

Influence of Motor Imagery Modality on First-Serve Performance in Tennis Players

Dominique Laurent, Robbin Carien, Nicolas Robin

▶ To cite this version:

Dominique Laurent, Robbin Carien, Nicolas Robin. Influence of Motor Imagery Modality on First-Serve Performance in Tennis Players. Motor Control, in Press, pp.1-14. 10.1123/mc.2023-0080. hal-04570770

HAL Id: hal-04570770

https://hal.science/hal-04570770

Submitted on 7 May 2024

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

| 1 | Influence of motor imagery modality on first serve performance in tennis players |
|----|--|
| 2 | |
| 3 | Running head: Motor imagery, preference, modality and service performance |
| 4 | |
| 5 | Dominique Laurent ¹ , Robbin Carien ² & Nicolas Robin ³ |
| 6 | |
| 7 | ¹ Université de la Réunion, Laboratoire ACTES, France; Email: <u>laurent-dom@hotmail.fr</u> |
| 8 | ² Université des Antilles, Laboratoire "Adaptation au Climat Tropical, Exercice & Santé", France; |
| 9 | Email: robbin.carien@univ-antilles.fr |
| 10 | ³ Université des Antilles, Laboratoire "Adaptation au Climat Tropical, Exercice & Santé", Campus |
| 11 | Fouillole, BP 592, 97159, Pointe à Pitre Cedex, France. Corresponding author: Nicolas Robin, |
| 12 | Email: robin.nicolas@hotmail.fr |
| 13 | |
| 14 | Date of submission: July 18th 2023 |
| 15 | |
| 16 | |
| 17 | |
| 18 | |
| 19 | |
| 20 | |
| 21 | |
| 22 | |
| 23 | |
| 24 | |
| 25 | |
| 26 | |

Influence of motor imagery modality on first serve performance in tennis players

28

30

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

39

40

41

42

43

44

45

27

29 Abstract

Motor imagery (MI) is frequently used in tennis players. This pilot study aimed to assess whether the MI modality and preference of skilled tennis players could influence their service performance when using motor imagery before serving first balls. Twenty expert players (Mage = 18.6 years) completed the movement imagery questionnaire (3rd version) to assess their MI modality scores (internal visual, external visual and kinesthetic) and their MI preference. Participants completed 4 experimental counterbalanced sessions, spread over 4 weeks, each including the completion of 20 first serve balls in match condition. The sessions included a control condition (i.e., only physical practice trials) and 3 MI conditions during which the players had to mentally imagine themselves performing a serve, according to one of the imagery modalities either internal visual or external visual or kinesthetic, before serving. The percentage of success and the speed of the services balls (measured by a tablet with SWING VISION and a radar gun), and an efficiency score were recorded and then evaluated by experts and served as performance indicators and dependent variables. The results of this study showed that players benefited from MI before serving and that almost a third of the participants achieved a higher percentage of success and efficiency scores when using their preferred MI modality. These results lead us, in an applied way, to suggest to skilled tennis players to determine their MI preference and to have recourse to the mental simulation of a successful serve before serving the first balls in match condition.

47

46

48

Key words: service, mental imagery, imagery ability, tennis, preference.

50

49

51

Influence of motor imagery modality on first serve performance in tennis players

Motor Imagery (MI) can be defined as the deliberate cognitive simulation of movements (Seiler et al., 2022), wich shares the control mechanisms and neural substrates with actual movement (Hanakawa, 2016). MI is a mental technique that is very frequently used by coaches and athletes to improve motor performance (Ladda et al., 2021; Simonsmeier et al., 2020), particularly in racket sports (Cécé et al., 2020) and tennis (Robin & Dominique, 2022). Some studies have shown beneficial effects of MI used alone, compared to control (e.g., rest or reading) conditions (e.g., Gentili et al., 2010; Ram et al., 2007). However, these effects are generally less compared to those obtained following actual practice (Toth et al., 2020).

Indeed, it is important to note that a large number of research studies have shown greater positive effects when MI was combined with the actual execution of actions (Guillot et al., 2013; Robin & Dominique, 2022; Schuster et al., 2011). For example, in a study of serve returns, it was found that MI sessions combined with real executions improved the accuracy of shots in expert tennis players (Robin et al., 2007). Beneficial effects were also observed on service performance when MI preceded physical execution (e.g., Desliens et al., 2011; Dominique et al., 2021; Guillot et al., 2012). This is why we hypothesize that the simulation of a motor action, before its real execution, should make it possible to improve performance.

According to Frank et al. (2014), during MI participants solicit the mental representation of the simulated action (e.g., a serve in tennis). The mental representation are constructed from sensory modalities coming from the environment (e.g., visual images) or of the body (i.e., kinesthetic images) as recently indicated by Dominique et al. (2021). Indeed, there are different types of MI, including internal and external visual imageries and kinesthetic imagery. Theses three types of MI are the main modalities used by athletes, and in particular tennis players (Robin & Dominique, 2022).

