Optimizing the Benefits of Mental Practice on Motor Acquisition and Consolidation with Moderate-Intensity Exercise.

Dylan Rannaud Monany[1], Florent Lebon[1,2*#] and Charalambos Papaxanthis[1*]

[1]INSERM UMR1093-CAPS, Université Bourgogne Franche-Comté, UFR des Sciences du Sport, F-21000, Dijon.

[2]Institut Universitaire de France (IUF)

[*] Equal contribution

Corresponding author: Florent Lebon

Florent.Lebon@u-bourgogne.fr

Abstract

The optimization of mental practice (MP) protocols matters for sport and motor rehabilitation. In this study, we were interested in the benefits of moderate-intensity exercise in MP, given its positive effects on the acquisition and consolidation of motor skills induced by physical practice (PP). Four experimental groups were tested: i) physical practice without exercise (PP-Rest), ii) mental practice without exercise (MP-Rest), iii) mental practice preceded by Exercise (Exe-MP), and iv) mental practice followed by Exercise (MP-Exe). We hypothesized that exercise before MP would further increase speed and accuracy at a finger-sequence task measured right after MP (potentiation of motor acquisition), whereas exercise after MP would further increase speed and accuracy the day after MP (promotion of motor consolidation). Motor performance (movement speed and accuracy) was measured during a sequential finger tapping task before (Pre-Test), immediately after (Post-Test 0h, acquisition), and one day after practice (Post-Test 24h, consolidation). Results suggest that exercise before MP did not additionally improve motor acquisition in comparison to the MP-Rest group (both for accuracy and speed, p's>0.05). Interestingly, moderate-intensity exercise after MP further increased performance during motor consolidation (speed, p=0.051; accuracy, p=0.028), at the level of the PP-Rest group. This novel finding represents a promising advance in the optimization of mental practice protocols in sport-related and rehabilitation settings.

Key words: motor imagery, acquisition, consolidation, performance, motor learning

Introduction

Motor learning is an important process to develop a profuse and skilled motor repertoire. Following physical practice (PP), movements are performed faster and more accurately (Karni et al., 1998). The positive effects of PP on motor performance can be observed with different timescales, from a single practice session to several days or weeks of practice. Previous studies reported that a few minutes of practice is enough to improve motor performance on various tasks, such as pointing or sequential finger-tapping (Spampinato et al. 2017; Ruffino et al. 2022; Walker et al., 2003). This fast-learning process is defined as *motor acquisition* and is considered the first step in the development of new motor memories. Motor memory consolidation, which is the stabilization or the improvement of motor skills between (off-line learning) or within practice sessions, necessitates extensive training (Krakauer and Shadmehr, 2006; Ruffino et al., 2021; Truong et al., 2022).

It is of interest that additional activities, such as moderate-intensity exercise, can assist physical practice and further improve skill acquisition and consolidation (Roig et al., 2013; Mang et al., 2014; Statton et al., 2015; Thomas et al., 2016). The positive effect of exercise depends on its intensity, i.e., moderate or high, and its timing with respect to the practice session, i.e., before or after. For instance, Statton et al. (2015) pointed out that a single bout of moderate-intensity exercise before PP promotes motor acquisition without any effect on motor consolidation. Interestingly, moderate-intensity exercise after PP promotes consolidation (Thomas et al., 2016). Roig et al. (2013) reported that high-intensity exercise, performed before or after PP, promotes motor consolidation without effect on motor acquisition. The positive effects of moderate- to high-intensity exercise on motor acquisition and consolidation are justified, at least in part, by exercise-induced neuroplasticity phenomena. We could cite the facilitation of long-term-potentiation (LTP)-like plasticity induction within the primary motor cortex during motor acquisition (Mang et al., 2014;

63   Ziemann et al., 2006), as well as the increase of circulating brain-derived neurotrophic factor

64   (BDNF) and neuro-adrenergic system activity, which are both involved in motor

65   consolidation (Bekinschtein et al., 2014; Kuo et al., 2021; Segal et al., 2012; Skriver et al.,

66   2014).

67   Although motor learning usually relies on PP, alternative forms of practice also exist.

Among these, mental practice (MP) based on motor imagery, namely the mental simulation of

movements without concomitant motor output, is well documented. Several studies reported

positive effects of MP on motor acquisition and consolidation, considering parameters such as

movement speed or accuracy (Gentili et al., 2006, 2010; Rannaud Monany et al., 2022a). The

positive effects of MP come from the activation of neural structures involved during PP (Hétu

et al., 2013; Kilteni et al., 2018), as well as neuronal adaptations that sustain both motor

acquisition and consolidation (Ruffino et al., 2017). Indeed, functional imagery and

neuromodulation studies, respectively, showed that motor imagery and actual execution share

overlapping cortico-subcortical networks and induce congruent modulations of corticospinal

excitability (Grosprêtre et al., 2015; Hardwick et al., 2018). Furthermore, other studies

reported that MP induces neural changes after a single practice session (Avanzino et al., 2015;

Ruffino et al., 2019) and after extended periods of practice (Pascual-Leone et al., 1995).

