

1 **Title**

2 Planning Face, Hand, and Leg Movements: Anatomical Constraints on Preparatory Inhibition.

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12 Running Head: Anatomical Constraints on Preparatory Inhibition

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17 Abstract

18 Motor-evoked potentials (MEPs), elicited by Transcranial Magnetic Stimulation (TMS) over the
19 motor cortex, are reduced during the preparatory period in delayed response tasks. Here we
20 examine how MEP suppression varies as a function of the anatomical organization of the motor
21 cortex. MEPs were recorded from a left index muscle while participants prepared a hand or leg
22 movement in Experiment 1, or prepared an eye or mouth movement in Experiment 2. In this
23 manner, we assessed if the level of MEP suppression in a hand muscle varied as a function of the
24 anatomical distance between the agonist for the forthcoming movement and the muscle targeted
25 by TMS. MEP suppression was attenuated when the cued effector was anatomically distant from
26 the hand (e.g., leg or facial movement compared to finger movement). A similar effect was
27 observed in Experiment 3 in which MEPs were recorded from a muscle in the leg and the
28 forthcoming movement involved the upper limb or face. These results demonstrate an important
29 constraint on preparatory inhibition: It is sufficiently broad to be manifest in a muscle that is not
30 involved in the task, but is not global, showing a marked attenuation when the agonist muscle
31 belongs to a different segment of the body.

32

33 **New & Noteworthy:** Using TMS, we examine changes in corticospinal excitability as people
34 prepare to move. Consistent with previous work, we observe a reduction in excitability during
35 the preparatory period, an effect observed in both task relevant and task irrelevant muscles.
36 However, this preparatory inhibition is anatomically constrained, attenuated in muscles
37 belonging to a different body segment than the agonist of the forthcoming movement.

38

39 **Key words:** motor cortex, movement, preparatory inhibition, somatotopy, TMS

40

41 **Introduction**

42
43 Transcranial Magnetic Stimulation (TMS) has proven to be a powerful tool to assess the
44 dynamics of corticospinal (CS) excitability during response preparation in humans (Bestmann
45 and Duque 2016; Cos et al. 2014; Klein et al. 2012; Leocani et al. 2000). In a delayed response
46 task, a cue is provided to indicate the forthcoming response, with that response initiated after the
47 onset of an imperative signal (e.g., cue left or right index finger movement). TMS studies have
48 shown local increases in cortical excitability in primary motor cortex (M1) during the delay
49 period (Davranche et al. 2007; Duque and Ivry 2009; Tandonnet et al. 2010), as well as broad
50 suppression of cortico-spinal excitability during the same time window (Greenhouse et al.
51 2015b; Hannah et al. 2018). Indeed, when single-pulse TMS is delivered over the primary motor
52 cortex during the delay period, motor evoked potentials (MEPs) elicited from the targeted muscle
53 show profound suppression, regardless of whether that muscle is required to perform the cued
54 movement (i.e., selected) or not required for the forthcoming response (non-selected) (Duque et
55 al. 2017; Duque and Ivry 2009; Quoilin et al. 2016). After the imperative, the selected muscle
56 shows a rapid increase in excitability, while the non-selected muscles remain suppressed (Duque
57 et al. 2014; Duque and Ivry 2009; Klein et al. 2016).

58
59 Interestingly, in many studies, the strongest level of MEP suppression during the delay period is
60 observed when the muscle is the agonist for the selected response (Duque and Ivry 2009; Klein
61 et al. 2016). This observation led to the hypothesis that preparatory inhibition is designed to
62 prevent premature movement. In contrast, MEP suppression of non-selected muscles has been
63 considered a useful mechanism for action selection, helping to sharpen the preparation of a
64 selected movement by inhibiting alternative representations (Duque et al. 2005, 2010; Leocani et

65 al. 2000; Tandonnet et al. 2011). This process might be implemented by inhibitory interactions
66 between competing alternatives or might rely on a more generic form of inhibition whereby the
67 choice of one action is accompanied by broad inhibition of the motor system to lower
68 interference from irrelevant motor representations (Duque et al. 2017).

69
70 Using a reaction time (RT) task in which the response was fixed for an entire block of trials,
71 Greenhouse et al. (2015b) observed substantial preparatory inhibition in task-irrelevant muscles
72 (e.g., in a left index finger agonist when the right pinky was always used to make the response).
73 Indeed, the magnitude of the MEP suppression was similar in task-irrelevant muscles compared
74 to task-relevant muscles (e.g., in a left index finger agonist when the cued response was either
75 the left index finger or the left pinky). These findings are difficult to reconcile with the
76 hypothesis that preparatory inhibition assists action selection, and points to a more generic
77 process.

78
79 However, other findings suggest that preparatory inhibition is not generic. In choice RT tasks,
80 the magnitude of MEP suppression in a non-selected muscle varies as a function of the
81 relationship between the members of the response set: A bigger reduction in excitability is found
82 when the response set involves homologous effectors compared to when the response set
83 involves non-homologous effectors (Duque et al. 2014; Labruna et al. 2014), a result that may
84 reflect functional or anatomical links between homologous representations across the two
85 hemispheres (van den Heuvel and Hulshoff Pol 2010). Similarly, MEP suppression in a non-
86 selected muscle (e.g., left index finger) is greater when the planned movement involves another

87 upper limb effector (e.g., right index finger) compared to when the planned movement involves a
88 lower limb effector (e.g. right leg).

89
90 Taken together, these findings suggest that preparatory inhibition is subject to anatomical
91 constraints. To further explore this hypothesis, we systematically manipulated the response set to
92 derive comparisons between conditions in which the probed muscle was close or distant to the
93 members of the response set in terms of anatomy or function. An overview of the experimental
94 plan is presented in Fig 1. In Exps 1 and 2, MEPs were always elicited from the left first dorsal
95 interosseous (FDI) muscle, the agonist for left index finger abduction movements. We created
96 conditions in which this muscle was selected or not selected for the forthcoming response or
97 task-irrelevant. Of primary interest, we manipulated the response set to examine whether
98 corticospinal excitability in left FDI varied as a function of the other candidate movements,
99 choosing a range of movements that involved the same or different side of the body or same or
100 different body segment.

101
102 In Exp 1, this involved a comparison of left FDI MEPs between different sets of hand and leg
103 movements. Here we sought to replicate our earlier findings (Duque et al. 2014; Labruna et al.
104 2014) showing that reduced excitability is modulated by anatomical similarity, but not by task
105 relevance. In particular, we expected to observe greater MEP suppression in the left FDI when
106 the selected response involved a finger movement not requiring left FDI, compared to when the
107 selected response involved a leg movement. In Exp 2, the focus was on response sets in which
108 index finger movements were paired with either eye or mouth movements. By combining hand
109 and facial movements, we obtain a second test of inter-segmental interactions in preparatory

110 inhibition. To ensure that our results are not specific to hand muscles, the TMS probe was
111 targeted at a lower leg muscle, the right tibialis anterior (TA) muscle, in Exp 3. The focus here
112 was to determine if the patterns of intra- and intersegmental interactions observed in a hand
113 muscle would be similar in a leg muscle.

