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Editorial: Mental practice: clinical and experimental research in imagery and action observation

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This editorial accompanies 18 articles as part of a Frontiers research topic. The aim of this research 78 topic was to clarify the underlying mechanisms involved in mental practice of action, bringing 79 together evidence from a range of disciplines including cognitive neuroscience, experimental 80 neuropsychology, sport and movement science, clinical neuropsychology and clinical neurology. 81 The need to clarify the underlying mechanisms of mental practice is a pressing one. Mental practice 82 of action has been explored in sport psychology for several decades, with the aim to use mental 83 practice to improve sport performance. However, following the discovery of the mirror neuron 84 system (see for example, Rizzolatti and Craighero, 2004), the perspective of mental practice has 85 changed to a rationale based on neuroscience and to research focussed on understanding the 86 neural processes of mental practice. Evidence that the brain simulates action has resulted in a 87 common understanding of "functional equivalence" (Jeannerod, 1994): the idea that the mental 88 representation of an action or percept in the person's mind is the neural "equivalent" to the physical 89 action or *actual* percept. This ability to mentally represent action using the motor system allows for 90 action simulation, providing conscious mental rehearsal of movement (imagery), but also allows for 91 a common percept when observing the movements of others. Finally, in recent years, the disciplines 92 of clinical neuropsychology and neurology have begun to use mental rehearsal of action, or mental 93 practice, to produce improvements normally attributed to practicing actual movements with the 94 aim to improve impaired actions following brain-damage. 95

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At the heart of all of the research is the idea that mental practice of action uses equivalent neural 96 processes to those used in action execution. Of course, there is debate on what one understands 97 to be "equivalent," but the common reasoning seems to be that because mental practice (motor 98 imagery and action observation) is functionally or neurally equivalent to actual practice, the efficacy 99 principle of mental practice is that the motor areas are "trained," perhaps through Hebbian learning 100 "firing-rewiring." Although the scientific foundation of this idea of action simulation is very sound 101 in neuroimaging research (e.g., Sharma and Baron, 2013, this issue), the link to behavioral evidence 102 or efficacy is currently weak. The neural correlates of mental practice are just that: correlates and 103 do not justify inference about function, efficacy, or critical causality. There nevertheless seems to 104 be reluctance in the field to address the underlying mechanisms of mental practice efficacy. This 105 comes maybe as no surprise. A functional equivalence rationale for mental practice is intuitive and 106 appealing and will therefore attract interest and funding. It is hardly in the researchers' interest to 107 potentially undermine the idea by getting to the bottom of the matter. 108

We are now 15 or maybe 20 years into mental practice efficacy research based on the neural equivalence premise (Jackson et al., 2001). What is apparent is that the above simple interpretation of equivalence is not reflected in emerging data. It seems that mental practice efficacy is much more complex than simple Hebbian learning. There may be an analogy with the development of our understanding of the supplementary motor area (SMA) over that same time period. Initially SMA was thought of as a simple planning neural strip, but we have since understood the operation 114

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of SMA to be highly complex in the way it is involved in 115 inhibition. For example, in studies using fMRI, motor imagery 116 and action observation often do not activate the primary motor 117 cortex (M1) because the SMA is thought to supresses the M1 118 activity (presumably preventing the individual from actually 119 executing actions). The inherent role of inhibition in mental 120 practice and the complexity of efficacy mechanisms still require 121 further research. The popular notion that anything to do with 122 the mirror neuron system is a simple matter of equivalence, or 123 similarly that in applied contexts of mental practice equivalence 124 is the end of the conversation, needs to change. We now need to 125 go beyond what we are comfortable with and challenge what we 126 know, even if we risk undermining the last decades of research. 127

