

Reflecting on what is 'Skill' in Human Motor Skill Learning

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Abstract

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Humans have an exceptional ability to execute a variety of skilled movements. Researchers have been long interested in understanding behavioral and neurophysiological basis of human motor skill learning for advancing both fundamental neuroscientific knowledge and clinical outcomes. However, despite decades of work in this field there is a lack of consensus about what is meant by 'skill' in skill learning. With an advent of various task paradigms testing human motor behavior and increasing heterogeneity in motor learning assessments methods, it is very crucial to identify key features of skill in order to avoid any ambiguity that may result in misinterpretation or over-generalization of findings and have implications for replication work. In this review, we attempt to highlight the features of skill following a historical approach, considering the seminal work that led to the first definitions of skill and including also some contemporary concepts emerging from human motor learning research. Overall, based on this literature, we emphasize that skill has some fundamental characteristics, such as- i) optimal movement selection and execution, ii) improved movement speed and accuracy, and iii) reduced movement variability and error. These features of skill can emerge as a consequence of extensive practice/training/learning, thus resulting in a performance state beyond baseline level. We conclude that any neuroscientific endeavor aimed at understanding the essence of skill in human motor skill learning should focus on these aspects and provide some examples of tasks that can appropriately capture these features of skill.

Contribution to the field

Despite several decades of prevailing research in the field of human motor skill behavior, there is no strong consensus on what we mean by skill in skill learning. This can have serious implications for result interpretations and replication of findings from this area of work. In addition, this could be misleading not only for fundamental motor skill learning research, but also motor rehabilitation programs which aim to translate lab-based research findings for patient benefits. In this review paper, we attempt to highlight key features of motor skills that can serve as a framework for future studies on skill behavior. We hope this will favour homogeneity in motor skill learning research and help curb replication crisis. Most importantly, this will benefit translation of fundamental knowledge to clinical settings that rely primarily on agreed upon measures and definitions for scientific knowledge enhancement and knowledge transfer.

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30 **ABSTRACT**

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52

53 **KEY WORDS**

54 Motor skills, Learning, Motor control, Skill behavior, Movements, Motor errors

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68

69 1. INTRODUCTION

70 Human beings can learn to perform a variety of skilled movements ranging from
71 dancing, painting, playing musical instruments, riding a bicycle, driving a car,
72 playing a wide range of sports and so on. This ability to perform such complex
73 movements is undoubtedly one of the characteristic functions of the human brain
74 which enables us to interact with our environment. Even simpler actions such as
75 reaching for and grasping a cup of tea, holding a pen for writing and tying one's
76 shoelaces are complex problems for the nervous system, but are performed in a
77 rather seamless manner by us on a day-to-day basis. Motor skill learning is a key
78 ability that enables us to acquire and store such actions and distinguishes humans
79 from other species. As a society we value this ability which enables us to make a
80 wide variety of movements, and are awed by the fine skills of musicians, dancers
81 and sports players. Scientists have long been fascinated by this capacity of
82 humans to learn complex skilled movements and have tried to probe its underlying
83 neurophysiological basis to advance fundamental neuroscientific understanding as
84 well as for translational goals.

85 Literature available on skill learning can sometime confuse readers and/or
86 young researchers getting into this field of study. As a master's student doing her
87 thesis on skill learning and retention in 2014, the now co-author of this paper (Goldy
88 Yadav) often came across research papers loosely using the term 'skill' for tasks
89 assessing motor performance under controlled conditions (such as motor learning
90 under externally induced perturbations). Despite several decades of work, we still
91 lack a clear understanding of what we mean by skill in human motor learning
92 research field. *Challenges in formulating a formal definition of skill has been felt by*
93 *many, as our views are fragmented and lack consensus (as nicely elucidated more*