Internal visual imagery (IVI) involves imagining, in the first person, seeing the performance of a motor action as if looking through one's own eyes (Robin et al., 2020). During external visual

imagery (EVI), athletes must mentally simulate movement as a spectator, also known as third person MI, as if filmed by a camera (Hall, 2001). Finally, the kinesthetic imagery (KI) modality consists of imagining what one feels when performing a mentally simulated action and focuses on the sensations of force, speed, stretching, relaxation or effort involved in the movement (Robin et al., 2020).

A wide range of researches revealed that MI and execution involved activation of very similar cerebral structures at all stages of motor control (Crammond, 1997). However, several studies have also observed specific brain activity patterns for each of the IVI, EVI and KI modalities (e.g., Jiang et al., 2015; Seiler et al., 2015; 2022). For example, Guillot et al. (2009) showed that KI mainly activated motor-associated structures and the inferior parietal lobule whereas visual MI activated predominantly the visual-related areas and superior parietal lobule. In a sporting context, many authors have emphasized that MI modalities are very important factors to consider (Cumming & Ste-Marie, 2001; Robin & Dominique, 2022) when one wishes to use MI practices with athletes. Indeed, each imagery modality can have differentiated impacts on motor performance (Hardy & Callow, 1999). For example, White and Hardy (1995) observed differential effects of visual imagery modalities, for a motor task in which environmental changes induced planning constraints. Indeed, the authors examined the use of IVI and EVI in the acquisition of a motor skill based on processing of environmental signals (e.g., slalom task). The results showed that the participants who used IVI made fewer spatial errors during a transfer test (i.e., new route) than those who used EVI.

On the contrary, the EVI has shown positive effects with tasks consisting in accurately reproducing body shapes such as karate katas (Hardy & Callow, 1999). In the latter study, 25 expert karatekas learned a new kata using IVI or EVI. The results revealed that EVI was significantly more effective than IVI. Similar results were obtained, in novice athletes who had to learn a gymnastic sequence (Hardy & Callow, 1999). Finally, KI seems to be beneficial for inter-segmental coordination actions (Hardy & Callow, 1999) or muscle strength (Yao et al., 2013). According to

Ridderinkhof and Brass (2015), KI which is based on the internal activation of anticipatory images of the effects of the action, is linked to predictive motor control. The authors mentioned that this mechanism makes it possible to improve motor performance on the basis of internal emulation of the action.

With regard to tennis, the results of the literature concerning the effects of MI on the performance of motor skills such as the serve are more heterogeneous. Indeed, studies have shown that the combination of real practice and EVI, focusing on the trajectory of the ball and the target area to be hit, improved the speed and accuracy of serves in tennis players (e.g., Dominique et al., 2021; Dominique & Robin, 2020; Guillot et al., 2013; Robin et al., 2020). However, other authors have observed superior service performance following KI practice (e.g., Dana & Gozalzadeh, 2017; Féry & Morizot, 2000).

This difference in results could in particular find an explanation at the level of the experience of the participants. Indeed, Hardy and Callow (1999) showed that a certain degree of expertise in the task was necessary to use the KI in particular. However, Di Corrado et al. (2019) showed that expert tennis players were able to achieve vivid, sharp and controllable internal, external and kinesthetic visual images. In addition, the authors evoked that the players were able to use all three different MI modalities. Another explanation could come from the preference of athletes for a particular imaging modality: KI, IVI or EVI as mentioned by Callow and Roberts (2012). Thus, in athletes who are used to doing MI in a sporting context, in particular on a tennis court before performing motor actions such as the service, it is possible that there is a differentiated effect on performance depending on the MI modality imposed by coaches or choosen by athletes. Additionally, the latters may have developed a preference for a given kinesthetic or internal visual or external visual imagery perspective (Callow et al., 2013; Guillot et al., 2013). According to Callow and Roberts (2012) few studies, and to our knowledge none in the field of tennis, have focused on the differentiated effects of imagery preferences and MI modalities on motor performance, despite of their possible interactive effects (Callow et al., 2012). We could consider

that the MI tennis player's preference could potentially influence their performance on a mentally simulated task such as serving.

The aim of this pilot study was to evaluate, in expert tennis players, if the modalities as well as the preference of MI had an influence on their service performances, when they used motor imagery, preferential or imposed by the instructions, before serving. While, consistent with previous research, players should benefit from imagery practice, the main hypothesis of this study was that performance improvement could be positively influenced by their MI preference.

Method

Participants

Twenty males (Mage = 18.6 years; ± 4.7 years) tennis players (rankings of the French Tennis Federation between 15/1 and 2/6, which corresponds to 4.5 and 5.5 US/Canada ranks), with between 9 and 13 years of regular practice, voluntarily participated in this study (see Table 1 for general characteristics). The current study was carried out on Reunion Island (France). The players had to compete at regional and national level competitions, and to train regularly at least 3 times a week. The players did not present any particular disorder or history relating to their vision or motor skills. All participants, or their legal representatives when they were minors, signed a consent form. The experimental protocol was approved by the local University Ethics Committee (ACTES Urp5-4-017-23) and the study was performed in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki (2013).