There are a lot of things that we do not know about 128 the mechanisms of mental practice of action. What does 129 each part of the brain engaged in mental practice actually 130 doing; how do processes relate to one another; what happens 131 when different areas in the network are damaged? There are 132 indications that insufficient drive to address the fundamentals 133 of mental practice is starting to become a real issue of 134 concern. The systematic review in this issue by Braun et al. 135 (2013) concludes that the clinical evidence for mental practice 136 efficacy in neurorehabilitation is weakening. The reasons for 137 this seems to be the lack of theory-driven interventions, 138 conceptual confusion (what does mental practice actually entail 139 in practice?) and general methodological malaise including 140 feasibility, dose, responders/non-responders, and adherence 141 issues in larger scale trials that are more representative of clinical 142 practice. Alternatively, when neuroscience evidence is carefully 143 implemented in theory-driven clinical evaluation of mental 144 practice, this may not translate to earlier reported clinical benefit 145 (Ietswaart et al., 2011). Indeed, Malouin et al. (2013) in this issue 146 highlight significant issues with the translation of experimental 147 findings into clinical practice. Malouin et al.'s critical review is 148 constructive, however, by suggesting ways in which the value 149 of mental practice can be redeemed by addressing underlying 150 mechanisms of mental practice efficacy. They conclude that the 151 field must now truly put the use of mental practice to the test. 152 Mental practice may indeed benefit the large number of stroke 153 patients in neuro-rehabilitation, but unless mental practice is 154 truly put to the test, this application may be superseded by other 155 clinical innovations, for example, robotic assisted therapy. The 156 field needs to deliver the necessary clarity on what exactly are 157 the "active ingredients" of mental practice; what are the things 158 that do not work and are mere distractions; which complexities 159 play a role. Only then can we formulate effective guidance on 160 what mental practice should actually entail in clinical practice. 161 In the meantime, mental practice therapy in neuro-rehabilitation 162 is already currently recommended treatment in many clinical 163 guidelines. This current position means that we need to act fast in 164 order to understand the processes and benefits of mental practice 165 for clinical use. However, the current questionable guidance, 166 range of possible uses, lack of efficacy etc... will likely undermine 167 clinicians' willingness to adopt the treatment in the forthcoming 168 years unless some clarity emerges. 169

Currently, much of the research effort goes to further 170 documenting the correlates of mental practice, i.e., the fact 171

that imagery and observation resonate with other motoric processes. In that respect, a number of the studies reported 173 in this issue are exceptions to this rule in the way these 174 studies ambitiously delineate the mental practice process by for 175 example comparing the quasi-visual and the verbal-cognitive 176 element of mental practice efficacy (Saimpont et al., 2013, 177 this issue), or by contrasting the efficacy of different visual 178 perspectives in mental practice (Callow et al., 2013, this issue; 179 Yao et al., 2013, this issue), or by separating the impact of 180 active imagery and passive observation (Eaves et al., 2014, 181 this issue). It is an issue of concern, however, that such 182 experimental approaches are generally not pursued (nor funded) 183 as part of clinical evaluations, when now is the time to 184 establish the finer details of mental practice efficacy in clinical 185 contexts. We therefore advocate more high risk, high gain 186 evaluations of mental practice that can establish the real 187 impact of mental practice on the lives of real people in the 188 clinic. 189

Further to bringing clarity with regards to the underlying 190 mechanisms of mental practice, there is a real need to establish 191 the modes of delivery and dosage. Clinicians furthermore need 192 tools to make predictions of which patients will benefit and 193 from what types of mental practice treatment. Lack of clarity on 194 patient characteristics such as motor imagery ability can easily 195 lead to miss-use of current findings exposing a risk of clinicians 196 dismissing patients who they believe would not stand to benefit 197 from mental practice-based rehabilitation. It would be great 198 if we could say with some level of certainty whether a brain-199 damaged patient has an intact ability to use and benefit from 200 mental practice therapies. Some authors would claim this can 201 be done either through subjective methods such as vividness 202 questionnaires, or through more objective methods such as 203 mental chronometry (Milner, 1986), or monitoring automatic 204 covert action simulation such as the cognitive hand mental 205 rotation task established by Parsons (1987), or the response of 206 the autonomic nervous system in mental practice as proposed 207 by Collet et al. (2013, this issue). There is pressure on the 208 research community to provide reliable measures of motor 209 imagery ability on which clinicians can base a decision whether 210 to provide a patient with mental practice rehabilitation. But 211 quite possibly we do not (yet) have reliable tools on which such 212 important decisions can be based. A study by de Vries et al. 213 (2013, this issue) documenting motor imagery ability in stroke 214 patients, showed that poor motor imagery ability as measured 215 by subjective vividness questionnaires was not associated with 216 poor performance also on *objective* imagery ability assessment. So 217 although vividness scores suggested the patients had poor motor 218 imagery, objective task performance in these stroke patients 219 suggested that motor imagery was in fact intact. This situation 220 could lead to the risk that clinicians when using only vividness 221 scores could dismiss patients as poor imagers and therefore 222 unable to benefit from mental practice-based rehabilitation, while 223 the patients' imagery ability would be deemed intact if measured 224 in other ways. Although Lawrence et al. (2013, this issue) report 225 that high motor imagery vividness is associated with an increased 226 benefit of mental practice in novice gymnasts compared to 227 the lower performance gains in those with low motor imagery 228