114

115 **Methods**

116

117 **Participants**

118 Thirty-six healthy, right-handed participants (Oldfield, 1971) were tested, 12 in each experiment
119 (mean \pm SD: Exp 1: 20.8 \pm 1.1 years old, 10 men; Exp 2: 22.6 \pm 5.4 years old, 6 men; Exp 3:
120 21.0 \pm 1.7 years old, 5 men). Participants were recruited from a website maintained by UC
121 Berkeley to assist investigators in identifying individuals willing to participate in scientific
122 research. The participants were naïve to the purpose of the study and were financially
123 compensated for their participation. The recruitment process used in the present study excluded
124 professional musicians or individuals with an extensive history of experience in playing a
125 musical instrument. The protocol was approved by the institutional review board of the
126 University of California, Berkeley. As part of the informed consent, participants completed a
127 TMS safety checklist prior to the start of the experiment.

128

129 **Procedure**

130 **TMS**

131 In all experiments, participants sat in front of a computer screen with both hands resting on a
132 pillow, palms down, with the arms relaxed in a semi-flexed position. TMS was applied over the

133 M1 during a delayed response task to measure changes in the excitability state of the CS pathway
134 during response preparation. The TMS was positioned to elicit MEPs in a single targeted muscle
135 across all conditions in a given experiment (for a review of general procedures used to measure
136 corticospinal excitability during response preparation, see Bestmann and Duque 2016; Duque et
137 al. 2017).

138
139 TMS pulses were delivered with a monophasic Magstim 200² magnetic stimulator (Magstim,
140 Whitland, Dyfed, UK). In Exps 1 and 2, a 90 mm figure-of-eight coil was positioned over the
141 participant's scalp above the right M1. The coil was placed tangentially, in the posterior-anterior
142 direction, with the handle oriented toward the back of the head, and laterally at a 45° angle from
143 the midline, an orientation that is approximately perpendicular to the central sulcus. We
144 identified the optimal position to elicit MEPs in the left FDI muscle. In Exp 3, the coil was
145 positioned to optimize MEPs in the TA of the right leg, the agonist for adduction movements of
146 the right foot. Given that the leg region is in the depth of the sulcal, we used a 110 mm double
147 cone coil that produces a higher induced current (Deng et al. 2014). The coil was positioned over
148 the left M1, in a posterior–anterior orientation, 1 cm above and 1 cm to the right of the vertex.

149
150 Once identified, the optimal position for eliciting MEPs in the targeted muscle (left FDI or right
151 TA) was marked on the scalp to provide a reference point for the experimental session. The
152 participant's resting motor threshold (rMT) was identified at the hotspot and defined as the
153 minimum TMS intensity required to evoke MEPs of ~50 μ V peak-to-peak amplitude on 5 of 10
154 consecutive trials (Rossini et al., 1994). Averaging across Exps 1 and 2, the mean rMT for the
155 left FDI corresponded to 45% (SD = 7) of maximum stimulator output (MSO). In Exp 3, the

156 mean rMT for the right TA was 78% (SD = 13) of MSO. The intensity of TMS was set to 115%
157 of the individual rMT.

158

159 **EMG Recording**

160 EMG was recorded with surface electrodes placed above selected muscles (see below). The
161 EMG signal was continuously monitored on-line to ensure that participants maintained a relaxed
162 posture over the course of the experiment. The EMG signals were amplified and bandpass-
163 filtered on-line between 20 and 450 Hz (Delsys, Inc.). The signals were digitized at 2000 Hz for
164 off-line analysis.

165

166 In Exp 1, six EMG electrodes were used, positioned to record from FDI, abductor digiti minimi
167 (ADM) and TA on both sides. In Exp 2, we used four electrodes. Two were placed on the left
168 and right FDI. The other two were placed on the face, one over the left orbicularis oculi (OOc)
169 and the other over the left depressor anguli oris (DAO), to record EMG for eye and mouth
170 muscles, respectively. We only considered activity on one side given that movements with the
171 face effectors, when produced, entailed a relatively symmetric activation in the left and right side
172 muscles (Cattaneo and Pavesi 2014). In Exp 3, six electrodes were used to record activity from
173 FDI and TA bilaterally, and from left DAO (mouth muscle) and the short head of right biceps
174 brachii (BBS), the agonist for arm flexion.

175

176 **Delayed-response task**

177 A delayed response task was used to study changes in corticospinal excitability during response
178 preparation (Fig 1b). Each trial began with the brief presentation (100 ms) of a cross at the center

179 of the computer monitor, followed by a 600 ms blank screen and then the presentation of a
180 preparatory cue for 900 ms. The cue consisted of one or two words, positioned at the screen
181 center, specifying the effector for the forthcoming response (e.g., “LEFT”, see below). At the
182 end of the 900 ms delay period, the word “GO” appeared for 300 ms, providing a signal to the
183 participant to produce the cued response. The participants were instructed to prepare their
184 response during the delay period in order to respond as quickly as possible once the imperative
185 stimulus appeared.

186
187 A single TMS pulse was applied on each trial. The pulse was either coincident with the onset of
188 the fixation cross (TMS baseline) or occurred 100 ms before the imperative, 800 ms into the
189 delay period (TMS delay). The TMS baseline and delay trials were randomized, with the
190 constraint that the two timings occurred equally often for each cue. The variation in MEP
191 amplitudes at TMS delay with respect to TMS baseline provided a probe of changes in CS
192 excitability during movement preparation. Although preparatory time may vary for different
193 movements, the long delay period used here ensures that participants have sufficient time to
194 reach an optimal state of preparation prior to the imperative. The duration of the inter-trial
195 interval (ITI) was variable and fluctuated between 3000-3500 ms. We note that, with this design,
196 the participants can anticipate the TMS pulse during the delay period if it did not occur at
197 baseline. However, prior work in our lab showed that changes in CS excitability during the delay
198 period are not related to the anticipation of a TMS pulse (Greenhouse et al. 2015b).

199
200 In each experiment (summarized in Fig 1c), trials were grouped in blocks, with each block
201 involving only one condition. Participants were informed of the response set and their associated

202 cues prior to the start of each block (see below). In Choice RT conditions, there were two or
203 three possible responses and their order was randomized within the block. In Simple RT
204 conditions, the response set consisted of a single response. There were 60 trials in each Choice
205 condition, three of which were catch trials (no imperative). There were 40 trials in each Simple
206 condition, two of which were catch trials. We recorded 20 baseline MEPs for each condition and
207 20 MEPs for each cue condition in the delay period, a sample size recommended to obtain
208 reliable MEP measures (Biabani et al., 2018). The blocks lasted approximately eight and six
209 minutes for the Choice and Simple RT conditions, respectively. The order of the blocks was
210 randomized across participants (but see constraints in Exp 1).

211
212 The muscle from which the MEPs were recorded (left FDI in Exps 1 and 2, right TA in Exp 3)
213 was always relevant or irrelevant for a given block (as highlighted in Fig 1c). The former
214 situation occurred in blocks where the targeted muscle was the agonist for an effector that was
215 part of the response set (and either selected or non-selected on each trial). In contrast, the
216 targeted muscle was irrelevant when it was the agonist for an effector that was not part of the
217 response set in the block. We use the terminology task-relevant and task-irrelevant blocks to
218 describe this aspect of the design.