94 *recently by Christensen, 2019). This can have serious implication for result*
95 *interpretations and replication of findings in this area of research. Moreover, this*
96 *can be very misleading not only for fundamental motor skill learning research, but*
97 *also motor rehabilitation programs which aim to translate lab-based research*
98 *findings for patient benefits. A much-needed consensus on definitions and*
99 *measurement standards of task paradigms is critical for reducing the time lag in*
100 *translation of scientific discoveries for clinical practices (Shumway-Cook and*
101 *Woollacott, 2007; Morris et al., 2011).*

102 *This review paper is therefore an attempt to obtain clarity on what is meant*
103 *by 'skill' by highlighting key concepts that came out of some seminal work and how*
104 *those ideas can be used as a strong framework for current and future skill learning*
105 *research.* We aim to shed light on how our understanding of skill in the context of
106 human motor learning has evolved with time. First, we lay out what is broadly
107 meant by motor learning and highlight early theories of motor learning that shaped
108 our understanding of skills. Next, we delve deeper into a specific form of motor
109 learning that is of interest to us, i.e., motor skill learning and attempt to understand
110 the specific features of skill based on prevailing research in the field. Finally, we
111 conclude by emphasizing the key features of skill that should be incorporated in
112 motor skill learning research work to better assess, measure and understand the
113 underlying nature of human skill behavior. *We also provide some examples of*
114 *existing model tasks that very well incorporate these features.*

115

116 **2. WHAT IS MOTOR LEARNING?**

117 Motor learning can be broadly defined as practice induced changes in motor
118 performance. The early era of motor learning research involved studying motor

119 behavior using a 'task oriented' approach and the term 'skill' was often
120 synonymous with perceptual-motor performance. At that time there was little
121 emphasis on variables or factors that underlie motor learning at an individual level.
122 Such work explored global features of motor learning in humans (Hull, 1943), and
123 often involved gross measurements and scoring of movement parameters such as
124 movement time. Over time, researchers started shifting from these global
125 measures to local measures in order to better understand the nuances of human
126 motor behavior. Some of these assessments involved studying the amount of time
127 taken to process visual information before initiating movements, the role of
128 attention in motor performance and how error detection occurs during the
129 movement (Schmidt, 1975). As a result, a number of theories were proposed to
130 explain human motor learning. For instance, Keele (1968) proposed that 'motor
131 programs' are required for making precise and accurate bodily movements. These
132 motor programs were thought of as a sequence of 'stored commands' in the brain
133 which enables us to make a set of movements by seamlessly incorporating the
134 external feedback. Later in 1971, Adams argued that motor programs are abstract
135 memory forms that are prepared before movement initiation and contain
136 information about the pattern of muscle contraction and relaxation for a given
137 movement type (Adams, 1971). In other words, the human brain acquires and
138 stores a set of stored muscle commands that are ready to use at any given time
139 for making a movement.

140 Around the same time period, another popular theory about motor learning was
141 proposed by Schmidt (1975)- this theory was an attempt to explain why we need
142 not have distinct individual motor commands for each movement that we make.
143 According to this theory, there are clustered and generalized motor programs

144 called 'schemas', which can be fine-tuned to make specific discrete sets of
145 movements. In fact, long ago Bartlett (1932) had suggested that such schemas are
146 critical given the limited storage capacity of the human brain, and possibly underlie
147 our astonishing ability to quickly learn novel sets of movements. Interestingly, the
148 idea of schema formation underlying motor learning is evident in some recent work
149 as well (Sherwood and Lee, 2003; Newell, 2003; Shea and Wulf, 2005; Vugt et al.,
150 2014; Willey and Liu, 2018). This notion has also been used to explain motor skill
151 behavior. *For instance, Vugt et al. (2014) studied expert pianists and found that*
152 *highly skilled complex actions emerge from a combination of simpler movements*
153 *known as motor primitives (equivalent of motor schema). The authors argue that*
154 *our nervous system efficiently uses these motor primitives to produce a wide*
155 *repertoire of complex movements that can be enhanced through skill learning. We*
156 *believe these concepts of skill can also have implications for studying and*
157 *understanding expert motor skill behavior which typically operates on a different*
158 *timescale than lab-based experimental setup requiring hundreds of hours of*
159 *training, but may share underlying common features (for interesting work on elite*
160 *performers see Wulf et al., 2002; Beilock & Carr, 2004; Wulf, 2007; Abdollahipour*
161 *et al., 2015; Singh & Wulf, 2022).*