Insert Table 1

Materials and Procedure

Prior the start of the experimental phases, MI ability was assessed to ensure that the sample did not include participants with difficulty doing motor imagery. All the tennis players fulfilled the movement imagery questionnaire 3rd French and validated version (MIQ-3f: Robin et al., 2020). This questionnaire is composed of 12 items that assess individual KI, EVI and IVI modalities. Each MIQ-3f item corresponds to a single movement of the leg, arm or whole body that was physically performed before being mentally simulated in the specified MI modality. The tennis players then

rated the difficulty or ease they had in forming the mental representation of the movement using two 7-point Likert-type scales (ranging from 1 = very difficult to feel/see to 7 = very easy to feel/see) referring respectively to KI, IVI and EVI modalities. The psychometric properties of the MIQ-3f (internal consistency: reliability score ≥ 0.88 for the three subscales) and test–retest reliability (intraclass correlation coefficients: 0.87 for internal visual imagery, 0.86 for external visual imagery, and 0.88 for kinesthetic imagery) proved to be satisfactory (Robin et al., 2020). Additionally, the players were asked to indicate which MI abilty they preferred.

Then, the current study that was carried out on an outdoor tennis court "greenset" type, included 4 experimental sessions with repeated measures (counterbalanced) and spread over 4 weeks, one session per week.

During each experimental session, the players began with a standardized 30-minute warm-up (i.e., jogging, sprint, controlled pop up rally, and 12 warm-up services), see Robin et al. (2022) for a similar procedure. Then, the participants performed 20 first service balls, alternating between the right and left sides, then continued the exchange with a receiver who had a similar level of play and classification, like in a game situation. For each service, the speed (measured with a radar gun: SR3600 Sports Radar type placed on the ground) and the percentage of success of the first balls (measured with an Ipad Pro equipped with SWING VISION software placed on the ground) were noted by the experimenters. All sessions were also filmed with two Canon HD cameras, Legria HF G25. Finally, an efficiency score was estimated, blindly, by three experts (i.e., federal lines judges and qualified tennis coach certified by the French Tennis Federation) who observed returns of serves and were instructed to give a score ranging from 0 to 5 evaluating the difficulty in which the receivers found themselves following the serves (see Dominique et al., 2021 for a similar procedure). In order to determine the inter-rater reliability regarding the scores, Cohen' Kappa were calculated and showed strong levels of agreement (Kappa > 0. 89).

During the control session, the participants were instructed to only physically perform the services, without using MI or other mental strategy. At the end of this session, the experimenter asked them if they had used a mental technique before serving.

During the internal visual imagery session, before each first ball, the players had to imagine themselves, as if they were seeing themselves with their own eyes (or if they had a "Go Pro" on their head), performing a service.

During the external visual imagery session, the participants were instructed, before physically serving, to imagine seeing themselves in the third person performing a service as if they were filmed with a camera placed on the side.

During the kinesthetic imagery session, they had to imagine feeling the sensations (of strength, relaxation, speed for examples) generated and evolving during a service, before actually realizing it.

At the end of each of the sessions including MI, the players had to evaluate the vividness of the mental images produced with the imagery quality index comprising a Likert scale ranging from 1 ("Unclear and faint mental representation") to 6 ("Perfectly clear and vivid mental representation") (for a similar procedure, see Robin et al., 2021).

Data Analysis

The vivacity scores of the mental images produced during MI served as a control variable (see Robin et al., 2019 for a similar procedure). For each point achieved during the experimental sessions, the performance of the serve was reflected by the average speed of the ball measured with the radar, by the percentage of success of the first ball, and by the efficiency score. The dependent variables were normally distributed (Kolmogorov-Smirnov test) and had homogeneous variances (Levene test). For each of these dependent variables, the experimental condition (Control vs. IVI vs. EVI vs. KI) repeated measures ANOVAs were calculated. In addition, normalised difference scores, corresponding to the difference between the speed, success or efficiency score values in control session and the values in each MI (IVI or EVI or KI) session divided by the values in

control session and multiples by one hundred, were also calculated and submitted to repeated measures ANOVAs with the condition (C—IVI vs. C—EVI vs. C—KI). Alpha was set at 0.05 for all analyses, effect sizes (η_p^2) were indicated and post-hoc analyzes were performed using Newman-210 Keuls tests.