80   One could argue that, if MP and PP involve overlapping neural substrates and induce

neural changes within these substrates, moderate-intensity exercise could also promote MP

efficiency. However, to the best of our knowledge, the effects of such type of exercise on MP

have never been explored. The aim of the following experiment was thus to probe the effects

of moderate-intensity exercise on motor acquisition and consolidation induced by MP. We

hypothesized that a single bout of exercise performed before MP would promote motor

acquisition, while exercise after MP would promote motor consolidation.

Methods

      Participants

      Forty healthy right-handed volunteers from the Sport Science faculty of Dijon (France) participated in the study (17 women, mean age: 23 years old, range: 19 - 29). The participants were randomly assigned to one of the four experimental groups: i) physical practice without moderate-intensity exercise (PP-Rest group, n=10, mean age: 22, range 19-29), ii) mental practice without moderate-intensity exercise (MP-Rest group, n=10, mean age: 25, range 21-27), iii) mental practice preceded by moderate-intensity exercise (Exe-MP group, n=10, mean age: 24, range 21-27), or and iv) mental practice followed by moderate-intensity exercise (MP-Exe group, n=10, mean age: 21, range 18-27). No professional musicians nor professional typists were recruited due to the nature of the motor task (finger tapping). The study complied with the standards set by the Declaration of Helsinki (Version 2013, except pre-registration).

      Participants of the three MP groups were asked to complete the French version of the Motor Imagery Questionnaire to assess self-estimation of their motor imagery vividness (Loison et al., 2013). For this questionnaire, the minimum score is 8 (low imagery vividness) and the maximum one is 56 (high imagery vividness). In the current study, the average scores suggest average to good motor imagery ability (Guillot et al., 2008) and do not differ between groups ($F_{2,27}$=0.182, p=0.83; MP-Rest: 41 ±4.08; Exe-MP: 42.2 ±7, and MP-Exe: 42.6 ±6.96).

      Modality of moderate-intensity **exercise**

      Participants of the Exe-MP and MP-Exe groups were asked to perform a moderate-intensity cycling exercise (*Wattbike Ltd*) for 30 minutes and to maintain themselves at 65-

70% of maximal theoretical cardiac frequency (Formula for maximal theoretical cardiac

frequency: 220 – age [Fox et al., 1971]; global mean ±SD at 65-70% of maximal theoretical

cardiac frequency: 132.74 ±2.89 beats per minute [Riebe et al., 2018]). Participants were self-

monitored with a cardio-frequency meter (*Cyclus 2*) directly connected to the bike. The

recorded cardiac frequency was displayed in real-time on the bike's screen. The experimenter

regularly checked the compliance of the participants to the given instructions during the

exercise. Resistance of the bike was set to minimal for all the participants.

Behavioral tasks

The motor task consisted of a computerized version of the sequential finger-tapping

task (Rannaud Monany et al., 2022a). The participants were seated in front of a customized

keyboard and performed a sequence of six movements with their left-hand fingers in the

following order: 1-2-4-5-3-5 (1: thumb, 2: index finger, 3: middle finger, 4: ring finger, 5:

pinky), as fast and accurately as possible during thirty-second trials. Before the beginning of

the experiment, participants were asked to perform the required sequence in front of the

experimenter to ensure they understood the task correctly. During the practice session,

participants of the PP group had to physically execute the movement whereas participants of

the MP group had to imagine it (see below for details).

Experimental procedures

The experimental protocol included three test sessions (Pre-Test, Post-Test 0h, and

Post-Test 24h) and a practice session. Each test session consisted of two actual trials of thirty

seconds during which participants were asked to repeat the six-movements sequence,

described above, as fast and accurately as possible. After Pre-Test, all groups (physically or

mentally) repeated the movements for a total amount of practice of three hundred seconds.

For the PP-Rest group, the practice session consisted of ten 30-second trials with the same

instructions as in the Pre-Test. Each actual trial was followed by thirty seconds of rest. For the

participants of the MP groups, the practice session consisted of three blocks of ten 10-second

imagined trials of the sequence. We chose 10-second trials for MP to minimize the deleterious

effects of long trials on motor imagery clarity (Rozand et al., 2015). Each imagined trial was

followed by ten seconds of rest. Blocks were separated by 1 minute of rest. To optimize the

benefits of MP for a such motor task (Lebon et al., 2018), the participants of the MP groups

imagined the motor sequence with kinesthetic modality based on the following instructions:

"*try to imagine yourself performing the motor task as fast and accurately as possible, by*

feeling your fingers moving as if you were moving it". Depending on their groups, participants

remained at rest (PP-Rest and MP-Rest groups) or performed a bout of moderate-intensity

exercise before the Pre-Test session (Exe-MP group) or after the Post-Test 0h session (MP-

Exe group). A schematic representation of the experimental procedures is depicted in Figure

1.