162 According to the schema model of motor learning (Schmidt, 1975), the
163 nervous system requires four parameters for a goal-directed movement - i) initial
164 task conditions, ii) response specifications of the movement to be made, iii)
165 sensory consequences of the executed movement, and iv) outcome of the
166 executed movement. Eventually after producing a set of movements, the nervous
167 system extracts abstract information about the relationship among these four
168 parameters. This abstract relationship is stored as schema to enable us to perform

169 these movements later when required. Once a schema has developed, only two
170 inputs/specifications are needed to this schema in order to execute a movement-
171 i) initial task conditions and, ii) the desired outcome of the movement. Schmidt
172 (1975) argued that since these inputs to the schema are never exactly the same,
173 every movement that we execute is almost always novel, although appearing
174 similar from a broader level. This view finds support from Bartlett (1932) who said,
175 “we do not execute the movement exactly as we have made it before”. This may
176 explain the inherent variability underlying complex movement execution (more
177 details on variability in Section 3.3). Basically, a motor response is nearly never
178 repeated given the number of possibilities that may arise from a given schema. In
179 this process of motor execution, sensory outcomes of the movement are
180 anticipated using the schema and each of the resultant sensory outcomes are
181 compared with respective incoming sensory information (interoceptive and
182 proprioceptive feedback) during or after the movement. In case of a mismatch
183 between the anticipated and actual sensory information, an error value is assigned
184 which is later used to update the schema. The primary goal of the nervous system,
185 therefore, during motor learning is to reduce such errors.

186 The errors resulting due to the mismatch between anticipated and actual
187 sensory consequences can also serve as a substitute for knowledge of results (KR)
188 which can be used to update the schema (Salmoni et al., 1984; Winstein, 1991;
189 Guadagnoli and Kohl, 2001). KR is one of the key ways to improve motor
190 performance and enhance learning. During a motor learning task, KR is mostly
191 presented in three ways so as to facilitate corrective responses (Adams, 1987) - i)
192 by directly presenting the pattern of the motor response to the participant for which
193 error must be inferred, ii) feedback in the form of the actual motor response that

194 the participant made along with the ideal expected motor response, where the
195 difference between the two is the error which can be easily inferred by the
196 participant; and iii) partial error information for the motor response made by the
197 participant. In addition to providing KR to improve motor performance, learning by
198 observation is another effective way. Newell (1985) proposed that learning through
199 observations may help in easy identification of errors, and hence enable efficient
200 motor responses. *Motor learning by observation has been mainly shown to*
201 *enhance performance in a number of studies (Shea et al., 2000; Wulf et al., 2005;*
202 *Stefan et al., 2005; Celnik et al., 2006; Granados & Wulf, 2007; Nishizawa and*
203 *Kimura, 2017; Kawasaki et al., 2018; Jayasinghe, 2019), with some distinctive*
204 *effects reported for observation and motor task type (please see Sorgente et al.,*
205 *2022 for details). KR and observation, therefore, may play a critical role (as*
206 *external factors/interventions) during skill acquisition to optimize skill performance*
207 *(more details in section 3.3).*

208 *The points described above highlight the broader aspects of human motor*
209 *learning. Now let's focus more specifically on how motor learning is studied in the*
210 *laboratory. In this context it is largely investigated using two classic paradigms-*
211 ***motor skill learning and motor adaptation.** Our understanding of each of these*
212 *two paradigms has evolved with time, enabling us to better understand the*
213 *nuances of human motor behavior. Motor skill learning is characterized by*
214 *performance changes beyond baseline/starting levels in the absence of any*
215 *external perturbation (more details in the next section). Such changes may be*
216 *characterized, for instance, by increased spatial and temporal accuracy of*
217 *movements over the practice session (Adams, 1987; Reis et al., 2009; van der*
218 *Steen et al., 2014; Yadav and Mutha, 2020). Features of skill learning include, but*