219
220 Experiment 1

221 In Exp 1, we examined CS excitability changes in left FDI as the participants prepared
222 movements with either the left or right hand/leg. There were eight conditions, five of which
223 involved Choice RT tasks. For three of these, left FDI was relevant, with left index finger paired
224 with either the right index finger, the left pinky, or the right leg. These three conditions were

225 selected to compare preparatory inhibition in a hand muscle when the alternative response
226 involved a homologous effector, another effector on the same hand, or an effector of another
227 body segment. For the other two Choice conditions, the left index finger was irrelevant, with the
228 response set consisting of either left/right pinky movements or left/right leg movements. Here
229 we evaluate preparatory inhibition in left FDI when the left index finger is irrelevant but either at
230 the same body segment (intra-segmental) or at a different body segment (inter-segmental) as the
231 effectors included in the response set. Left FDI was also irrelevant in the three Simple RT
232 blocks. These conditions allowed us to ask the same question as with the irrelevant Choice
233 blocks, but without the choice component given that the response was fixed for a given block
234 (left pinky, right or left leg).

235
236 When the response set involved a left and right effector, the cues were “Left” and “Right”. When
237 the response set involved two left hand options, the cues were “Index” and “Pinky”. The word
238 “Left” or “Right” was used as the cue in the three Simple RT conditions. Index and pinky
239 responses required an abduction of the specified finger, bringing it away from the center of the
240 hand. For leg responses, the participant produced adduction movements, lifting the foot toward
241 the body midline.

242
243 The block order was randomized across participants with the constraint that the left index-right
244 index pairing was always tested last. We did so because we were concerned that some
245 participants might tire over the duration of a 120 min experiment. Given that the left-right index
246 pairing has been used in numerous other studies, we opted to test this one last since the results
247 here could be compared to prior results, providing a crude reliability check.

248 Experiment 2

249 Exp 2 was designed to further investigate anatomical constraints on preparatory inhibition. A
250 key comparison in Exp 1 involved changes in the MEPs of a hand muscle when preparing a leg
251 movement. In Exp 2, we extended this inter-segmental test, but now examined changes in the
252 MEPs of a hand muscle when preparing a facial movement. Moreover, by comparing different
253 facial gestures, we can assess if the spread of preparatory inhibition is a function of cortical
254 distance. Based on the classic motor homunculus, we would expect MEPs from left FDI would
255 show more suppression when the selected response involves the eye compared to the mouth,
256 given that the eye representation is anatomically closer to the hand area (Fig 1a).

257
258 Given that facial movements are generally bilateral (Cattaneo and Pavesi 2014), we thought it
259 important to compare these movements to bilateral hand movements. There were four conditions
260 (Fig 1c), with the order randomized across participants. For three of these, the left FDI was
261 relevant, with bimanual index finger movements combined with either eye or mouth movements,
262 or with unimanual left and right index finger movements. The latter block was used as a control
263 condition to establish a baseline. In the fourth block, the choice was between a mouth and an eye
264 movement, with the left FDI being irrelevant.

265
266 Finger movements were cued with the words “Left index”, “Right index”, or “Both index”. Eye
267 and mouth movements were cued with the words “Eyes” or “Mouth”, respectively. Finger
268 responses were as in Exp 1 (index finger abduction). Eye movements consisted of a single
269 volitional squint with both eyes. The mouth movements required the participants to make a
270 volitional smile, with the instruction to show as much of the teeth as possible.

271 Experiment 3

272 To ensure that the CS excitability changes observed in Exp 1 and 2 were not specific to MEPs
273 elicited in a hand muscle, we targeted the TA muscle of the right leg in Exp 3. MEPs are more
274 difficult to elicit from leg muscles: Not only is the leg region in the depth of the sulcal, but the
275 motor representations of leg muscles may contain fewer or weaker corticospinal projections
276 (Kesar et al. 2018). Given this challenge, the thresholding phase of Exp 3 also served as a
277 screening procedure: We recruited 23 participants to identify 12 individuals for whom we were
278 able to consistently elicit MEPs in the right TA.

279
280 There were a total of eight conditions, with the order randomized across these 12 participants.
281 The right TA muscle was relevant in two conditions, one in which the right leg was tested in a
282 Simple RT task and one in which the right leg was paired with the left index finger in a Choice
283 RT task. Note that we opted to record MEPS from the right TA rather than the left TA given that,
284 by doing so, we have a condition that is identical to one tested in Exp 1 (left index paired with
285 right leg).

286
287 The right TA was irrelevant in the other six conditions. Five of these were Simple RT tasks,
288 with the responses made (in separate blocks) with either the mouth, right arm, left index finger,
289 right index finger, or left leg. For the remaining Choice RT condition, we used the 3-choice
290 manual condition of Exp 2 (left, right or bimanual index finger movement).

291

292 For the Simple RT blocks, the words “Left Index”, “Right Index”, “Right Arm”, “Mouth” or
293 “Left Leg” were used. In the Choice RT blocks, the cues were “Left Index”, “Right Index”,
294 “Both Index” or “Right Leg”. The required movements for each effector were as in Exps 1 and 2.

295

296 **Data and statistical Analysis**

297 The EMG data were analyzed offline using customized routines within Matlab, as well as visual
298 inspection of individual traces to identify artifacts. From the EMG data, we extracted two
299 dependent variables: The peak-to-peak amplitude of the MEP (left FDI in Exps 1 and 2; right TA
300 in Exp 3) and the reaction time (RT). To prevent contamination of the MEP measurements by
301 fluctuations in background EMG, trials were excluded if the background EMG activity was
302 greater than 0.01 mV in the 200-msec window preceding the TMS pulse (Duque et al. 2014;
303 Quoilin et al. 2016; Wilhelm et al. 2016). We also excluded MEPs that were above or below 3
304 SD of the mean MEP amplitude for that condition, as well as those in which there was EMG
305 activity associated with a non-cued response (selection errors). Overall, 9% of the trials (SD =
306 2%) were excluded from the analysis (approximately 50% of these were due to the outlier
307 exclusion criterion).

308

309 The mean MEP values were calculated for the TMS baseline and delay probes, with the latter
310 calculated separately for each cued effector. To assess CS excitability changes during response
311 preparation, we subtracted the mean delay period MEPs from the mean baseline MEPs on an
312 individual basis and normalized these values by dividing the difference by the mean baseline
313 value. The scores were multiplied by 100 to express as percentage scores, with negative values
314 indicative of preparatory inhibition. Given that many studies have confirmed the existence of

315 preparatory inhibition (for reviews see Bestmann and Duque 2016; Duque et al. 2017), one-tailed
316 t-tests were used in within-condition comparisons to evaluate whether the MEPs were inhibited
317 relative to baseline (i.e., comparison of the normalized scores for each condition to the null
318 hypothesis that the scores would be distributed around zero). The Shapiro-Wilk's test was used
319 to assess if the scores for a given condition met the normality assumption. When this test
320 indicated a violation of the normality assumption, we analyzed the data with the non-parametric
321 Wilcoxon Signed Rank test.

322
323 For comparisons of the preparatory MEP changes between conditions, we used repeated-
324 measures analyses of variance (ANOVA_{RM}), with post-hoc tests based on the Bonferroni
325 method, adjusted for multiple comparisons. When the contrast included a condition that violated
326 the assumption of normality, we used the non-parametric Friedman Test, with the Wilcoxon
327 signed-rank test for post-hoc comparisons. The post-hoc tests in Exps 1 and 2 were two-tailed
328 since we did not have strong a priori hypotheses. In Exp 3, a one-tailed test was employed given
329 that the results of the first two experiments led to a test of a specific hypothesis. Effect sizes are
330 reported using partial eta-squared (η_p^2) for the ANOVA, and Cohen's d for the planned contrasts
331 in which the data met the normality assumption. For the non-parametric Wilcoxon signed-rank
332 test, the effect size r was calculated as $\frac{z}{\sqrt{N}}$ (Rosenthal, 1991). The reported p-values for these are
333 adjusted for multiple comparisons.

