

1 Imagery ability: the individual difference gradient and novel training methods
2 (Commentary on Kraeutner et al. (2018))

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19 **Key words:** Motor Learning; Combined action observation and motor imagery; AO+MI;
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33 **In this commentary on Krautner et al.'s (2018) paper we first outline a popular**
34 **theoretical framework, which is useful for conceptualising their findings. We then discuss**
35 **the implications of their data for contemporary perspectives on imagery ability, which**
36 **promote an individualised account. Finally, we describe novel methodologies for**
37 **enhancing imagery ability within this context.**

38 According to Jeannerod's (2006) principle of functional equivalence, executing,
39 imagining and observing action involves motor regions in the brain that at least partially
40 overlap with one another. While 'actual' actions involve a covert phase (e.g., motor planning)
41 followed by overt execution, action 'simulation states' (derived through imagery and/or
42 observation) are primarily covert, in that they typically occur in the absence of motor execution
43 (Frank & Schack, 2017). Simulation states can vary in the degree to which they involve covert
44 activation of the motor system, **and** the factors that moderate this variation are a topic of great
45 discussion. For instance, relatively little is known about the effects of motor experience (e.g.,
46 in elite athletes) for a given simulation state.

47 In general terms, motor imagery (MI) elicits cortical activity that is more bilateral and
48 widespread compared to motor execution. Similarly, the activation of brain regions during MI
49 is more bilateral and diffuse in novice performers, compared to their more experienced
50 counterparts (Burianová *et al.*, 2013). Presumably a novice with little experience of physically
51 executing the imagined action will have an inefficient and/or unorganised network of
52 neurocognitive processes underlying their imagery (Bar & DeSouza, 2016). Physical practice
53 should therefore serve to refine and organise these neural networks (i.e., a *neural efficiency*
54 effect). Indeed, studies have shown physical practice reduces the neurophysiological activity
55 present during imagery of the practiced action, in regions specific to the task (Lacourse *et al.*,
56 2005). Krautner *et al.*'s (2018) data help to rule out the potential confound in cross-sectional
57 studies that used only a between-group (expert vs. novice) design. While they found no clear
58 differences during MI of two highly practiced action types (sport-specific vs. non-sport
59 specific) within two expert groups (basketball vs. volleyball players), neurophysiological
60 involvement was comparatively more widespread and bilateral within both expert groups when
61 **they imagined performing** an unpracticed action. Notably, these cortical activation patterns
62 for the unpracticed actions resembled those in a novice group during imagery of the same
63 unpracticed action.

64 While those authors did not assess their participants' ability to physically execute nor
65 imagine these actions, the more specific activation patterns for practiced actions conceivably
66 reflect an enhanced ability to both perform and therefore imagine these actions. Accordingly,

67 *imagery ability*, at least in the motor domain, appears dependent on a performer's prior physical
68 exposure to the imagined action. While motor abilities are typically defined in terms of
69 movement outcomes, a key question is how should we define the ability to imagine
70 movements?

71 Theoretical accounts often remain vague or unresolved regarding the nature of imagery
72 ability. A long-standing assumption, however, is that the capacity for imagery is not simply an
73 undifferentiated general skill, but rather it is a skill that can be parsed into a series of sub-
74 attributes. Cumming and Eaves (2018) recently proposed that the ability to imagine something
75 relates to more than image generation and maintenance over time, but also to how we might
76 inspect, transform and repurpose these images for specific outcomes. It follows that
77 undertaking mental practice, as it relates to one or more of these cognitive **sub**-components,
78 should produce an individual difference gradient of imagery ability within each **facet**.

79 It was Galton (1880) who first observed that the detail and clarity with which
80 individuals experience mental imagery will involve an individual difference gradient across
81 any given population. Here we argue this gradient effect should be examined not only at some
82 global level of imagery ability, but it should also be quantified independently within each of
83 the sub-attributes as well. An intriguing question arising from Kraeutner *et al.*'s (2018) work
84 is how these independent cognitive processes might be reflected in the differential activations
85 of neural substrate for practiced vs. unpracticed actions, and how these patterns might change
86 over time due to the nature of training undertaken within specific sub-sets of imagery skills.
87 Ultimately, the development of a more nuanced definition of imagery ability will in turn help
88 us to identify the most appropriate tools to both measure and improve the core characteristics.

89 One imagery training protocol that is well-suited to a more individualised account of
90 imagery ability is Layered Stimulus Response Training (LSRT). LSRT is intended to help
91 people more easily generate and control their imagery experience by breaking down different
92 elements of an image, before bringing them together again in progressive layers (Cumming &
93 Eaves, 2018). To improve its effectiveness, this method can also be used in conjunction with
94 the instruction to perform motor imagery *during* action observation (AO+MI). This entails
95 imagining the kinaesthetic sensations of action, while synchronising this simulation with the
96 concurrently observed action (Eaves *et al.*, 2016a).

97 A strong evidence base of multimodal neurophysiological studies now
98 demonstrates cortico-motor activity is significantly increased during AO+MI compared to
99 either independent imagery or observation of the same action (e.g., Eaves *et al.*, 2016b; Macuga
100 & Frey, 2012; see Eaves *et al.*, 2016a), and that this moderates behavioural outcomes such as

101 force production (Scott *et al.*, 2017) and automatic imitation (Eaves *et al.*, 2014). The suggested
102 benefits of using combined AO+MI, rather than MI independently, is that it promotes an
103 increase in on-going attention to the observed action, which will intuitively offer continuous
104 and helpful opportunities for refining and updating the imagined (yet independent) internal
105 representation of the same action in real-time. In a sense, the action simulation derived through
106 observation might act as a type of scaffolding upon which the imagery-driven simulation can
107 be structured. In line with Krautner and colleagues' findings, this method would appear
108 particularly useful for constructing action representations that are not currently in the
109 performer's repertoire, that is, those characterised by the more diffuse and bilateral activation
110 patterns.

111 Combining LSRT with AO+MI methods now represents a clear opportunity to
112 investigate and train specific components of imagery ability. A fruitful avenue for future
113 research, which is motivated (at least in part) by Krautner *et al.*'s (2018) timely paper, will be
114 to examine how these methods might impact neural efficiency effects over time.

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116 **Conflict of interest**

117 The authors declare that there were no potential competing interests with respect to the
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121 **Author contributions**

122 All authors developed the main ideas behind the paper, before helping to draft and proof-read
123 the paper. DE led manuscript preparation and re-drafting, with contributions from JE, JB, MS,
124 RK.

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