219 are not limited to- reduction in trial-to-trial variability, changes in speed-accuracy
220 relationship or other performance limiting variables, offline gains, acquisition of new
221 control policies and exploration (Dayan and Cohen, 2011; Shmuelof et al., 2012;
222 Telgen et al., 2014; Sternad, 2018; Vassiliadis et al., 2021; Du et al., 2022). In
223 contrast, motor adaptation involves modification of motor output to account for the
224 effects of externally induced perturbations and restoration of performance to pre-
225 perturbation levels (Krakauer and Mazzoni, 2011; Morehead et al., 2017; Kumar et
226 al., 2020). Figure 1 (Adapted from Chapter 8, Sternad, Huber and Kuznetsov,
227 2014) shows clear distinction between motor adaptation and motor skill learning.
228 As evident from the figure, the goal during motor adaptation is to return to baseline
229 performance (low motor error) by reducing the errors arising from external
230 perturbations. On the other hand, skill learning involves gradual reduction of errors
231 that are high in the beginning of the session because of the novel nature of the
232 movements and the need to acquire a new control policy. Skill acquisition involves
233 de novo learning in contrast to adaptation (Sternad, 2018; Krakauer, 2019).

234 In addition to these behavioral differences, adaptation and skill learning are
235 also thought to be dependent on distinct neural systems. For instance, motor skill
236 learning appears to be primarily mediated via primary motor cortex and basal
237 ganglia circuits (Floyer-Lea and Matthews, 2005; Halsband and Lange, 2006;
238 Doyon et al., 2009; Dayan and Cohen, 2011; Cantarero et al., 2013; Spampinato
239 and Celnik, 2018) while adaptation seems to requires an intact cerebellum and
240 posterior parietal cortex (Tseng et al., 2007; Mutha et al., 2011a, 2011b; Morehead
241 et al., 2017; Kumar et al., 2020). It is therefore critical to keep these differences
242 between motor skill learning and adaptation in mind while formulating research
243 questions on the nature of human motor behavior to avoid any ambiguity and over-

244 *generalization across paradigms (Ranganathan, 2021). Further, understanding*
245 *these distinctions also help exercise caution during data interpretation.*

246 In this paper, we focus on motor skill learning to unravel the characteristic
247 features of skill. With this goal in mind, we review the prevailing ideas of what is
248 meant by 'skill' in this field of study. We are specifically interested in skill learning
249 because it holds tremendous implications for motor rehabilitation- complex motor
250 skill behavior in humans and its rehabilitation following neurological damage are
251 critically dependent on the ability to learn and regain lost motor skills. We therefore
252 believe that it is very crucial to have some consensus and clarity on what we mean
253 by 'skill'. Adopting clear working definition(s) of motor skills is important when our
254 collective goal is to better understand human skill behavior.

255 256 **3. WHAT ARE MOTOR SKILLS?**

257 The ability to execute and learn a variety of skilled movements is an astonishing
258 human feat. Skill emerges as a consequence of learning/training/extensive
259 practice. Azim (2014) said- "Few of our limb movements will ever gain immortality
260 like Willie Mays, but what we accomplish every day is remarkable." Study of human
261 motor skills is of tremendous neuroscientific interest, and several attempts have
262 been made to define motor skills over these years. Pear (1927) loosely defined
263 skill as well-adjusted and integrated motor performance, which is dependent on
264 learning and optimal motor output, and therefore distinct from a mere capacity to
265 perform a given motor task. Later in 1952, Guthrie stated that motor skill is an ability
266 to perform with high certainty that require minimum energy and time. Willingham
267 (1998) proposed a neurophysiological theory of motor skill learning in which he
268 describes that skill learning emerges out of motor control processes. While motor
269 control involves planning and execution of movements (Hommel, 2009; Krakauer

270 et al., 2019; Merel et al., 2019), motor skill learning, in addition to involving
271 movement selection and execution, is the process through which movement quality
272 is improved with practice (Adams, 1987; Willingham, 1998; Dayan and Cohen,
273 2011; Sternad, 2018; Chen et al., 2018).