334
335 RT was defined as the time interval between the onset of the imperative signal and the time point
336 at which the EMG activity of the agonist muscle for the cued response exceeded 3 SD of the

337 mean of the rectified signal for the entire trial epoch. ANOVA_{RM} were also used to analyze these
338 data.

339

340

341 **Results**

342

343 **CS Excitability**

344 The goal of this study was to explore constraints on preparatory inhibition. We assessed whether
345 changes in corticospinal excitability observed during the delay period varied as a function of the
346 effectors involved in the task and their anatomical relationship with the muscle probed with
347 TMS. To assess whether CS excitability was inhibited during the preparatory period, MEPs
348 elicited during the delay period were compared to MEPs elicited at baseline (i.e., trial onset). A
349 summary of these within-condition comparisons for all three experiments is presented in Table 1.

350

351 **Experiment 1**

352 Baseline MEPs for the left FDI averaged 1.02 mV (SD=1.02). Relative to this baseline level,
353 MEPs elicited in the delay period were attenuated in all conditions in which the cue indicated
354 that the participant should prepare a finger movement (all $p < 0.01$, Fig 2). A similar pattern was
355 present when the cue indicated a leg movement (all $p < .05$). Thus, we observed broad suppression
356 of cortical excitability during response preparation (Greenhouse et al. 2015b), evident when the
357 targeted muscle was part of the task set (Choice Relevant), in most of the conditions in which the
358 muscle was not part of the task set (Choice Irrelevant), and even when there was no choice
359 (Simple Irrelevant RT conditions).

360
361 To compare the strength of preparatory inhibition between the different experimental conditions,
362 we used a 3 (Task: Choice Relevant, Choice Irrelevant, and Simple Irrelevant) x 2 (Effector: Left
363 Pinky and Right Leg) ANOVA_{RM}. We focused on these two effectors since they were included
364 in each of the three types of tasks; the left leg and index fingers were not included in the relevant
365 and irrelevant conditions and, thus, could not be used to test the effect of relevance. The effect of
366 Effector was significant ($F_{(1,11)} = 42.53, p < 0.01, \eta_p^2 = 0.79$), but there was no effect of Task
367 ($F_{(2,22)} = 3.43, p = 0.71, \eta_p^2 = 0.03$), nor an interaction between these factors ($F_{(2,22)} = 0.40, p =$
368 $0.67, \eta_p^2 = 0.03$). The degree of MEP suppression in left FDI was greater when the cued action
369 required a left pinky movement compared to when it required a right leg movement (mean
370 difference = $-39.8\% \pm 4.4, p < 0.01$, Cohen's $d = 6.87$). These results indicate that the demands on
371 response selection (Choice vs Simple) and task relevance do not influence the level of
372 preparatory inhibition. However, the magnitude of MEP suppression varied as a function of the
373 movements forming the response set. We recognize that by including the left pinky finger and
374 right leg in the first analysis confounds body segment (upper limb vs lower limb) and body side
375 (left vs right). Given this confound, we performed separate analyses ANOVA_{RM} for each of the
376 tasks (Relevant Choice, Irrelevant Choice, Irrelevant Simple), including in each ANOVA all of
377 the conditions for the task under consideration (see Figure 1).

378
379 For the Relevant Choice conditions (Fig 2, left side) we first focused on the three conditions in
380 which the left index finger was cued (selected). The degree of MEP suppression in left FDI
381 varied as a function of the other, non-selected member of the response set ($\chi^2 = 8.21, p = 0.02$). In
382 terms of the post-hoc comparisons, the only reliable difference was that there was stronger

383 suppression of the left FDI when paired with the homologous right index compared to when it
384 was paired with the left pinky ($Z=-2.51$; $p=0.03$, $r=-0.51$). Thus, MEP suppression was greatest
385 in the selected muscle when the choice involved homologous muscles. Second, we examined
386 MEP suppression of left FDI when the left index was not cued (non-selected) in the Choice
387 conditions. Here suppression of left FDI MEPs was weaker when the cued movement was the
388 right leg compared to when the cued movement was either the right index finger ($p<0.01$,
389 Cohen's $d=1.81$) or left pinky ($p<0.01$, Cohen's $d=1.49$). Hence, the amount of left FDI
390 suppression when the left index finger was not selected was stronger when the selected effector
391 was a hand muscle compared to when it was a leg muscle (intra-segment vs inter-segment).

392
393 Additional comparisons of anatomy can be made with the data from the Irrelevant conditions in
394 which the left index finger is not part of the response set. For the Choice Irrelevant conditions
395 (Fig 2, middle), we conducted a 2 x 2 ANOVA_{RM} with the factors Body Side (Left, Right) and
396 Effector (Pinky, Foot). There was a main effect for Effector ($F_{(1,11)} = 14.88$, $p<0.01$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.57$),
397 with greater MEP suppression of left FDI when the choice was between two finger movements
398 compared to two leg movements (mean difference = $-30\pm 8\%$). The effect of Body Side was
399 marginally significant ($F_{(1,11)} = 4.82$, $p = 0.05$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.30$), with MEP suppression greater when
400 the forthcoming response was on the left side compared to the right side. The interaction was not
401 significant ($F_{(1,11)} = 0.87$, $p = 0.37$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.07$). In the Simple Irrelevant conditions (Fig 2, right
402 side), a 1-way ANOVA_{RM} with the factor Competing Effector (Left Pinky, Left Leg, Right Leg)
403 was significant ($F_{(2,22)} = 11.44$, $p<0.01$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.51$). Post-hoc tests showed that left FDI MEP
404 suppression was stronger when participants prepared a left pinky movement compared to a left

405 ($p < 0.01$, Cohen's $d = 1.35$) or right ($p < 0.01$, Cohen's $d = 3.01$) leg movement. For the two leg
406 movement conditions, there was no effect of Body Side ($p = 0.35$, Cohen's $d = 1.34$).

407
408 In summary, the results of Experiment 1 indicate that preparatory inhibition of left FDI is
409 greatest when this muscle is the agonist for the selected response compared to when it is non-
410 selected, replicating earlier results (e.g., Duque and Ivry 2009; Labruna et al. 2014). In terms of
411 our primary question concerning the spread of preparatory inhibition, the magnitude of left FDI
412 MEP suppression was greater when the response set was restricted to finger movements
413 compared to when the response set included a leg muscle. MEP suppression also tended to be
414 greater when the cued response was on the left side of the body compared to when it was on the
415 right side of the body, although this effect was not systematic.

416
417 Experiment 2

418 The observations made in Exp 1 are consistent with the hypothesis that the reduced excitability is
419 related to anatomical similarity: MEPs in a hand muscle showed greater suppression when the
420 cued response involved a hand movement compared to when the cued response involved a leg
421 movement. In Exp 2, we further explore anatomical constraints on preparatory inhibition
422 measuring MEPs in left FDI while people prepared finger movements or facial gestures.

423
424 Baseline MEPs for the left FDI averaged 0.82 mV ($SD = 0.51$). As in Exp 1, MEPs elicited in the
425 delay period were attenuated in all conditions in which the cue indicated that the participant
426 should prepare a finger movement (all $p < 0.01$, Fig 3). In contrast, when the participants prepared
427 a facial movement, preparatory inhibition in left FDI was only significant in the condition in

428 which the eye movement was prepared in the choice context (Relevant task, $p=0.02$, see Table
429 1).