Figure 1 : Schematic representation of the experimental procedure. Before the Pre-Test session, participants of
the Exe-MP group were assigned to a moderate-intensity exercise of 30 minutes; the participants of the other
groups were at rest. During the Pre-Test session, all participants actually performed two trials (30 seconds) of the
sequential finger-tapping task. Participants were then assigned to a physical (PP) or a mental practice (MP)
session. During the Post-Test 0h session, all participants performed again two actual trials. Depending on their

group, participants were then either free to leave or were asked to perform the cycling exercise (MP-Exe group).
All participants returned one day after to perform two trials of the sequential finger-tapping task (Post-Test 24h).

Data analysis and statistics

Motor parameters

Two motor parameters were assessed: i) movement speed, defined as the total number

of sequences performed in a 30-sec trial, and ii) accuracy, defined as the number of correct

sequences performed in a 30-sec trial (Walker et al., 2003). We averaged the number of

sequences from both trials for each test session.

For each parameter, we calculated the individual gain between means at Pre-Test and

Post-Test 0h (motor acquisition) as follows:

$$Gains\ for\ acquisition\ (\%) = (1 - \frac{PreTest}{PostTest\ 0h}) \times 100$$

172   and between means at Post-Test 0h and Post-Test 24h (motor consolidation) as

173 follows:

$$Gains\ for\ consolidation\ (\%) = (1 - \frac{PostTest\ 0h}{PostTest\ 24h}) \times 100$$

Electromyographic recording and analysis

Electromyographic (EMG) activity was recorded during MP to ensure the absence of

muscular activity (i.e., EMG below 0.02 mV, [Mizuguchi et al., 2012]). EMG recordings were

made on the left first dorsal interosseous muscle using surface Ag/AgCl electrodes in a belly-

tendon montage. A ground electrode was placed on the styloid process of the ulna. The EMG

signals were amplified and band-pass filtered (10–1000 Hz, Biopac Systems Inc.) and

digitized at a sampling rate of 2000 Hz for offline analysis. Background EMG was monitored

to ensure complete muscle relaxation throughout the experiments (EMG below 0.02 mV),

using the following formula:

186
$$RMS = \sqrt{\frac{1}{MD} \int_0^{MD} (EMG)^2 dt}$$

Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were conducted using STATISTICA (*13.0 version; Stat-Soft,*

Tulsa, OK). Normality and homogeneity of the data were tested for each parameter using the

Shapiro-Wilk test and Levene test, respectively. Cohen's d and partial eta square (η_p^2) are

provided to inform on effect sizes for one-sample t-tests and ANOVAs, respectively. Pairwise

comparisons (Fischer's tests) were applied in the case of ANOVAs significance. The

statistical significance threshold α was set at 0.05.

We first conducted one-factor (group) ANOVAs to control for the potential between-

groups difference at Pre-Test, considering raw values for movement speed and accuracy. We

also applied one-sided one-sample t-tests against the reference value 0 to test motor gains at

Post-Test 0h (motor acquisition) for each parameter and each group. Holm-Bonferroni

corrections were applied to adjust the P values computed for each parameter (four t-tests per

parameter). Then, we ran two one-factor (Group) ANOVAs to test for between-group

differences in movement speed and accuracy gains. Pairwise comparisons were managed in

case of statistical significance. We performed the same analyses for motor consolidation.

Finally, one-sample t-tests were conducted against the reference value of '0.02' (see the

"Electromyographic recording and analysis" section) to ensure EMG remained below this

threshold during MP.

Results

Table 1 summarizes the main results of the study by depicting mean values and

standard deviations (SD) for the speed and accuracy parameters as well as for the different

test sessions and groups. All groups showed similar performances in the Pre-Test as

ANOVAs did not yield differences between groups for both movement speed ($F_{3,36}=0.93$,

$p=0.43$) and accuracy ($F_{3,36}=0.82$, $p=0.49$).

Table 1 : Means and standard deviations (SD) for each group for the three test sessions. PP-Rest: Physical
practice without exercise; MP-Rest: Mental practice without exercise; Exe-MP: Mental practice preceded by
exercise; MP-Exe: Mental practice followed by exercise; MS: Movement speed (total number of sequences); Acc:
Accuracy (number of correct sequences).