274

275 **3.1 Control Based Learning Theory of Motor Skills**

276 According to Willingham, there are three motor control processes underlying motor
277 skills- i) perceptual-motor integration which involves selection of spatial targets for
278 movement, ii) processing target features, and iii) transforming these target features
279 into desired muscle/motor commands (dynamic processing) to execute the skilled
280 movement. These control processes are fine-tuned depending on the task
281 specificity and requirements and these operate in an unconscious manner to
282 improve motor performance. *In addition, Willingham also added a fourth*
283 *component (iv) which involves using strategies (operating in 'conscious' manner)*
284 *to further enhance performance outcomes on a motor task, an idea that is now*
285 *being supported by several authors (Wulf et al., 2001; 2010; Fridland, 2014;*
286 *Christensen, 2019; Yadav and Mutha, 2020).*

287 Willingham attempted to present a comprehensive framework of motor skill
288 learning by including all these processes in the form of COBALT i.e., Control Based
289 Learning Theory. COBALT comprises of three key principles. First principle is
290 “neural separability principle” according to which each component of motor skill
291 processing is mediated by distinct neural areas. For instance, strategic-conscious
292 processes are mediated by Dorsolateral Prefrontal Cortex (DLPFC), perceptual-
293 motor integration is mediated by posterior parietal and pre-motor cortical regions,
294 target processing and planning by supplementary motor area and basal ganglia,

295 and dynamic processing by spinal cord (spinal interneurons). Several studies
296 support such a view of an engagement of multiple brain areas in mediating human
297 motor skill behavior (Van Horn et al., 1998; Penhune and Doyon, 2002; Poldrack
298 et al., 1998; 2005; Poldrack and Gabrieli, 2001; Reis et al., 2009; Dayan and
299 Cohen, 2011). The second principle of COBALT framework is “disparate
300 representation principle”. According to this, each of the four motor control
301 processes (mentioned in the previous paragraph) utilize distinct forms of
302 representations. Willingham (1998) proposed that strategic-conscious processes
303 are represented in allocentric (extrinsic world or object-centered) space. The other
304 three i.e., perceptual-motor integration, target processing and dynamic processing
305 rely on egocentric (intrinsic body-centered) space. This notion again finds support
306 in numerous studies of motor learning (Hikosaka et al., 1999; Criscimagna-
307 Hemminger et al., 2003; Lange et al., 2004). It is also believed that these two forms
308 of representations, viz., object-centered and body-centered, have important
309 implications for motor skill learning- the former mediates more effector-
310 independent representations whereas the latter mediates effector-dependent
311 representations (Colby and Goldberg, 1999; Krakauer et al., 1999; Hikosaka et al.,
312 1999; Lange et al., 2004; Boutin et al., 2012). In other words, skill can have both
313 effector-dependent and effector-independent components. Finally, the third
314 principle of COBALT is “dual mode principle”, which proposes two modes for
315 operation for these four motor control processes- conscious and unconscious
316 modes. The strategic and target processing are mediated by the conscious mode
317 whereas the other two factors, namely perceptual-motor integration and dynamic
318 processing are mediated by the unconscious mode.

319 Willingham's COBALT theory (1998) is, therefore, an all-encompassing
320 attempt to explain skilled motor behavior through motor control processes.
321 However, this theory is mostly centered around target information, which is mostly
322 about spatial accuracy, and therefore lacks any account of temporal aspects of
323 skill, which we now know as a key component of motor skill experiments in the lab
324 (Kantak et al., 2010; Shmuelof et al., 2012; Yadav and Mutha, 2016; 2020;
325 Vassiliadis et al.; 2021; 2022). Including temporal accuracy as one of the key
326 components of motor skill (in addition to spatial accuracy as already elaborated by
327 Willingham) is needed while investigating and assessing human skill performance.
328 Such components (for instance, spatial accuracy and temporal accuracy) will serve
329 to optimize skill behavior (by inducing task constraints) and will help us better
330 understand what constitutes a highly skilled performance.