430
431 To compare preparatory inhibition between conditions, we first focused on the condition in
432 which the response set was limited to finger movements (Fig 3, left side). Given that the MEP
433 values in a number of conditions violated the normality assumption (see Table 1), the non-
434 parametric Friedman test was used to compare MEP suppression in left FDI when the cued
435 response was for a left index, right index, or bimanual index finger response. There were no
436 significant difference between the three conditions ($\chi^{(2)} = 5.17$, $p= 0.08$), and planned
437 comparisons showed that the magnitude of MEP suppression in the bimanual condition did not
438 differ from either unimanual condition (left: $Z=1.69$, $p=0.38$, $r=0.34$; right: $Z=1.77$; $p=0.16$,
439 $r=0.36$). The main result to be taken from these analyses is that preparatory inhibition is similar
440 in the bimanual condition compared to the unimanual conditions. We saw this as a prerequisite
441 for the analysis of the facial movement conditions given that the facial gestures are produced
442 bilaterally.

443
444 We next compared the three conditions in which participants were cued to prepare a bimanual
445 response (e.g., selected). MEP suppression of left FDI was similar across the conditions ($\chi^{(2)} =$
446 0.129 , $p.>0.94$), indicating that the strength of preparatory inhibition was similar when the
447 competing response required a hand or facial movement. However, when the left index finger
448 was not selected, MEP suppression differed across the three conditions ($\chi^{(2)} = 6.25$, $p.>0.04$),
449 with the post-hoc comparisons indicating that left FDI was more inhibited when the cue
450 indicated a right index finger movement compared to when the cue indicated an eye movement

451 ($Z= 2.51$, $p=0.03$, $r=0.51$). A similar pattern was observed when the cue indicated a mouth
452 movement, but this comparison did not approach significance ($Z=1.84$, $p=0.18$, $r=0.38$). There
453 was no difference between the mouth and eye movement conditions ($Z=0.27$; $p=2.37$, $r=0.06$).
454 Thus, the results suggest that the suppression of left FDI is reduced when the participants
455 prepared a facial movement. This conclusion is further supported when considering the results
456 from the Irrelevant conditions (figure 3, right). As noted above in the within-condition results,
457 left FDI MEPs in the delay period were not significantly reduced, relative to baseline, when
458 participants had to choose between a mouth or eye movement, and there was no difference
459 between these conditions (Fig 3, right side, $Z = -0.55$, $p= 0.58$, $r=0.11$).

460

461 In summary, the results of Exp 2 provide further evidence that the degree of preparatory
462 inhibition varies as a function of the members of the response set. MEP suppression of a hand
463 muscle was greater when the cued response was for a finger movement compared to when the
464 cued response was for a facial movement. In a comparison of the two types of facial responses,
465 we did not observe greater MEP suppression when the participants prepared an eye movement, a
466 strong test of the cortical distance hypothesis. We recognize that the distance from the hand area
467 to the face area may be greater than the extent of preparatory inhibition, an issue we return to in
468 the Discussion. Nonetheless, with this caveat in mind, the results of the first two experiments
469 indicate that the spread of preparatory inhibition is strong within a body segment and weak or
470 absent between segments.

471

472 Experiment 3

473 The results of Exps 1 and 2 showed that preparatory inhibition in a finger muscle is much larger
474 when the cued response entails an upper limb movement compared to when the cued response
475 entails a different body segment (lower limb or facial). To ensure that these effects are not
476 specific to upper limb movements, we reversed the situation in Exp 3, measuring MEPs in a leg
477 muscle while participants prepared movements of a leg, finger, or mouth. We opted to stimulate
478 over the left hemisphere, targeting the TA muscle in the right leg. This allowed us to include
479 exact replications of conditions from Exp 1 (Choice: Left Index/Right Leg; Simple: Left Leg),
480 but now with preparatory inhibition probed in a lower limb. As noted above, we only included
481 participants in the main experiment for whom we were able to reliably elicit MEPs in right TA.
482 For these participants, the mean MEPs during baseline were 0.22 mV (SD=0.09), a value that is
483 considerably lower than that for baseline MEPs elicited in FDI in Exps 1 and 2. Nonetheless, we
484 did observe MEPs of at least 0.05 mV on 90% of the trials in the baseline period.

485
486 As in the first two experiments, we first conducted within-condition t-tests to assess preparatory
487 inhibition for each condition (Table 1). MEPs elicited in right TA during the delay period were
488 significantly reduced in the two Choice conditions in which the participants prepared a lower
489 limb movement (all $p < 0.05$, Fig 4). A similar trend was observed in the Simple Irrelevant RT
490 condition ($p = 0.07$). In contrast, MEP suppression during the delay period was only observed in
491 two of the seven conditions when an upper limb movement was prepared (left index Relevant
492 Choice and right index Irrelevant Simple, both $p < 0.05$), and was not significant when a mouth
493 response was prepared. Thus, preparatory inhibition in right TA was robust when participants
494 prepared a leg movement (right or left leg), but inconsistent or absent when preparing an upper
495 limb movement or facial gesture.

496
497 Turning to the between-condition comparisons, preparatory inhibition in right TA was greater
498 when that muscle was selected for the forthcoming response compared to when it was not
499 selected (Choice Relevant: $t_{(12)} = 3.14$, $p = 0.01$, Cohen's $d=1.19$). No differences were found
500 when the right leg was selected as part of either a Choice or a Simple task ($t_{(12)} = -1.04$, $p = 0.32$
501 Cohen's $d=0.35$), consistent with the results of the first experiment, indicating that preparatory
502 inhibition is independent of the task context.

503
504 For the Irrelevant conditions, we conducted three analyses to compare preparatory inhibition in
505 the right TA when the cued response a different lower limb effector to conditions in which the
506 cued response was from another body segment. For the former, we used left leg movements; for
507 the latter, the cued response either involved upper limb effectors or the mouth. First, we
508 compared the left leg condition to the upper limb condition, taking the average of the three upper
509 limb effectors in the Choice condition. This contrast was significant ($Z = -2.20$, $p= 0.03$,
510 $r=0.45$), with greater MEP suppression in right TA when the selected limb was from the same
511 body segment. The second contrast was between the left leg and the average of the three upper
512 limb effectors in the Simple conditions. Here the difference was not significant ($Z = -0.39$, $p=$
513 0.7 , $r=0.08$). The third contrast, between the left leg and mouth approached significance ($Z = -$
514 1.82 , $p= 0.07$, $r=0.37$).

515
516 Overall, the results of Exp 3 are consistent with the idea that anatomical constraints on
517 preparatory inhibition are not specific to upper limb muscles, but also hold for lower limb
518 muscles. This prediction was supported by two of the contrasts of different body segments; it

519 was not supported by the third (lower vs. upper segment, Simple conditions). We note that our
520 sensitivity in this experiment is reduced given the relatively low MEPs elicited from right TA.

521

522 **Reaction Times**

523 RTs were relatively fast (around 250 ms), indicating that the participants had used the cues to
524 prepare the forthcoming response during the delay period (Fig 5). This is most clearly evident in
525 the comparison of Choice and Simple RTs for each effector in Exps 1 and 3: Mean RTs in the
526 Choice RT conditions were similar to those observed in the Simple RT conditions. The
527 difference scores ranged from 0 ms to 22 ms, and even the largest difference (Exp 3, right index
528 finger) was not significant ($p=0.35$). RTs were also similar on trials in which the TMS pulse was
529 applied just prior to the start of the trial (baseline) or when applied during the delay period in all
530 three experiments ($p > 0.10$), with data collapsed across conditions.