		Pre-Test	Post-Test 0h	Post-Test 24h	Gains for acquisition (%)	Gains for consolidation (%)
		Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)
PP-Rest	*MS*	12.35 (3.25)	17.45 (4.69)	19.9 (5.37)	28.28 (10.10)	12.37 (5.94)
	Acc	11.25 (3.49)	15.4 (4.83)	18.1 (4.15)	24.81 (16.71)	16.46 (10.40)
MP-Rest	*MS*	15.3 (4.65)	20.1 (5.34)	20.45 (5.52)	24.60 (7.91)	0.54 (12.91)
	Acc	13.65 (4.23)	18.25 (5)	18.85 (6.42)	25.37 (10.01)	-1.38 (19.82)
Exe-MP	*MS*	12.65 (6.96)	17.25 (5.89)	17.60 (5.70)	30.31 (16.26)	2.21 (5.09)
	Acc	11.35 (7.11)	15.4 (4.40)	16.45 (5.25)	30.61 (25.57)	5.46 (9.72)
MP-Exe	*MS*	11.25 (6.73)	14.6 (6.29)	15.75 (6.05)	26.24 (15.89)	8.94 (10.77)
	Acc	9.85 (6.35)	12.95 (5.42)	14.5 (5.07)	28.05 (21.64)	12.46 (11.79)

Gains in acquisition

Figure 2 illustrates motor gains between the Pre-Test and Post-Test 0h. One sample t-

tests against the reference value "0" revealed that all groups improved their performance

between Pre-Test and Post-Test 0h for both movement speed and accuracy (all *p's*<0.05,

Table 1 and Figure 2). However, ANOVAs yielded no differences between groups

(Movement speed: $F_{3,36}=0.36$, $p=0.78$; Accuracy: $F_{3,36}=0.26$, $p=0.86$). These findings mainly

suggest that moderate exercise preceding MP did not further promote motor acquisition.

Figure 2 : Gains for movement speed (A) and Accuracy (B) at Post-Test 0h. Data are normalized to Pre-Test.
Thick and thin horizontal lines mark mean and SD, respectively. Small circles represent individual data. PP-Rest:
Physical practice without exercise; MP-Rest: Mental practice without exercise; Exe-MP: Mental practice preceded
by exercise, MP-Exe: Mental Practice followed by exercise; MS: movement speed; Acc: Accuracy; #: p<0.05
(comparison to 0).

Gains for consolidation

Figure 3 shows motor gains between Post-Test 0h and Post-Test 24h. One sample t-

tests against the reference value "0" yielded no significant improvements (in all, *p's*>0.05) for

the MP-Rest and Exe-MP groups, suggesting a stabilization for both movement speed (MP-

Rest: 0.54 ±12.91%; Exe-MP: 2.21 ±5.09%) and accuracy (MP-Rest: -1.38 ±19.82%; Exe-

MP: 5.46 ±9.72%). Interestingly, both PP-Rest and MP-Exe groups improved their motor

performance 24 hours following practice (off-line learning) for movement speed (PP-Rest:

12.37 ±5.94%, t_9=6.58, *p*<0.01, *Cohen's d*=2.08; MP-Exe: 8.94 ±10.77% t_9=2.63, *p*=0.027,

Cohen's d=0.83) and accuracy (PP-Rest: 16.46 ±10.4% t_9=5.00, *p*<0.01, *Cohen's d*=1.58;

MP-Exe: 12.46 ±11.79% t_9=3.34, *p*<0.01, *Cohen's d*=1.05). These results suggest that

moderate-intensity exercise after MP enhanced motor consolidation.

ANOVAs yielded a significant effect of Group for both movement speed ($F_{3,36}$=3.62,

p=0.022, η_p^2=0.23) and accuracy ($F_{3,36}$=3.37, *p*=0.028, η_p^2=0.22). Considering movement

speed, pairwise comparisons revealed a significant difference between the PP-Rest group and

the MP-Rest group (*p*<0.01, *Cohen's d*=1.26). The difference between the MP-Exe group and

the MP-Rest group was not significant (*p*=0.0501), but with a moderate effect (*Cohen's*

d=0,71). Considering accuracy, pairwise comparisons showed significant differences between

the PP-Rest and the MP-Rest groups (*p*<0.01, *Cohen's d*=1.18) and between the MP-Exe and

the MP-Rest groups (*p*=0.028, *Cohen's d*=0.88). It is worth noting that MP-Exe and PP-Rest

were statistically comparable for both movement speed (*p*=0.41, *Cohen's d*=0,41) and

accuracy (*p*=0.51, *Cohen's d*=0,36).

Figure 3 : Gains for movement speed (A) and accuracy (B) at Post-test 24h. Data are normalized to Post-Test0h.
Thick and thin horizontal lines mark mean and SD values, respectively. Small circles represent individual data.
Brackets with asterisks refer to significant pairwise comparisons. PP-Rest: Physical practice without exercise;
MP-Rest: Mental practice without exercise; Exe-MP: Mental practice preceded by exercise, MP-Exe: Mental
Practice followed by exercise; MS: movement speed; Acc: Accuracy; #: p<0.05 (comparison to 0); *: p<0.05
(pairwise comparisons); §: p=0.0501 (pairwise comparison).

265   Overall, the current results suggest beneficial effects of exercise following MP on motor

266   consolidation, especially for accuracy.