331

332 **3.2 Skill as a reflection of a change in speed-accuracy relationships**

333 *Task success on a novel motor skill is highly constrained by difficulty levels which*
334 *can arise from trying to optimize various task parameters during initial stages of*
335 *learning. Hence, the main goal in performing and learning a skilled movement*
336 *involves an ability to make fast and accurate movements simultaneously. This*
337 *requires overcoming the trade-off between speed and accuracy which are*
338 *inherently constraint inducing factors in a motor skill task (Reis et al., 2009;*
339 *Shmuelof et al., 2012; Chen et al., 2018 Yadav and Mutha, 2016; 2020; Vassiliadis*
340 *et al., 2021; 2022). Speed-accuracy relationship has thus emerged as a key feature*
341 *of skill learning in humans.*

342 Changes in speed-accuracy relationship is, therefore, a global feature of motor
343 skill learning mediated by kinematic level changes such as reduced variability,

344 increased movement smoothness and speed that overall results in performance
345 improvements and task success (Shmuelof et al., 2012; Telgen et al., 2014). Even
346 though there is no formal definition of skill learning, across all major research
347 studies it is mainly characterized by improved movement quality, reduction in trial-
348 to-trial variability, increased movement smoothness, changes in speed-accuracy
349 relationships (Shmuelof et al., 2012; Telgen et al., 2014), offline
350 gains/improvements (Walker et al., 2002; Dayan and Cohen, 2011) and acquisition
351 of new control policies or strategies (Telgen et al., 2014; Yadav and Mutha, 2020)
352 to improve task success (Shmuelof et al., 2012). Out of all these, change in speed-
353 accuracy relationship is probably a global process that underlies motor skill
354 learning in humans because a highly accurate but slow movement or a fast but
355 less accurate movement will not yield a skilled movement that we observe in
356 humans (dance, sports, playing musical instrument and so on). This is in line with
357 Guthrie's idea (1952) we stated earlier relating skill to time and energy efficient
358 performance. Skill behavior, we believe, is therefore a result of performance
359 optimization involving overcoming performance limiting variables such as speed,
360 accuracy and motor variability (noise).

361

362 **3.3 Skill as performance optimization**

363 During acquisition of novel motor skills, one of the main goals is to reduce the
364 movement error and the variability in the error (Deutsch and Newell, 2004; Muller
365 and Sternad, 2004; Shmuelof et al., 2012; Telgen et al., 2014); while also
366 increasing movement speed, accuracy and efficiency (Willingham, 1998; Schmidt
367 and Lee, 2005). Sternad (2018) argues that although mastering a new skill
368 involves diminishing variability or noise in motor performance, variability plays an

369 important role in exploring successful action(s) in the initial stages of learning a
370 novel skill task. Given the redundancy at the level of movement outcome,
371 variability in that context may help a learner to find stable solutions that reduce
372 performance errors. For instance, Pekny et al. (2015) showed in their study that
373 healthy individuals increase trial-to-trial variability to make corrections while
374 making fast reaching movements in the absence of any reward. It is important to
375 note that such movement variability may also exist at the level of movement
376 execution without covertly affecting movement outcome (Todorov and Jordan,
377 2002; Müller and Sternad, 2009). Thus, high movement variability in the early
378 stages of learning can be beneficial for skill acquisition (exploration of task space
379 for finding optimal movement), while the goal of the nervous system may still be to
380 actively minimize it as learning progresses (Fitts, 1954; Telgen et al., 2014).