211 Results

212

218

Imagery ability

- None of the tennis players reported having difficulty performing MI and participants reported having vivid and clear images before serving (Mean = 5.2; SD = 1.4), and could be considererd as "good imagers" (Robin & Blandin, 2021) according to their MIQ-3f scores (M_{IVI} = 5.3, M_{EVI} = 5.0, M_{KI} = 4.9). In addition, all of them declared that they frequently resorted to MI during training and matches.
 - Percentage of Success
- The ANOVA computed on the percentage of successful serve revealed a significant main effect of the condition F(1, 3) = 4.781, p < .01, $\eta_p^2 = 0.21$. As illustrated in Figure 1, the post-hoc test revealed that the participant had higher percentage of success of the service in the IVI (M = 55 %) and KI (M = 59 %) conditions (a trend .08 was observed for EVI condition, M = 52%) than in the control condition (M = 45%).
- 224 Insert Figure 1
- 225 Service Speed
- The statistical analysis for the service speed revealed an absence of significant main effect of the condition F(1, 3) = 2.5, p > .05, $\eta_p^2 = 0.09$ (please see Table 1).
- 228 Insert Table 2

229

Efficiency Scores

The ANOVA computed on the efficiency scores revealed a significant main effect of the condition F(1, 3) = 10.12, p < .01, $\eta_p^2 = 0.35$. As illustrated in Figure 2, the post-hoc test revealed that the participant had higher efficiency scores in the IVI (M = 1.8) and KI (M = 2.0) conditions

- 233 than in the control (M = 1.5) and EVI (M = 1.5) conditions. Finally, the players had higher scores in
- the KI than in the IVI conditions.
- 235 Insert Figure 2

Imagery Preference

- Nine, eight and three participants indicated that their preferred MI modality was IVI, KI and
- 238 IVE respectively. In addition, it seems important to note that by looking specifically at the results
- obtained by the players in each of the experimental conditions (i.e., Control, IVI, IVE and KI),
- according to their imaging preference, we noticed that 14 (i.e., 70%) and 13 (i.e., 65%) of them
- achieved a higher percentage of success and efficiency scores respectively, in their preferred MI
- 242 modality.

243

251

Percentage of Success Normalised Difference Scores

- The ANOVA revealed an absence of main effect of condition F(1, 2) = 1.55, p > .05, $\eta_p^2 =$
- 245 0.07. There was no significant difference between the normalised difference score in IVI
- 246 (M=31.5%), KI (M=41.1%) and EVI (M=16.2%) conditions.

247 Service Speed Normalised Difference Scores

- The ANOVA revealed an absence of main effect of condition F(1, 2) = 0.43, p > .05, $\eta_p^2 =$
- 249 0.02. There was no significant difference between the service speed normalised difference score in
- 250 IVI (M=-2.9%), KI (M=-4.6%) and EVI (M=-4.8%) conditions.

Efficiency Normalised Difference Scores

- The ANOVA revealed a significant main effect of condition F(1, 2) = 15.21, p < .01, $\eta_p^2 =$
- 253 0.45. As illustrated in Figure 3, the post-hoc tests revealed that the participant normalised difference
- 254 score, compared to control condition, was higher when using the IVI (M=28.1%) and KI
- 255 (M=42.3%) than EVI (M=7.6%) modalities. Finally, the players had higher normalised different
- scores in the KI than in the IVI conditions..
- 257 Insert Figure 3

258 Discussion

The aim of this study was to evaluate the effects of motor imagery modalities and preferences on first serve performance in skilled tennis players.

259

260

261

262

263

264

265

266

267

268

269

270

271

272

273

274

275

276

277

278

279

280

281

282

283

284

As hypothesised, the results of the current study revealed that the participants benefited from MI when they used this mental technique before serving in match condition. Indeed, in the IVI and KI conditions (a trend for IVE) the tennis players had significant higher percentage of success of service compared to the control condition (i.e., in which the participants only performed physical execution). In addition, the results regarding the normalised difference score, which is calculated based on difference with the control condition, revealed increases in percentage of success in the service of more than 41%, 31% and 16% when using KI, IVI and IVE respectively. These results are consistent with those of previous research work that have shown the beneficial effect of MI in sport performances (e.g., Guillot & Collet, 2008; Ladda et al., 2021; Mizuguchi et al., 2012), racket sports (Cécé et al., 2020), tennis (Atienza et al., 1998; Cherappurath et al., 2020; Dominique et al., 2021; Fekih et al., 2020; Robin et al., 2023) and more particularly in closed motor skills such as service (Coelho et al., 2007). As evoked by Hanakawa (2016) MI shares the control mechanisms and neural substrates with actual movement. Indeed, premotor cortex that is activated during MI (Guillot et al., 2009) involves the planning and preparation of actual movements (Cisek & Kalaska, 2004). Therefore, internal simulation of action, during MI, can facilitates improved motor performance (Ridderinkhof & Brass, 2015).

However, and as previously evoked by Callow and Roberts (2012), each MI modality can have differentiated effects on motor performance. Indeed, the results of the current study also revealed greater efficiency scores and efficiency normalised difference score in the KI condition compared to the other MI (i.e., IVI and EVI) conditions. This result confirms the results obtained by Féry and Morizot (2000) who observed higher service performance when using KI than EVI modality. Hardy and Callow (1999) evoked that the use of KI can be particularly beneficial when participants have certain degree of expertise at a task, because it is easier to imagine sensations of strength, relaxation or contraction of controlled movement (Fourkas et al., 2008). The effect of KI

could be due to the fact that this MI modality increases the corticospinal excitability (Stinear et al., 2006) and activates the preparatory planning stages that lead to motor action (Jeannerod, 2006). In addition, KI activates more motor-associated structures than visual imagery, which predominantly activates the occipital regions (Guillot et al., 2009), which could promote motor control and performance in a closed motor skill such as serving.