268   *Electromyographic recordings during mental practice*

269   EMG remained below 20 µV for each group and each block (Table 2), ensuring that

270   participants were at rest during MP (in all, $p's<0.05$).

Table 2: Means and standard deviations (SD) of electromyographic (EMG) activity of the first dorsal interosseus muscle of the left hand, recorded during mental practice (3 blocks). MP-Rest: Mental practice without exercise; Exe-MP: Mental practice preceded by exercise; MP-Exe: Mental practice followed by exercise

EMG activity in µV (mean ±SD) during mental practice

	Block 1	Block 2	Block 3
MP-rest group	2.06 ±1.72	1.93 ±1.96	1.91 ±1.72
Exe-MP group	1.43 ±0.66	1.28 ±0.58	1.30 ±0.42
MP-Exe group	1.26 ±1.26	1.02 ±1.02	1.26 ±1.06

     Discussion

          In this study, we investigated the effect of moderate-intensity exercise on motor

 acquisition and consolidation induced by MP. Consistently with previous reports, we showed

 a significant improvement in motor performance, that is in movement speed and accuracy,

 immediately after practice for both MP and PP. In contradiction with our first hypothesis,

 moderate-intensity exercise potentiated neither motor acquisition nor motor consolidation

 when preceding MP. Interestingly, when following MP, moderate-intensity exercise further

 improved motor consolidation, supporting thus the second hypothesis. The performance was

 at the level of the PP group that only performed actual trials during practice (i.e., without

 extra exercise).

          Improvement in motor performance after PP and MP

          The current findings are in accordance with the previous literature, showing that both

 MP and PP lead to the accomplishment of faster and more accurate movements (Gentili et al.,

 2006, 2010; Rannaud Monany et al., 2022a). It is currently assumed that the improvement of

 performance induced by MP and PP relies on neural adaptations that occur through an

 overlapping cortico-subcortical network. For example, previous work by Avanzino et al.

(2015) and Bonassi et al. (2017) showed that both MP and PP induce LTP-like plasticity and

increase corticospinal excitability at the level of the primary motor cortex after motor

acquisition. Also, Pascual-Leone et al. (1995) suggested that extended MP and PP both lead to

motor consolidation through cortical reorganization mechanisms. This is supported by more

recent of Grosprêtre et al. (2017), who showed that extended mental practice (1 week)

increased excitability at both cortical and spinal levels. It is worth noting that neural

adaptations induced by MP and PP have also been reported at the level of other sensorimotor

areas, notably including premotor areas and the cerebellum (Lacourse et al., 2004).

Altogether, these studies support the involvement of shared plasticity mechanisms for MP and

PP concerning motor acquisition and consolidation.

The non-significant effect of moderate-intensity ***exercise on motor acquisition***

As a reminder, we hypothesized that moderate-intensity exercise before MP would

promote motor acquisition and increase motor performance compared to MP without exercise.

This hypothesis was raised based on previous work of Statton et al. (2015) on PP.

Specifically, these authors observed that moderate-intensity exercise before PP promoted

motor acquisition and led to better motor performance when compared to PP without exercise.

It is proposed that moderate-intensity exercise enhances motor acquisition by acting on

psychological and neuroendocrinological factors, as well as neuroplastic mechanisms.

Previous work showed, for example, that moderate-intensity exercise increases arousal, which

has been associated with better cognitive performances (Lambourne and Temporoski, 2010).

Exercise also modulates the circulation of various neuroendocrine substances, such as

dopamine, that are implied in motor acquisition (Foley and Fleshner, 2008; de Sousa

Fernandes et al., 2020). Importantly, moderate-intensity exercise facilitates the induction of

LTP-like plasticity during PP by transiently reducing short-interval intracortical inhibition

(SICI) at the level of the primary motor cortex (Devanne and Allart, 2019; Singh et al., 2014,

2015). Considering this mechanism, we suggest that the absence of benefits of moderate-

intensity exercise before MP may partly rely on the effects of motor imagery on SICI. Indeed,

it is known that motor imagery involves interactions between excitatory and inhibitory

processes at the level of the primary motor cortex (Grosprêtre et al., 2017). Specifically,

recent work of our team (Neige et al., 2020) pointed out that SICI is likely to increase during

motor imagery, perhaps to prevent movement execution while imagining. Accordingly, we

consider that there may be a conflict between the lowering and increasing of SICI,

respectively due to moderate-intensity exercise and motor imagery. The increase of SICI

during motor imagery could have interfered with the effects of moderate-intensity exercise on

LTP-like plasticity induction during MP and thus reduced its benefits on motor acquisition.

Moderate-intensity exercise after MP potentiates motor consolidation

The current results revealed a stabilization (MP-Rest and Exe-MP) or an improvement

(PP-Rest and MP-Exe) of motor performance between Post-Test 0h and Post-Test 24h,

attesting a motor consolidation (Krakauer and Shadmehr, 2006; Walker et al., 2003).