381 *Another challenge during skill acquisition is that there is no predetermined*
382 *performance limit to aim for and, therefore the ideal performance cannot be*
383 *planned or predicted in advance, yet the features of the acquired skill are*
384 *somewhat constrained by the external environment and in the context of the lab*
385 *setups, by the experimental designs and data collection/analysis procedures. In*
386 *other words, even if constrained by the environment, each individual has to ‘figure*
387 *out’ the ideal skill performance during the course of practice/training. Moreover,*
388 *there is a redundancy at the level of motor execution which adds additional burden*
389 *of choosing the optimal movement from a wide repertoire of feasible movements.*

390 This ability to choose the most optimal movement from a vast set of movements
391 forms an integral part of skilled motor behavior. Thorndike (1932) proposed that
392 the goal for an individual is to choose the action that gives maximum reward over
393 the ones that result in errors. This requires exploring the optimal solution during

394 learning probably through trial-and-error, and for that extensive practice is very
395 beneficial. Muller and Sternad (2004) used a virtual skittles task to study skill
396 acquisition and demonstrated that individuals are able to learn the optimal solution
397 that maximizes task accuracy after a substantial amount of practice. Similarly,
398 Shmuelof et al., (2012) studied skill acquisition on a motor task that involved wrist
399 flexion-extension and pronation-supination in an arc channel, and examined
400 changes in speed-accuracy tradeoff with practice and the underlying kinematic
401 improvements in performance. After five days of training the authors noted that
402 participants demonstrated large reduction in movement variability, increase in
403 movement smoothness and a shift in speed-accuracy tradeoff. This ability to
404 improve performance by changing speed-accuracy tradeoff, which was later
405 termed “motor acuity” by Shmuelof et al., (2012; 2014), is now considered a key
406 feature of motor skill behavior (Krakauer, 2019; Du et al., 2022). To sum up, skill
407 is a state of optimized performance that rely on extensive practice/training/learning
408 to be able to select and execute a movement with high speed and accuracy thus
409 resulting in low errors and variability on a given motor task.

410

411 **4. CONCLUSION**

412 A key form of human motor behavior is skill learning, which is distinct from another
413 popular task paradigm known as motor adaptation. Characterizing key features of
414 motor skills, we believe, is the first critical step towards understanding how humans
415 acquire this quintessential ability through training. *Based on prior work by other*
416 *researchers outlined in this paper, it appears that motor skill can be broadly*
417 *characterized by three key features (Figure 2)- (i) optimal movement selection and*
418 *execution, (ii) improved movement speed and accuracy, and iii) reduced*

419 *movement variability and error, as a consequence of extensive practice.* Here, the
420 first feature may rely on external cues such as target information and thus primarily
421 involve strategic/conscious motor control processes in the early stages of skill
422 acquisition. The latter two, on the other hand, may mainly be driven by unconscious
423 processes that help overcome task constraints resulting in a performance state
424 beyond baseline level. *A culmination of these aspects, we believe, finally results in*
425 *a seamless automatic skill behavior that we observe in humans, which may further*
426 *evolve as expert-level performances (with extensive practice/training) in the form*
427 *of dancing, painting, playing musical instruments, sports and so on.*

428 *The three key features mentioned above, therefore, should be included in any*
429 *task designed to capture and study motor skills. For example, lab based*
430 *experimental procedures of skill learning (wherein extensive practice spanning*
431 *months and/or years is not possible) can exclusively assess individuals on motor*
432 *tasks with a given speed-accuracy condition that requires them to acquire optimal*
433 *movement (from a repertoire of possible movements) leading to low*
434 *error/variability. Skill tasks that very well capture these aspects are, for instance,*
435 *those that involve tracing movements within a given speed-accuracy criterion and*
436 *pinch-based movements requiring optimal force production to make an accurate*
437 *goal-directed movement. In addition to these, even point-to-point reaching*
438 *movements that involve moving the effector end-points as well as the joints (elbow*
439 *and shoulder for instance) in a manner that reduces movement-related errors*
440 *towards a target (in the absence of any external perturbation) could be a simple*
441 *skill task to use in the lab (especially for patient populations with motor disability).*
442 *Such task setups and assessments can capture the most fundamental aspect of*
443 *human motor skill behavior which involves selection and execution of movements*