285

286

287

288

289

290

291

292

293

294

295

296

297

298

299

300

301

302

303

304

305

306

307

308

309

310

As for the KI condition, the results also revealed that participants had higher percentage of success of the service, as well as efficiency normalised difference score, in the IVI condition compared to the EVI condition. Previous studies showed beneficial effect, on motor performance and precision, when using IVI (e.g., Mizuguchi et al., 2015; Robin et al., 2007) or KI (e.g., Desliens et al., 2011; Fekih et al., 2020) modalities during MI intervention in skilled tennis players. The IVE modality has shown beneficial effects in improving serve performance in non-expert young tennis players (e.g., Mamassis, 2005) likely due to the fact that this modality may be useful for memorizing standardized movements (Hardy & Callow, 1999). Once a technical motor action (e.g., the service in tennis) is automated, it is possible that athletes prefer using "internal" imagery perspectives, which includes a variety of inputs from different sensory modalities (Mizuguchi et al., 2012) to mentally generate movement by oneself, compared to "external imagery" which consists in visualizing the motor action as a spectator (Yu et al., 2016). The latter authors mentioned that EVI requires athletes to engage in more complex processing than IVI, due to allocentric operations that must be integrated into the egocentric coordinates of the imagers, therefore requiring a additional mental processes. Finally, Barr and Hall (1992) found that athletes tended to use IVI rather than EVI as a preparation strategy.

In the current study, the higher performance obtained when using KI and IVI compared to EVI, could also be explained by the MI preference of the participants (most of them, who frequently used mental simulation, preferred using KI and IVI modalities). Robin and Dominique (2022) recently evoked that MI training should be based upon individual characteristics such as MI preferences and the results obtained in the current study seems to be consistent with this suggestion.

Indeed, almost a third of the participants achieved a higher percentage success and efficiency scores of first services balls in their preferred MI modality. This very important point needs to be confirmed, and future research including differentiating the players based on their MI preference, in independent groups performing a similar procedure, should be donne before generalization.

A first limit to this study could come from the MIQ-3f questionnaire, which is based on simple movements that could be considered to be a little distant from the motor gestures made by tennis players in matches or during training. As, to our knowledge, there are no MI abilty tools specifically developed for tennis, it would be interesting to create a questionnaire integrating movements such as the forehand, the backhand, the smash, the volley or the serve in order to be based on mental representation of actions more specific to tennis. It is also important to note that the sample of 20 participants can be considered relatively small, and limits the power of this exploratory study, particularly regarding MI preference given that we end up with 9, 8 and 3 players preferring the IVI, KI and EVI modalities, respectively. The results of this study need to be confirmed with a larger sample of players allowing for larger groups of MI preferences. Finally, the current study focused on the performance of the first serve but due to its natural stress and anxiety (Robin et al., 2022), it might be interesting to investigate the influence of MI modality on the performance of the second serve too.

Conclusion

Consistent with previous studies showing that tennis players who performed MI before serving had higher performances than in a control condition (i.e., physical execution), the main results of this pilot study revealed that the participants achieved higher percentage of success and efficiency scores in their preferred MI modality. These results lead us, in an applied way, to suggest to skilled tennis players to determine their MI preference and to have recourse to the mental simulation of a successful serve before serving the first balls in match condition. In an applied manner, it will also be recommended that coaches use motor imagery, integrated into training, and

| 336 | determine the players' IM preferences in order to benefit from the positive effects of this mental | | | | |
|------------|---|--|--|--|--|
| 337 | technique. | | | | |
| 338 | Acknowledgements | | | | |
| 339 | We thank the tennis players who participated in this study. | | | | |
| 340 | This research received no funding from any agency in the public, commercial, or not-for- | | | | |
| 341 | profit sectors. | | | | |
| 342 | The Authors declare that there is no conflict of interest. | | | | |
| 343 | Data Availability Statement | | | | |
| 344 | All the data used in this study are available and will be sent on request. | | | | |
| 345 346 | References | | | | |
| 347 | Atienza, F. L., Balaguer, I., & García-Merita, M. L. (1998). Video modeling and imaging training | | | | |
| 348 | on performance of tennis service of 9- to 12-Year-Old Children. Perceptual and Motor | | | | |
| 349 | Skills, 87(2), 519–529. doi:10.2466/pms.1998.87.2.519 | | | | |
| 350 | Barr, K., & Hall, C. (1992). The use of imagery by rowers, International Journal of Sport | | | | |
| 351 | Psychology, 23, 243–261. | | | | |
| 352 | Callow, N., & Roberts, R. (2012). Visual imagery perspectives: A commentary on Morris and | | | | |
| 353 | Spittle. Journal of Mental Imagery, 36, 31–39. | | | | |
| 354 | Callow, N., Roberts, R., & Amendola, J. (2012). Imagery ability, perspectives, and preference: | | | | |
| 355 | Insights for developing effective interventions-the potential interactive effects of visual | | | | |
| 356 | imagery perspective and preference on a formbased task. Journal of Sport & Exercise | | | | |
| 357 | Psychology, 34. S63-S63. | | | | |
| 358 | Cece, V., Guillet-Descas, E., & Martinent, G. (2020). Mental training program in racket sports: A | | | | |
| 359 | systematic review. International Journal of Racket Sports Science, 2(1), 55-71. | | | | |
| 360 | https://doi.org/10. 30827/Digibug.63721 | | | | |
| 361 | Cisek, P., & Kalaska, J.F. (2004). Neural correlates of mental rehearsal in dorsal premotor cortex. | | | | |
| 362 | Nature, 431, 993–996. | | | | |