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vividness, this relationship may not be a simple one suitable for 229 rehabilitation treatment decisions. 230

This research topic aimed to address confusion regarding 231 the concepts of imagery and observation which has hampered 232 the progression of mental practice research both scientifically 233 and in translation to clinical practice. Wondrusch and Schuster-234 Amft (2013, this issue) remarkably point to the need to 235 address any confusion regarding mental practice even at a 236 therapeutic level. They advocate a good understanding of theory 237 and practice in recipients using mental practice rehabilitation 238 techniques by describing ways to teach stroke patients mental 239 practice. Other contributions in this issue broaden the concept 240 of mental practice in a number of ways, such as Howatson 241 et al.'s rationale for including the observation of one's own 242 movements within the mental practice concept (Howatson 243 et al., 2013, this issue), Smith and Wakefield's considerations 244 with regards to the timing rate of mental practice (Smith and 245 Wakefield, 2013, this issue), Kirsch et al.'s link between action 246 simulation and aesthetic experience (Kirsch et al., 2013, this 247 issue), Schack et al.'s novel theory of how mental practice 248 develops cognitive mental representation structures (Schack Q7 249 et al., 2014, this issue), and importantly Vogt et al.'s meticulous 250 review of the evidence of why mental practice should encompass 251 both motor imagery and action observation (Vogt et al., 2013, 252 this issue). 253

> Because neuroimaging studies provide strong evidence for action simulation, but the link to behavioral change is perhaps weak, we invited contributions to show that mental practice efficacy might be driven by neuroplasticity processes evoked

by action simulation. The preliminary work by Olsson and Lundstrom (2013, this issue) shows that successful action anticipation, as a precursor of mental practice, appeared associated with motor and temporal regions of the brain. Future research needs to investigate evidence of the associations between mental practice performance benefits and brain plasticity in the motor network. It is possible that combination of techniques is needed, including functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI), diffusion tensor imaging (DTI), MEG, and EEG.

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In conclusion, in an attempt to build on interdisciplinary 295 consensus on the nature and application of mental practice, 296 this research topic integrated perspectives from the full range 297 of the disciplines involved in mental practice research. It 298 furthermore intentionally did not seek to limit mental practice 299 to a narrow interpretation of conscious mental rehearsal of 300 movement or motor imagery, but instead advocates to include 301 imitation and action observation of self or others as an 302 interpretation of mental practice as Action Simulation Therapy 303 (AST). Such an interpretation of AST mental practice is justified 304 in light of the evidence for neural equivalence. What the 305 neuroscience of neural equivalence means for our understanding 306 of behavior, mechanisms, and applied efficacy of mental practice, 307 however, needs a much more sustained research effort devoid 308 of complacency and supported by high-risk-high-gain research 309 funding. With this shared and funded research drive it will be 310 possible to accelerate our understanding and agreement on the 311 core processes of mental practice, and therefore speed up the 312 translation of evidence-based benefit of applied use of mental 313 practice in sport and clinical practice. 314

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