531

532 There were some effector-specific effects on RT. For example, we can compare left and right
533 sided RTs for the index finger, pinky, and leg in three Choice conditions in Exp1 (Fig 5, top).
534 Mean RTs were fastest for index finger movements (233 ± 12 ms), followed by leg movements
535 (247 ± 15 ms), and slowest for pinky movements (259 ± 10 ms). However, a 3 (Effector) x 2 (Side)
536 ANOVA_{RM} showed that these differences were not significant (all $p>0.14$).

537

538 In the Choice RT conditions, the RT for a given effector was modulated by the other member of
539 the response set. For example, a 1-way ANOVA_{RM} on the RTs for the left index finger in the
540 three Choice conditions showed a main effect ($F_{(2,22)} = 7.60$, $p < 0.01$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.58$), with slower RTs
541 when the left index finger movement was paired with the pinky of the same hand, compared to

542 when it was paired with the right Index finger ($p=0.01$, Cohen's $d=2.53$) or with the right Leg
543 ($p=0.03$, Cohen's $d=1.82$). This pattern suggests that the participants adopted, to some degree, a
544 task set in which the speed of movement initiation for a given condition was relatively constant
545 for each choice, adjusted to the rate of the slower member of the response pair.

546
547 A similar pattern was evident in Exp 2 (Fig 5, middle). RTs were slower for the facial gestures
548 compared to the finger responses. Focusing on the 3-choice condition that involved bimanual
549 responses (averaging RTs over left and right fingers since the responses were tightly coupled),
550 finger RTs were slower in blocks in which these responses were paired with facial responses
551 than with a unimanual finger response (mean difference with eye 27 ± 49 and with mouth 29 ± 48),
552 although the ANOVA_{RM} showed only a marginal effect ($p=0.07$, $\eta_p^2=0.22$).

553
554 In Exp 3 (Fig 5, bottom), finger RTs in the Choice conditions were relatively invariant, with no
555 advantage in conditions in which all responses were with the fingers compared to when a finger
556 and leg response were paired. At first glance, RTs in Exp 3 were slower than in the first two
557 experiments. In a post-hoc analysis, we compared RTs for the left index finger across
558 experiments, focusing on this finger since it was the only effector paired in all three experiments
559 with another upper limb effector. The outcome of this 1-way ANOVA was not significant
560 ($p=0.52$, $\eta_p^2=0.38$).

561
562 RT was not related to the magnitude of the MEPs (see Duque et al. 2017 for a discussion on this
563 issue), similar to what has been observed in previous studies (but see Hannah et al. 2018) . This
564 can be seen in a comparison between conditions: For instance, in Exp 2, bimanual RTs tended to

565 be slower when paired with facial responses than when paired with unimanual finger responses,
566 but MEPs elicited from the left FDI were relatively invariant across conditions. Even more
567 compelling, it is not observed in a trial-by-trial analysis performed on an individual basis.
568 Pooling across conditions involving the left index finger, there was no consistent pattern of
569 correlation between RT and MEP for the left index finger.

570

571 **Discussion**

572 Preparing to move entails the recruitment of inhibitory mechanisms. This preparatory inhibition
573 is evidenced by the attenuation of MEPs elicited during a delay period when participants prepare
574 to initiate a cued response. Several studies have identified constraints on the magnitude of this
575 phenomenon; for example, the degree of MEP suppression is modulated by task difficulty (Beck
576 and Hallett 2010; Greenhouse et al. 2015a; Klein et al. 2014). These findings indicate that
577 preparatory inhibition is not generic. In the current study, we extend this work, systematically
578 examining anatomical constraints on preparatory inhibition.

579

580 **Anatomical Constraints on Preparatory Inhibition**

581 Consistent with previous findings, preparatory inhibition was generally greatest when the
582 targeted muscle was the agonist for the forthcoming movement. Moreover, the magnitude of
583 MEP suppression for the selected conditions was independent of the other member of the
584 response set. This was most evident in Exp 2 where MEP suppression in the left FDI was similar
585 across Choice conditions in which the left index finger was paired with the right index finger or
586 paired with an eye or mouth movement.

587

588 A different pattern was observed when the cue indicated a response other than the left index
589 finger. Preparatory inhibition in left FDI was pronounced if that effector was from the same body
590 segment (e.g., another manual response), but much weaker if the cued effector was from a
591 different body segment. In Exp 1, the mean level of MEP suppression, relative to baseline was -
592 42% when the cued response involved another finger movement and only -20% when the cued
593 response involved a leg movement. Similarly, in Exp 2, MEPs were reduced by -28% when the
594 cue indicated a right index finger movement and only reduced by -8% when the cue indicated a
595 facial movement. Indeed, in the latter experiment, mean MEP amplitudes were not significantly
596 different from baseline in three of the conditions involving facial responses.

597

598 This pattern was similar for conditions in which the left index finger was relevant or irrelevant.
599 Moreover, the magnitude of preparatory inhibition did not depend on whether the cue required a
600 decision between alternative responses (Choice Conditions) or always specified the same
601 response (Simple Conditions). For example, on trials in Exp 1 in which the planned response was
602 with the left pinky finger, MEP suppression of left FDI was similar when the left index finger
603 was part of the response set or not part of the response set. Consistent with the results reported in
604 Greenhouse (2015), the magnitude of preparatory inhibition does not appear to depend on task
605 relevance or choice behavior.

606

607 Taken together, the results of Exps 1 and 2 indicate that the magnitude of preparatory inhibition
608 targeted at non-responding effectors is greater when the planned response is from the same body
609 segment (e.g., hand) compared to when it entails a different body segment (leg or face). To test
610 the generality of this hypothesis, the TMS probe was directed at right TA, the agonist for

611 adduction movements of the lower leg, in Exp 3. Here we also included conditions in which the
612 response set either included or didn't include the right leg. The pattern was similar to that
613 observed in Exps 1 and 2. MEPs from right TA were significantly suppressed during the delay
614 period when the cue called for the preparation of either a right or left leg movement. In contrast,
615 MEP suppression of right TA was reduced or absent when the cue indicated a hand, arm, or
616 facial movement.

617

618 Qualitatively the magnitude of preparatory inhibition appears to be lower for right TA compared
619 to left FDI. We are hesitant to draw any inferences concerning this pattern. First, this between-
620 experiment comparison confounds side and segment, given our decision to focus on right TA.
621 Second, although we normalize our measure of preparatory inhibition by expressing the change
622 in the delay period relative to baseline, it is important to keep in mind that MEPs are much more
623 difficult to obtain from leg muscles, and when obtained, are weaker than those elicited from FDI
624 (Kesar et al. 2018). Most important, the claims about intra- vs intersegment differences are
625 evident in the within-experiment comparisons where the TMS probes are always restricted to the
626 same muscle.

627

628 **Anatomy vs. Function**

629 We interpret the current results to indicate that the extent of preparatory inhibition is constrained
630 by anatomy, dropping in strength when the distance between the selected effector and the muscle
631 targeted by TMS is increased. One variant of this distance hypothesis is that the extent of
632 preparatory inhibition may be related to the motor homunculus. Exp 2 was designed to test this
633 hypothesis, building on the fact that the hand area is closer to the cortical representation of the

634 eyes compared to the cortical representation of the mouth. The results of experiment 2 failed to
635 support this strong version of the cortical distance hypothesis: When either a squint or smile
636 were planned, there was minimal change in left FDI MEPs, and numerically, the small effects
637 were comparable for the two types of facial gestures.