- 363 Cherappurath, N., Elayaraja, M., Kabeer, D.A., Anjum, A., Vogazianos, P., & Antoniades, A. 364 (2020). PETTLEP imagery and tennis service performance: An applied investigation. Journal of Imagery Research in Sport and Physical Activity, 15(1), 20190013. 365 366 https://doi.org/10.1515/jirspa-2019-0013. 367 Coelho, R. W., De Campos, W., Da Silva, S. G., Okazaki, F. H., & Keller, B. (2007). Imagery 368 intervention in open and closed tennis motor skill performance. Perceptual Motor Skills, 369 *105*, 458–468. 370 Cumming, J.L., & Ste-Marie, D.M. (2001). The cognitive and motivational effects of imagery 371 training: A matter of perspective. The Sport Psychologist, 15(3), 276–288. 372 Crammond D. J. (1997). Motor imagery: never in your wildest dream. Trends in neurosciences, 373 20(2), 54–57. https://doi.org/10.1016/s0166-2236(96)30019-2 374 Dana, A., & Gozalzadeh, E. (2017). Internal and external imagery effects on tennis skills among 375 novices. Perceptual and Motor Skills, 124(5), 1022–1043. doi: 10.1177/0031512517719611 376 Desliens, S., Guillot, A., & Rogowski, I. (2011). Motor imagery and serving precision: A case 377 study. *ITF Coaching and Sport Science Review*, 55, 9–10. 378 Di Corrado, D., Guarnera, M., Vitali, F., Quartiroli, A., & Coco, M. (2019). Imagery ability of elite level athletes from individual vs. team and contact vs. no-contact sports. PeerJ, 7:e6940. 379 380 doi: 107717/peerj.6940 381 Dominique, L., & Robin, N. (2020). Serve routine preparation: Benefits of a combination of 382 imagery, ball bounce and breathing on performance. ITF Coaching & Sport Science 383 Review, 28(82), 18–20. https://doi.org/10.52383/itfcoaching.v28i82.15
- Dominique, L., Coudevylle, G. & Robin, N. (2021). Effet d'une routine centrée sur l'imagerie mentale et sur l'efficacité du service chez des joueurs de tennis experts. *Staps*, *134*, 75–91. https://doi.org/10.3917/sta.pr1.0027

387 Fekih, S., Zguira, M. S., Koubaa, A., Masmoudi, L., Bragazzi, N. L., & Jarraya, M. (2020). Effects 388 of motor mental Imagery training on tennis service performance during the ramadan fasting: 389 A randomized, controlled trial. *Nutrients*, 12(4), E1035. doi: 10.3390/nu12041035 390 Féry, Y.A., & Morizot, P. (2000). Kinesthetic and visual images in modelling closed motor skills: 391 the example of the tennis serve. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 90, 707–722. 392 Fourkas, A.D., Bonavolontà, V., Avenanti, A., & Aglioti, S.M. (2008). Kinesthetic imagery and 393 tool-specific modulation of corticospinal representations in expert tennis players. Cerebral 394 Cortex (New York, N.Y.: 1991), 18(10), 2382–2390. https://doi.org/10.1093/cercor/bhn005. 395 Frank, C., Land, W., Popp, C., & Schack, T. (2014). Mental representation and mental practice: 396 Experimental investigation on the functional links between motor memory and motor 397 imagery. *PLoS One*, 9(4), e95175. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0095175. 398 Gentili, R., Han, C. E., Schweighofer, N., & Papaxanthis, C. (2010). Motor learning without doing: 399 trial-by-trial improvement in motor performance during mental training. Journal of 400 *Neurophysiology*, 104, 774–783. doi: 10.1152/jn.00257.2010 401 Guillot, A., & Collet, C. (2008). Construction of the motor imagery integrative model in sport: A 402 review and theoretical investigation of motor imagery use. International Review of Sport 403 and Exercise Psychology, 1, 31–44. 404 Guillot, A., Collet, C., Nguyen, V. A., Malouin, F., Richards, C., & Doyon, J. (2009). Brain activity 405 during visual versus kinesthetic imagery: An fMRI study. Human brain mapping, 30(7), 406 2157–2172. https://doi.org/10.1002/hbm.20658 407 Guillot, A., Genevois, C., Desliens, S., Saieb, S., & Rogowski, I. (2012). Motor imagery and 408 'placebo-racket effects' in tennis serve performance. Psychology of Sport and Exercise 13, 409 533-540. 410 Guillot, A., Desliens, S., Rouyer, C., & Rogowski, I. (2013). Motor imagery and tennis serve

performance: The external focus efficacy. Journal of Sports Science and Medicine, 12(2),

411

412

332-338.