444 *that optimize time and energy (internally) while yielding successful purposeful*
445 *outcomes (externally). Hence, systematic use of such tasks would ensure*
446 *homogeneity at the methodological level, help build more comprehensive*
447 *theoretical framework and speed up cumulative progress of human motor skill*
448 *research. Further, the resultant clarity would help curb replication crisis in human*
449 *motor behavior research and benefit translation of fundamental knowledge to*
450 *clinical settings- both relying primarily on agreed upon measures and definitions*
451 *for scientific knowledge enhancement and knowledge transfer.*

In review

452 **FIGURE LEGEND**

453

454 FIGURE 1. Difference between Motor Adaptation and Motor Skill Learning: a) In

455 motor adaptation pre-perturbed behavior is re-established and therefore, no net

456 change in the motor performance per se as compared to the baseline/starting level.

457 b) During skill acquisition, there are performance improvements beyond baseline

458 leading to a net change in motor behavior (pre- versus post-learning). Adapted from

459 Chapter 8, Sternad, Huber and Kuznetsov, 2014

460

461 FIGURE 2. Key features of Skill in Human Motor Skill Learning- i) Optimal movement

462 selection and execution, ii) Improved movement speed and accuracy, and iii)

463 Reduced movement error and variability. The first feature may be mediated by

464 conscious/strategic motor control processes, whereas the other two by unconscious

465 motor control processes.

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In review

FIGURE 1

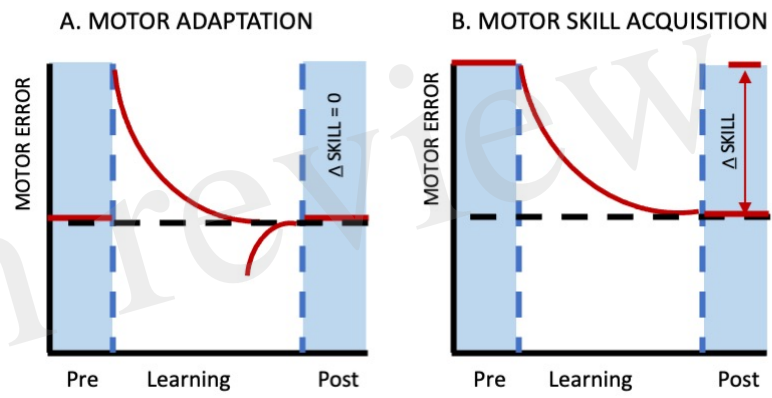
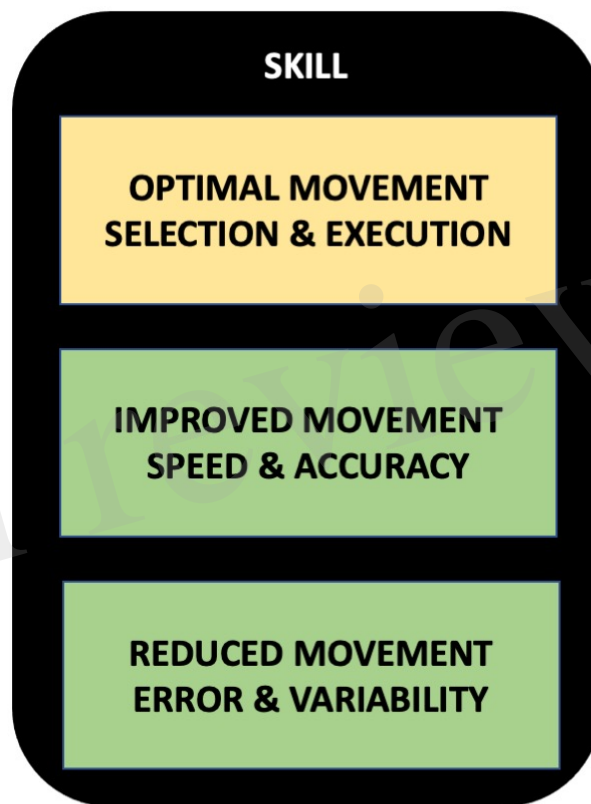




FIGURE 2



-  Conscious/strategic Motor Control Process
-  Unconscious Motor Control Process