiveness and mechanisms underlying
73 this kind of learning, it is difficult to determine from
74 behavioral procedures alone the degree of correspondence
75 between cognitive and neural processes serving these two
76 types of learning. With the advent of functional neuroim-
77 aging techniques, including functional magnetic reso-
78 nance imaging (fMRI), scientists are making significant
79 advances in understanding how both types of learning
80 imprint the brain and behavior by determining whether
81 observational and physical learning modify similar or

82 distinct neural regions. If both types of learning engage the
83 same areas of the brain, then it seems plausible that both
84 observational and physical learning engage comparable
85 cognitive processes. Conversely, the emergence of different
86 areas of neural activity based on learning would be more
87 indicative of distinct cognitive processes underlie these
88 two types of learning.

89 **Important Scientific Research and Open** 90 **Questions**

91 Recently, several research laboratories have endeavored to
92 evaluate and compare brain and behavioral responses
93 during observational and physical learning of complex
94 motor skills, such as those required to dance. These exper-
95 iments identify a distinct set of brain regions that are
96 active both when observing and when performing
97 actions, including bilateral premotor and parietal cortices,
98 collectively referred to as the “mirror neuron system”
99 (MNS). The MNS encompasses a network of neural
100 regions involved in visual analysis of action as well as
101 areas involved in visuo-motor and action sequence per-
102 formance. As such, this system is thought to be a plausible
103 mechanism supporting new action learning, as it is
104 responsive to physical and observational experience for
105 a broad range of actions, spanning from simple keypress
106 sequences to far more complex skills such as playing
107 basketball, juggling, and dancing (Rizzolatti and
108 Craighero 2004).

109 Two studies in particular have demonstrated the
110 feasibility of using dance learning and observation as
111 a paradigm for investigating observational compared to
112 physical learning of complex action sequences. In one such
113 study, the authors evaluated the influence of observational
114 compared to physical experience on neural processing
115 during dance observation (Calvo-Merino et al. 2006). In
116 order to parse visual familiarity from physical experience,
117 expert men and women ballet dancers observed videos of
118 movements learned only by their sex, only by the opposite
119 sex, or moves that are performed by all dancers. The
120 motivation behind this procedure was to determine
121 whether equally robust action resonance processes may
122 be elicited by observation of movements that are equally
123 visually familiar (because men and women dancers train
124 together), but unequal in terms of physical experience.
125 The authors reported that when effects of visual familiar-
126 ity were controlled for, evidence for action resonance
127 based on pure motor experience was found in MNS
128 regions (inferior parietal and premotor cortices), as well
129 as cerebellar cortices. This study provided initial evidence
130 that observational and physical experience can imprint the
131 brain differently, but this evidence is tempered by the fact

132 that dancers’ observational experience was not precisely
133 controlled, and no measures of physical competence for
134 observed movements were recorded.

135 A subsequent study addressed some of these issues by
136 investigating whether, under certain situations, observa-
137 tional learning alone can lead to changes within the MNS,
138 thus broadening the capacity of this particular brain sys-
139 tem to include learning from pure observation (Cross
140 et al. 2009). In this study, novice dancers physically
141 rehearsed one group of simple dance sequences in
142 a video game context, and passively observed a distinct
143 set of simple dance sequences in between blocks of phys-
144 ical rehearsal. fMRI measures taken immediately before
145 and after a week of training revealed that a subset of MNS
146 regions showed comparable neural responses after physi-
147 cal and observational experience. The neural responses to
148 physical and observational experience were more robust
149 than responses measured while novice dancers observed
150 comparable untrained dance sequences whilst being
151 scanned. Moreover, participants performed physically
152 practiced and observed dance sequences more accurately
153 than untrained sequences. Considered together, the imag-
154 ing analyses from this study suggest that among this sam-
155 ple of novice dancers, physical and observational learning
156 share more commonalities than differences at a neural
157 level. The converging evidence from the behavioral
158 and neural measures serves to link the rich history of
159 behavioral research on observational learning with the
160 burgeoning field of neuroimaging inquiry into
161 action cognition.

162 A tentative conclusion that can be drawn from this
163 experiment on observational learning of dance is that we
164 can learn to dance through observation using the same
165 brain systems that are involved when physically practicing
166 dance. In this study, it is noteworthy that such clear
167 evidence emerged for observational learning in light of
168 the fact that participants were never explicitly told to try
169 and learn the sequences they watched each training day.
170 Evidence from other studies suggests that the amount of
171 observational learning can be markedly increased if par-
172 ticipants are explicitly instructed to try and learn the
173 information they observe during the training procedures
174 (e.g., Hodges et al. 2007). At present, a great need exists for
175 future research to explore the different parameters that
176 might influence observational learning at a brain and
177 behavioral level, including motivation to learn, which
178 part of the model provides the most information for
179 learning a new skill, and how different kinds of instruc-
180 tions might influence observational learning. Such
181 research should shed light on how educators and those
182 involved in rehabilitating individuals recovering from



183 neurological or physical injury might be able to capitalize
184 upon the brain and body's inbuilt mechanisms for learn-
185 ing effectively from observation.

186 **Cross-References**

- 187 ► [Implicit Learning](#)
- 188 ► [Neurophysiological Correlates of Learning to Dance](#)
189 [\(Dance Learning- Neurological Correlation of Complex](#)
190 [Action\)](#)
- 191 ► [Robot Learning from Demonstration](#)

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Galley Proof