- 413 Hall C.R. (2001). Imagery in sport and exercise. In R.N. Singer, H.A. Hausenblas, C.M. Janelle
- 414 (Eds.), Handbook of sport psychology (2nd ed., pp. 529-549). New York: John Wiley &
- 415 Sons.
- 416 Hanakawa T. (2016). Organizing motor imageries. Neuroscience research, 104, 56-63.
- 417 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neures.2015.11.003
- 418 Hardy, L., & Callow, N. (1999). Efficacy of external and internal visual imagery perspectives for
- the enhancement of performance on tasks in which form is important. Journal of Sport &
- *Exercise Psychology*, *21*, 95–112.
- 421 Jeannerod, M. (2006). *Motor Cognition: What actions tell the self*, Oxford Psychology Series.
- 422 Jiang, D., Edwards, M. G., Mullins, P. G., & Callow, N. (2015). The neural substrates for the
- different modalities of movement imagery. Brain and Cognition, 97, 22e31.
- 424 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bandc.2015.04.005.
- 425 Ladda, A. M., Lebon, F., & Lotze, M. (2021). Using motor imagery practice for improving motor
- 426 performance A review. Brain and cognition, 150, 105705.
- 427 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bandc.2021.105705
- 428 Mamassis, G. (2005). Improving serving speed in young tennis players. ITF Coaching and Sport
- 429 *Science Review, 35,* 3–4.
- 430 Mizuguchi, N., Nakata, H., Uchida, Y., & Kanosue, K. (2012). Motor imagery and sport
- performance. *Journal of Physical Fitness and Sport Medicine, 1*(1), 103–111.
- 432 Mizuguchi, N., Yamagishi, T., Nakata, H., & Kanosue, K. (2015). The effect of somatosensory
- input on motor imagery depends upon motor imagery capability. Frontiers in Psychology, 6,
- 434 104. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2015.00104
- 435 Ram, N., Riggs, S. M., Skaling, S., Landers, D. M., & McCullagh, P. (2007). A comparison of
- 436 modeling and imagery in the acquisition and retention of motor skills. *Journal of Sports*
- 437 *Sciences*, 25, 587–597.

- 438 Ridderinkhof, K. R., & Brass, M. (2015). How Kinesthetic Motor Imagery works: a predictive-
- processing theory of visualization in sports and motor expertise. *Journal of physiology*,
- 440 *Paris*, 109(1-3), 53–63. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jphysparis.2015.02.003
- Robin, N., & Blandin, Y. (2021). Imagery ability classification: Commentary on «Kinaesthetic
- imagery ability moderates the effect of an AO+MI intervention on golf putt performance: A
- pilot study» by McNeill et al. (2020). Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 57, 102030. doi:
- 444 10.1016/j.psychsport.2021.102030
- Robin, N., Coudevylle, G. R., Guilllot, A., & Toussaint, L. (2020). French translation and
- validation of the Movement Imagery Questionnaire–third Version (MIQ-3f). Movement and
- 447 *Sport Science*, 108, 23–31. doi: 10.1051/sm/2019035
- 448 Robin, N., & Dominique, L. (2022). Mental imagery and tennis: A review, applied
- recommendations and new research directions. Movement and Sport Sciences,
- 450 https://doi.org/10.1051/sm/2022009
- Robin, N., Dominique, L., Toussaint, L., Blandin, Y., Guillot, A., & Le Her, M. (2007). Effects of
- 452 motor imagery training on service return accuracy in tennis: The role of imagery ability.
- 453 International Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology, 2, 177–188.
- 454 Robin, N., Ishihara, T., Guillet-Descas, E., & Crespo, M. (2023). Editorial: Performance
- optimization in racket sports: The influence of psychological techniques, factors, and
- 456 strategies. Frontiers in Psychology, 14, 1140681.doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2023.1140681
- 457 Robin, N., Toussaint, L., Charles-Charlery, C., & Coudevylle, G. R. (2019). Free throw
- performance in intermediate basketball players: The effect of dynamic motor imagery with
- and without a video of a model. Learning and Motivation, 68. doi:
- 460 10.1016/j.lmot.2019.101595
- 461 Seiler, B., Monsma, E., & Newman-Norlund, R. (2015). Biological evidence of imagery abilities:
- Intraindividual differences. Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology, 37, 421–35.
- https://doi.org/10.1123/jsep.2014-0303.