Interestingly, moderate-intensity exercise after MP potentiated motor consolidation, leading to

better motor performances when compared to MP without exercise. The ways that moderate-

intensity exercise potentiates motor consolidation are numerous and not fully identified, even

for PP. Previous reports present the increase of lactate and BDNF levels induced by exercise

as important factors to explain the benefits of motor consolidation (Skriver et al., 2014).

Nonetheless, the effects of moderate-intensity exercise on these biomarkers are intensity-

dependent, meaning that high-intensity exercises are more likely to induce such increase than

moderate- or low- intensities ones (Ferris et al., 2007). Reports are less consistent in the case

of moderate-intensity exercise. One study however pointed out that a bout of moderate-

intensity exercise increased the activity of the neuro-adrenergic system (Segal et al., 2012),

which is involved in motor consolidation (Kuo et al., 2021).

To our knowledge, only one study investigated the effects of moderate-intensity

exercise on motor consolidation when performed after PP (Thomas et al., 2016). In that study,

authors found positive effects of exercise on motor consolidation seven days after PP but not

one day after. Relating to current findings, an increase in motor performance questions the

potential differences between MP and PP on motor consolidation. Recent behavioral studies

suggested that motor consolidation after MP and PP may rely on distinct processes (Ruffino et

al., 2021). This is corroborated by neurophysiological experiments which suggest that motor

consolidation by MP and PP leads to different patterns of brain activity (Kraeutner et al.,

2020). Also, and according to Truong et al. (2022), motor consolidation by MP would involve

slower processes than PP, which notably intervene during the passage of time that follows

motor acquisition. In agreement with that hypothesis, we speculate that moderate-intensity

exercise could have promoted such processes when performed after MP, explaining the better

consolidation for the MP-Exe group when compared to the MP-Rest group. Further

investigations will be required to elucidate the neural processes that sustain motor

consolidation following MP, as well as the effects of moderate-intensity exercise on these

processes.

The current work contains some limitations. It is worth noting that the implementation

of neuromodulation protocols, such as transcranial magnetic stimulation, to measure

corticospinal excitability and SICI, would have been highly beneficial to support our

interpretations. Also, measurements of perceived exercise intensity, using effort perception

scales, would have been of interest to ensure that exercise was perceived as moderate by the

participants.

Perspectives

The current results support the benefits of moderate-intensity exercise on motor consolidation

following MP with motor imagery. While MP has been shown to improve motor performance

overnight (Freitas et al., 2020; Truong et al., 2022), optimizing motor imagery-based

protocols are of importance for sports medicine (Rannaud Monany, 2022b). The intensity of

exercise would be a key point to induce plasticity mechanisms and to promote motor

consolidation following MP.

Author contributions

DRM, CP, and FL designed the experiment, DRM conducted the experiment and prepared the

figures, DRM and FL analyzed the data, and DRM, CP, and FL wrote the manuscript.

Disclosure statement

The authors report there are no competing interests to declare

Data Availability Statement

The data are available at https://osf.io/4zyud

References

Avanzino, L., Gueugneau, N., Bisio A., Ruggeri, P., Papaxanthis, C. & Bove, M. (2015).

Motor cortical plasticity induced by motor learning through mental practice. *Frontiers in*

Behavioral Neuroscience, 9: 105.

Bekinschtein, P., Cammarota, M. & Medina, J.H. (2014). BDNF and memory processing.

Neuropharmacology, 76(C): 677-683.

Bonassi, G., Biggio, M., Bisio, A., Ruggeri, P., Bove, M. & Avanzino, L. (2017). Provision of

somatosensory inputs during motor imagery enhances learning-induced plasticity in human

motor cortex. *Scientific Reports*, 7: 1–10.

Dayan, E., & Cohen, L.G. (2011). Neuroplasticity subserving motor skill learning. *Neuron*,

72(3): 443-454.

de Sousa Fernandes, M.S., Ordônio, T.F., Santos, G.C.J., Santos, L.E.R., Calazans, C.T.,

Gomes, D.A. and Santos, T.M. (2020). Effects of Physical Exercise on Neuroplasticity and

Brain Function: A Systematic Review in Human and Animal Studies. *Neural Plasticity*, 14:

8856621.

Devanne, H. & Allart, E. (2019). Boosting brain motor plasticity with physical exercise.

Clinical Neurophysiology, 49(2): 91-93.

Foley, T.E. & Fleshner, M. (2008). Neuroplasticity of dopamine circuits after exercise:

implications for central fatigue. *Neuromolecular Medicine*, 10(2): 67-80.

Fox, S.M., III., Naughton, J.P., Haskell W.L. (1971). Physical activity and the prevention of

coronary heart disease. *Annals of Clinical Research*. 3: 404–432

Freitas, E., Saimpont, A., Blache, Y., & Debarnot U (2020) Acquisition and consolidation of
sequential footstep movements with physical and motor imagery practice. *Scandinavian*
Journal of Medicine & Science in Sports, 30(12): 2477-2484.