638
639 However, there are a number of caveats to keep in mind when considering the cortical distance
640 hypothesis. First is the general concern with all null results. Second, although the eye
641 representation is closer to the hand area, the distance is still relatively large, at least in
642 comparison to the distance between finger representations (Meier et al. 2008; Weiss et al. 2013).
643 It may be that the spread of excitability changes does follow a cortical gradient, but that it is
644 negligible beyond some maximal distance. A finer-grained analysis would be required to test the
645 cortical distance hypothesis; for example, compare the magnitude of preparatory inhibition in left
646 FDI in conditions in which the cue specifies a finger, wrist, lower arm, or upper arm movement.

647
648 The current results do reveal a consistent difference between conditions in which the planned
649 movement is from the same body segment (lower, upper, face) or a different body segment, with
650 the former producing greater reduced excitability in the probed muscle. Rather than attribute
651 these effects to the cortical distance of motor representations, the difference may reflect the
652 synergistic recruitment of intrasegmental representations. The motor homunculus visualized
653 across the motor cortex is recognized as a simplification given that there is considerable overlap
654 between motor representations. Indeed, it has been proposed that a clear spatial separation is
655 limited to representations of different body segments (Schieber 2001; Zeharia et al. 2012). By
656 this view, the interactions within a segment in terms of preparatory inhibition could arise from

657 the fact that the fingers of one hand, or even fingers between two hands, are frequently co-
658 activated for a given movement. Preparatory inhibition might extend to effectors within the same
659 body segment as the cued one to reduce activation of muscles that are close in cortical space to
660 the agonist for the forthcoming movement.

661
662 There are well-defined movements that do involve intersegmental coordination. For example,
663 when reaching for objects, the eyes and hands move in a coordinated manner, and some of the
664 ethological gestures described by Graziano and colleagues (Desmurget et al. 2014; Fernandez
665 and Iacoboni 2010; Graziano 2016) involve coordinated movements between the upper limbs
666 and face (e.g., eating). The fact that our results failed to reveal consistent MEP suppression in
667 FDI when preparing facial gestures argues against these function-based hypotheses. Similarly, in
668 a preliminary study (Labruna et al. 2016), we tested experienced drummers to see if they showed
669 greater preparatory inhibition in an upper limb when preparing a leg movement given that
670 drumming requires extensive intersegmental coordination. The data from this group was similar
671 to that reported here, with minimal MEP suppression of FDI when the drummers prepared a leg
672 movement. In summary, the present picture suggests that the spread of preparatory inhibition is
673 best defined in terms of a segmental criterion, rather than one based on functional considerations.

674

675 **Implications for Models of Preparatory Inhibition**

676 A recent review by Duque et al. (2017) summarizes three functional models of preparatory
677 inhibition. The first of these models suggests that inhibition is restricted to task-relevant muscles,
678 reflecting a competition between candidate effectors (Duque et al. 2005, 2010). The second
679 model suggests preparatory inhibition arises from the operation of two processes, one producing

680 a global or broad inhibitory effect and the other focused at only the selected response
681 representation. The third model emphasizes a single process that operates in the form of an
682 ‘spotlight’ centered over the selected response representation with the width of the aperture
683 constrained by the task context such as whether or not selection entails a choice (Greenhouse et
684 al. 2015b). According to the spotlight model, inhibition, or reduced excitation, facilitates the
685 selection and initiation of motor responses by reducing background noise and, thus, increasing
686 the gain within the motor system.

687
688 We observed preparatory inhibition, independent of whether the probed muscle was part of the
689 response set or was task irrelevant. Moreover, we also observed robust MEP suppression when
690 the probed muscle was the sole member of the response set. These findings are at odds with the
691 competition model since competition is absent in the task-irrelevant conditions and Simple
692 conditions. In contrast, the two-process and spotlight models are consistent with the current
693 findings, although we suggest an additional anatomical constraint on preparatory inhibition. A
694 spotlight might operate at the level of body segments, with the strongest influence over the body
695 segment that includes the selected response representation, and negligible effect on
696 representations from other body segments. With respect to the two-process model, the current
697 results would indicate that the process producing a broad reduction of excitability is not generic.
698 Rather, its extent appears to be categorical and mostly limited to muscles within the same body
699 segment as the agonist effector. The notion of a categorical constraint based on body segment,
700 however, should be qualified given that we may lack the sensitivity to detect effects in the tail of
701 a gradient, one that spans large cortical distances.

702

703 In terms of function, the current data do not differentiate hypotheses that focus on how
704 preparatory inhibition might prevent premature responses or facilitate gain modulation during
705 response planning. Future work may be able to capitalize on the spatial constraints identified
706 here to better address functional questions.

707

708 **Relationship of anatomical constraints in preparatory and reactive inhibition**

709 TMS has been used to characterize the dynamics of cortical excitability in tasks involving
710 reactive inhibition, such as the stop-signal task in which a planned response is aborted. One
711 prominent idea is that, when the stop signal requires the termination of all volitional movement
712 (where the planned response involves one or more effectors), the inhibitory signal is broadcast in
713 a global manner, manifest in both task relevant and task-irrelevant muscles (Badry et al. 2009;
714 Coxon et al. 2006; Greenhouse et al. 2012; Leocani et al. 2000; Majid et al. 2012). Most
715 relevant to the present discussion, reactive inhibition is seen in both intra- and intersegmental
716 muscles.

717

718 Superficially, it may appear that preparatory and reactive inhibition arise from different
719 processes given that we find, at best, modest preparatory inhibition between body segments
720 whereas reactive inhibition tasks point to a global process. However, it remains unclear if the
721 TMS data provide strong evidence of a difference between preparatory and reactive inhibition .
722 Similar to the effects observed here, the magnitude of reactive inhibition in task-irrelevant
723 muscles is much larger for intrasegmental muscles compared to intersegmental muscles. For
724 example, Badry et al. (2009) used TMS to elicit MEPs in either the thumb or leg after a stop
725 signal had indicated that the participants should abort an index finger response. Relative to

726 baseline, thumb MEPs were reduced by close to 50%, whereas leg MEPs were only reduced by
727 15% (see also, Greenhouse et al. 2012; Majid et al. 2012). Similarly, stopping speech resulted in
728 only a 15% reduction in hand MEPs (Cai et al. 2012).

729
730 In sum, the stop signal literature also points to a gradient in the extent of reactive inhibition,
731 similar to that observed here with preparatory inhibition, with only weak changes in corticospinal
732 excitability when the probed muscle is at a different segmental level as the task relevant effector.
733 This observation by itself offers only weak evidence for a common mechanism underlying
734 preparatory and reactive stopping. Future studies can be designed to provide more direct tests.
735 Whereas studies using a range of methods have detailed a cortico-basal ganglia circuit recruited
736 for reactive stopping, similar work is needed to understand the networks that result in
737 preparatory inhibition.

738

739 **Conclusions**

740 The three experiments reported here provide converging evidence that preparatory inhibition is
741 constrained by anatomy. A marked reduction in corticospinal excitability was observed when
742 the response involved a muscle from the same body segment, and reduced or even absent when
743 the response involved a muscle from a different body segment. These results are consistent with
744 models in which an inhibitory process is targeted at specific motor representations, with a spatial
745 extent limited to motor representations within the same body segment.