- 464 Seiler, B. D., Monsma, E. V., Newman-Norlund, R., & Sacko, R. (2022). Neural Activity During
- Imagery Supports Three Imagery Abilities as Measured by the Movement Imagery
- Questionnaire-3. Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology, 44(5), 344-
- 467 358. https://doi.org/10.1123/jsep.2021-0229
- 468 Schuster, C., Hilfiker, R., Amft, O., Scheidhauer, A., Andrews, B., Butler, J., Kischka, U., & Ettlin,
- T. (2011). Best practice for motor imagery: A systematic literature review on motor imagery
- training elements in five different disciplines. BMC Medicine, 9, 75.
- 471 https://doi.org/10.1186/1741-7015-9-75.
- 472 Simonsmeier, B., Androniea, M., Buecker, S., & Frank, C. (2020). The effects of imagery
- interventions in sports: a meta-analysis. International Review of Sport and Exercise
- 474 *Psychology*, 14(1), 186–207. https://doi.org/10.1080/1750984X.2020.1780627.
- Stinear, C. M., Byblow, W. D., Steyvers, M., Levin, O., & Swinnen, S. P. (2006). Kinesthetic, but
- not visual, motor imagery modulates corticomotor excitability. Experimental Brain
- 477 Research, 168(1–2), 157–164.
- 478 Toth, A.J., McNeill, E., Hayes, K., Moran, A.P., & Campbell, M. (2020). Does mental practice still
- enhance performance? A 24 year follow-up and meta-analytic replication and extension.
- 480 Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 48, 101672. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.psy
- 481 chsport.2020.101672.
- White, A., & Hardy, L. (1995). Use of different imagery perspectives on the learning and
- performance of different motor skills. *British Journal of Psychology*, 86, 169–180.
- White, A., & Hardy, L. (1998). An in-depth analysis of the uses of imagery by high-level slalom
- 485 canoeists and artistic gymnasts. *The Sport Psychologist*, 12, 387–403.
- 486 Yao, W. X., Ranganathan, V. K., Allexandre, D., Siemionow, V., & Yue, G. H. (2013). Kinesthetic
- 487 imagery training of forceful muscle contractions increases brain signal and muscle
- strength. Frontiers in Human Neuroscience, 7, 561.
- 489 https://doi.org/10.3389/fnhum.2013.00561

| 490 | Yu, Q. H., Fu, A. S. N., Kho, A., Li, J., Sun, X. H., & Chan, C. C. H. (2016). Imagery perspective |
|-----|--|
| 491 | among young athletes: Differentiation between external and internal visual imagery. Journal |
| 492 | of Sport and Health Science, 5(2), 211–218. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jshs.2014.12.008 |
| 493 | |
| 494 | |
| 495 | |
| 496 | |
| 497 | |
| 498 | |
| 499 | |
| 500 | |
| 501 | |
| 502 | |
| 503 | |
| 504 | |
| 505 | |
| 506 | |
| 507 | |
| 508 | |
| 509 | |
| 510 | |
| 511 | |
| 512 | |
| 513 | |
| 514 | |
| 515 | |

| 516 | Figure captions |
|-----------------------------------|---|
| 517 | Figure 1. Percentage of service success measures in the Control, Internal Visual Imagery (IVI) |
| 518 | External Visual Imagery (EVI) and Kinesthetic Imagery (KI) conditions (** $p < .01$) |
| 519 | |
| 520 | Figure 2. Efficiency scores of service in the Control, Internal Visual Imagery (IVI), External Visual |
| 521 | Imagery (EVI) and Kinesthetic Imagery (KI) conditions (** $p < .01$) |
| 522 | |
| 523 | Figure 3. Efficiency Normalised Difference Score in the Control—Internal Visual Imagery (C— |
| 524 | IVI), Control—External Visual Imagery (C—EVI) and Control—Kinesthetic Imagery (C—KI) |
| 525 | conditions (* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$) |
| 526 | |
| 527 | |
| 528 | |
| 529 | |
| 530 | |
| 531 | |
| 532 | |
| 533 | |
| 534 | |
| | |
| 535 | |
| 536 | |
| 537538 | |
| 539 | |
| 540 | |
| 541 | |
| 542 | |
| 543 | |
| 544 | |
| 545 | |
| 546 | |

547 Table 1548 General characteristics of the players

| Measurements | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Standard deviation |
|------------------|---------|---------|-------|--------------------|
| Age (years) | 17 | 22 | 18.6 | 4.7 |
| Training (years) | 9 | 13 | 11.2 | 1.9 |
| Body weight (kg) | 72 | 93 | 79.4 | 5.6 |
| Body height (cm) | 174 | 197 | 181.1 | 9.4 |

Table 2
Mean service speed measured during the Control, Internal Visual Imagery (IVI), External Visual
Imagery (EVI) and Kinesthetic Imagery (KI) conditions

| - | Control | IVI | EVI | KI | |
|--------------------|---------|-------|-------|-------|--|
| Mean (Km/h) | 147.7 | 144.3 | 141.6 | 142.1 | |
| Standard deviation | 12.8 | 12.1 | 13.9 | 8.9 | |

Note: IVI (Internal Visual Imagery), IVE (External Visual Imagery), KI (Kinesthatic Imagery), *p* > .05 (no significant difference between sessions).