Gentili, R., Han, C.E., Schweighofer, N. & Papaxanthis, C. (2010) Motor learning without
doing: trial-by-trial improvement in motor performance during mental training. *Journal of*
Neurophysiology, 104: 774–783.

Gentili, R., Papaxanthis, C. & Pozzo, T. (2006). Improvement and generalization of arm
motor performance through motor imagery practice. *Neuroscience*, 137: 761–772.

Grosprêtre, S., Jacquet, T., Lebon, F., Papaxanthis, C. & Martin, A. (2016). Neural
mechanisms of strength increase after one-week motor imagery training. *European Journal of*
Sport Sciences, 18(1): 1-10.

Grosprêtre, S., Lebon, F., Papaxanthis, C. & Martin, A. (2016). New evidence of corticospinal
network modulation induced by motor imagery. *Journal of Neurophysiology*, 115: 1279–
1288.

Grosprêtre, S., Ruffino, C., Lebon, F. (2015). Motor imagery and cortico-spinal excitability:
A review. *European Journal of Sport Sciences*, 16: 317-324.

Guillot, A., Collet, C., Nguyen, V.A., Malouin, F., Richards, C., Doyon, J. (2008). Functional
neuroanatomical networks associated with expertise in motor imagery. *Neuroimage*, 41:1471-
83.

Hardwick, R., Caspers, S., Eickhoff, S. & Swinnen, S. (2018). Neural correlates of action:

Comparing meta-analyses of imagery, observation and execution. *Neuroscience and*

Biobehavioral Reviews, 34: 31-44.

Karni, A., Meyer, G., Rey-Hipolito, C. H., Jezzard, P., Adams, M.M., Turner, R. &

Ungerleider, L.G. (1998). The acquisition of skilled motor performance: Fast and slow

experience-driven changes in primary motor cortex. *Proceedings of the National Academy of*

Sciences of the United States of America, 95(3): 861-868.

Kilteni, K., Anderson, B. J., Jouborg, C. & Ehrsson, H. H. (2018) Motor imagery involves

predicting the sensory consequences of the imagined movement. *Nature Communications,*

9(1): 1617.

Kraeutner, S. N., Stratas, A., McArthur, J. L., Helmick,, C. A., Westwood, D. A. & Boe, S. G.

(2020) Neural and Behavioral Outcomes Differ Following Equivalent Bouts of Motor

Imagery or Physical Practice. *Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience*, 32(8): 1590-1606.

Krakauer, J. & and Shadmehr, R. (2006). Consolidation of motor memory. *Trends in*

Neurosciences, 29(1): 58-64.

Kuo, H., Qi, F.X., Paulus, W., Kuo, M.F. & Nitsche, M.A. (2021). Noradrenergic

Enhancement of Motor Learning, Attention, and Working Memory in Humans. *International*

Journal of Neuropsychopharmacology, 24(6): 490-498.

Lacourse, M.G., Turner, J.A., Randolph-Orr, E., Schandler, S.L. and Cohen, M.J. (2004).

Cerebral and cerebellar sensorimotor plasticity following motor-imagery-based mental

practice of a sequential movement. *Journal of Rehabilitation Research and Development*,

41(4): 505-524.

Lambourne, K. & Tomporowski, P. (2010). The effect of exercise-induced arousal on

cognitive task performance: a meta-regression analysis. *Brain Research*, 1341: 12–24.

Lebon, F., Horn, U., Domin. & Lotze, M. (2018). Motor imagery training: Kinesthetic

imagery strategy and inferior parietal fMRI activation. *Human Brain Mapping*, 39(4): 1805-

1813.

Mang, C.S., Snow, N.J., Campbell, K.L., Ross, C.J.D. & Boyd, L.A. (2014). A single bout of

high-intensity aerobic exercise facilitates response to paired associative stimulation and

promotes sequence-specific implicit motor learning. *Journal of Applied Physiology*, 117 (11):

1325-1336.

Mizuguchi, N., Sakamoto, M., Muraoka, T., Nakagawa, K., Kanazawa, S., Nakata, H.,

Moriyama, N. & Kanosue, K. (2012). The Modulation of Corticospinal Excitability during

Motor Imagery of Actions with Objects. *PLoS ONE*, 6(10): e26006.

Neige, C., Rannaud Monany, D., Stinear, C. M., Byblow, W. D., Papaxanthis, C. & Lebon, F.

(2020). Unravelling the Modulation of Intracortical Inhibition During Motor Imagery: An

Adaptive Threshold-Hunting Study. *Neuroscience*, 434: 102–110.

Pascual-Leone, A., Nguyet, D., Cohen, L.G., Brasil-Neto J.P., Cammarota, A. & Hallett, M.

(1995). Modulation of muscle responses evoked by transcranial magnetic stimulation during

the acquisition of new fine motor skills. *Journal of Neurophysiology*, 74(3): 1037-1045.

Rannaud Monany, D., Lebon, F., Dupont, W. & Papaxanthis, C. (2022a). Mental practice

modulates functional connectivity between the cerebellum and the primary motor cortex.

iScience, 25(6), 104397.

Rannaud Monany, D., Papaxanthis, C., Guillot, A., & Lebon, F. (2022b) Motor imagery and

action observation following immobilization-induced hypoactivity: A narrative review.

Annals of Physical and Rehabilitation Medicine, 65(4), 101541.

Riebe, D., Ehrman, J., Liguori, G. & Magal, M. (2018). ACSM's Guidelines for Exercise

Testing and Prescription. *American College of Sports Medicine (Eds.).*

Roig, M., Nordbrandt, S., Geertsen, S. & Nielsen, J. (2013). The effects of cardiovascular

exercise on human memory: a review with meta-analysis. *Neuroscience and Biobehavioral*

Reviews, 37(8): 1645-1666.

Rozand, V., Lebon, F., Stapley, P. J., Papaxanthis, C. & Lepers, R. (2015). A prolonged

motor imagery session alter imagined and actual movement durations: Potential implications

for neurorehabilitation. *Behavioral Brain Research,* 297: 67-75.

Ruffino, C., Gaveau, J., Papaxanthis, C. & Lebon, F. (2019). An acute session of motor

imagery training induces use-dependant plasticity. *Scientific Reports*, 9(1):20002.

Ruffino, C., Papaxanthis, C. & Lebon, F. (2017). Neural plasticity during motor learning with

motor imagery practice: Review and perspectives. *Neuroscience*, 341: 61-78.

Ruffino, C., Rannaud Monany, D., Gaveau, J., Hilt, P.M., Papaxanthis, C. & Lebon, F.

(2022). Smoothness discriminates motor performance improvement following mental and

physical practices of arm-reaching movements. *Neuroscience*, 483: 24-31.

Ruffino, C., Truong, C., Dupont, W., Bouguila, F., Michel, C., Lebon, F. & Papaxanthis, C.

(2021). Acquisition and consolidation processes following motor imagery practice. *Scientific*

Reports, 11: 2295.

Segal, S.K., Cotman, C.W. & Cahill, L.F. (2012). Exercise-induced noradrenergic activation

enhances memory consolidation in both normal aging and patients with amnestic mild

cognitive impairment. *Journal of Alzheimer's Disease*, 32(4): 1011-1018.

Singh, A.M., Duncan, R.E., Neva, J.L. & Staines, W.R. (2014). Aerobic exercise modulates

intracortical inhibition and facilitation in a nonexercised upper limb muscle. *BMC sports*

science, medicine and rehabilitation, 6: 23.

Singh, A.M. & Staines, W.R. (2015). The effects of acute aerobic exercise on the primary

motor cortex. *Journal of Motor Behavior*, 47(4): 328-339.

Skriver, K., Roig., M., Lundbye-Jensen, J., Pingel, J., Helge, J., Kiens, B. & Nielsen, J.

(2014). Acute exercise improves motor memory: exploring potential biomarkers.

Neurobiology of Learning and Memory, 116: 46-58.

Spampinato, D. & Celnik, P. (2017). Temporal dynamics of cerebellar and motor cortex

physiological processes during motor skill learning. *Scientific Reports*, 7: 40715.

Statton, M.A., Encarnacion, M., Celnik, P. & Bastian, A. (2015). A Single Bout of Aerobic

Exercise Improves Motor Skill Acquisition. *PLoS One*, 10(10): e0141393.

Thomas, R., Beck, M.M., Lind, R.R., Korsgaard Johnsen, L., Geertsen, S.S., Christiansen, L.,

Ritz, C., Roig, M. & Lundbye-Jensen, J. (2016). Acute Exercise and Motor Memory

Consolidation: The Role of Exercise Timing. *Neural Plasticity*, 2016: 6205452.

Truong, C., Hilt, P.M., Bouguila, F., Bove, M., Lebon, F., Papaxanthis, C. & Ruffino, C.

(2022). Time-of-day effects on skill acquisition and consolidation after physical and mental

practices. *Scientific Reports*, 12: 5933.

Walker, M.P., Brakefield, T., Seidman, J., Morgan, A., Hobson, J. A. & Stickgold, R. (2003).

Sleep and the Time Course of Motor Skill Learning. *Learning and Memory*, 10(4): 275-284.

Ziemann, U., Ilić T.V. & Jung, P. (2006). Chapter 3: Long-term potentiation (LTP)-like

plasticity and learning in human motor cortex – investigations with transcranial magnetic

stimulation (TMS). *Supplements to Clinical Neurophysiology*, 56: 19-25.

562