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751

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860 Figure Captions

861

862 Figure 1

863 Overview of the three experiments. (a) Primary agonist muscles used for the responses. A
864 schematic of the cortical homunculus is shown on top, with highlighted regions (diagonal lines)
865 indicating approximate location of the left hand FDI, the muscle targeted for TMS in Exps 1 and
866 2, and right TA, the muscle targeted for TMS in Exp 3. Abbreviations: orbicularis oculi (OOC),
867 depressor anguli oris (DAO), first dorsal interossus (FDI), abductor digiti minimi (ADM), biceps
868 brachii short (BBS), tibialis anterior (TA). (b) Sequence of events in the delayed response task.
869 The TMS pulse was either coincident with the onset of the fixation cross (TMS baseline) or
870 occurred 800 ms into the delay period (TMS delay). (c) Response set for each condition in the
871 experiments. Relevant and Irrelevant refer to conditions in which the targeted muscle was either
872 part of, or not part of the response set. In Simple conditions, the same movement was cued on
873 each trial, whereas in Choice conditions, the cue specified the forthcoming movement.

874

875 Figure 2

876 Modulation of MEPs in Experiment 1. MEPs recorded from left FDI during the delay period are
877 expressed as a percentage of baseline (0%). Gray bars indicate trials in which an upper limb
878 movement was cued, and white bars indicate trials in which a lower limb movement was cued.
879 Slashed gray bars indicate when left FDI was the agonist for the forthcoming response. Error
880 bars indicate 95% confidence intervals, depicting if the MEP change during the delay period,
881 relative to baseline, was significantly different than zero (one-tailed test).

882

883

884 Figure 3

885 Modulation of MEPs in Experiment 2. MEPs recorded from left FDI during the delay period are
886 expressed as a percentage of baseline (0%). Light gray bars indicate trials in which an upper limb
887 movement was cued and dark gray bars indicate trials in which a facial movement was cued.
888 Slashed gray bars indicate when left FDI was the agonist for the forthcoming response. Error
889 bars indicate 95% confidence intervals, depicting if the MEP change during the delay period,
890 relative to baseline, was significantly different than zero (one-tailed test).

891

892 Figure 4

893 Modulation of MEPs in Experiment 3. MEPs recorded from right TA during the delay period are
894 expressed as a percentage of baseline (0%). Light gray, white, and dark gray bars indicate trials
895 in which the cued response required an upper limb, lower limb, or facial movement, respectively.
896 Slashed white bars indicate when right TA was the agonist for the forthcoming response. Error
897 bars indicate 95% confidence intervals, depicting if the MEP change during the delay period,
898 relative to baseline, was significantly different than zero (one-tailed test).

899

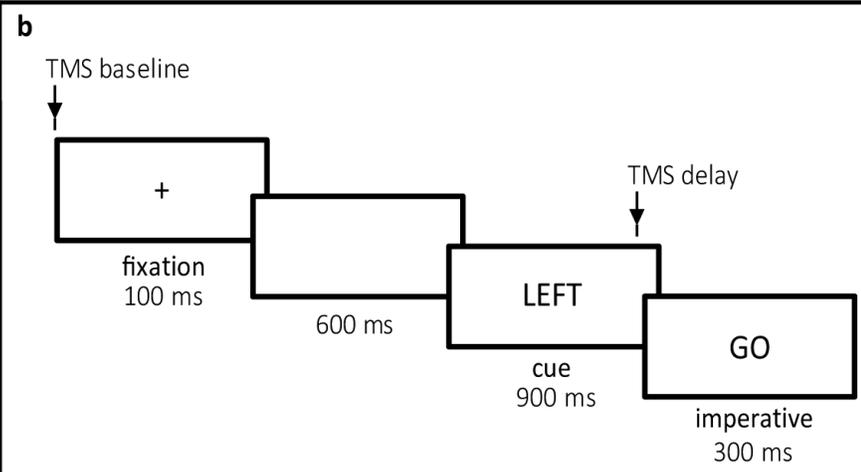
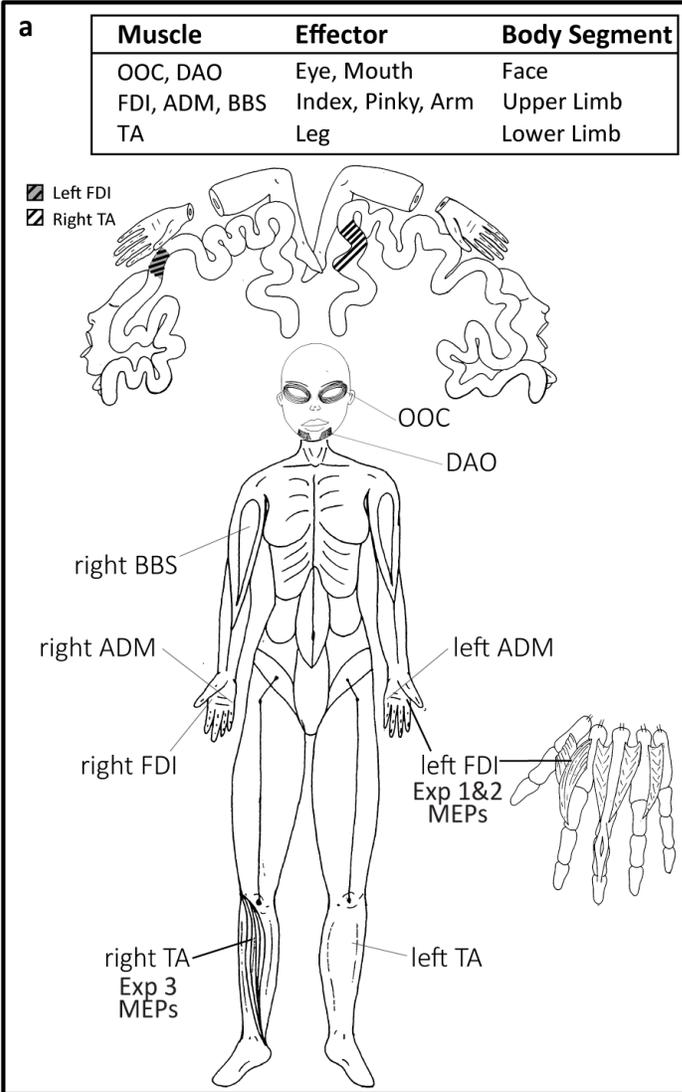
900 Figure 5

901 Reaction times for Experiments 1-3, combining trials in which TMS was applied at baseline and
902 during the delay period. Light gray, white, and dark gray bars indicate trials in which the cued
903 response required an upper limb, lower limb, or facial movement, respectively. Error bars
904 indicate SEMs.

905

906 **Table 1.**

907 Within-condition test of preparatory inhibition for all three experiments, operationalized as the
908 normalized change in MEP during the delay period relative to the baseline period ($(MEP_{\text{base}} -$
909 $MEP_{\text{delay}})/MEP_{\text{base}}$). The comparisons were conducted with one-tailed t-tests, motivated by prior
910 studies showing an attenuation of MEPs during the delay period. ** Indicates conditions in
911 which the sample distribution deviated from normality (Shapiro-Wilk test). For these conditions,
912 we present the Z statistic and corresponding p value from the non-parametric Wilcoxon Signed
913 Rank test.



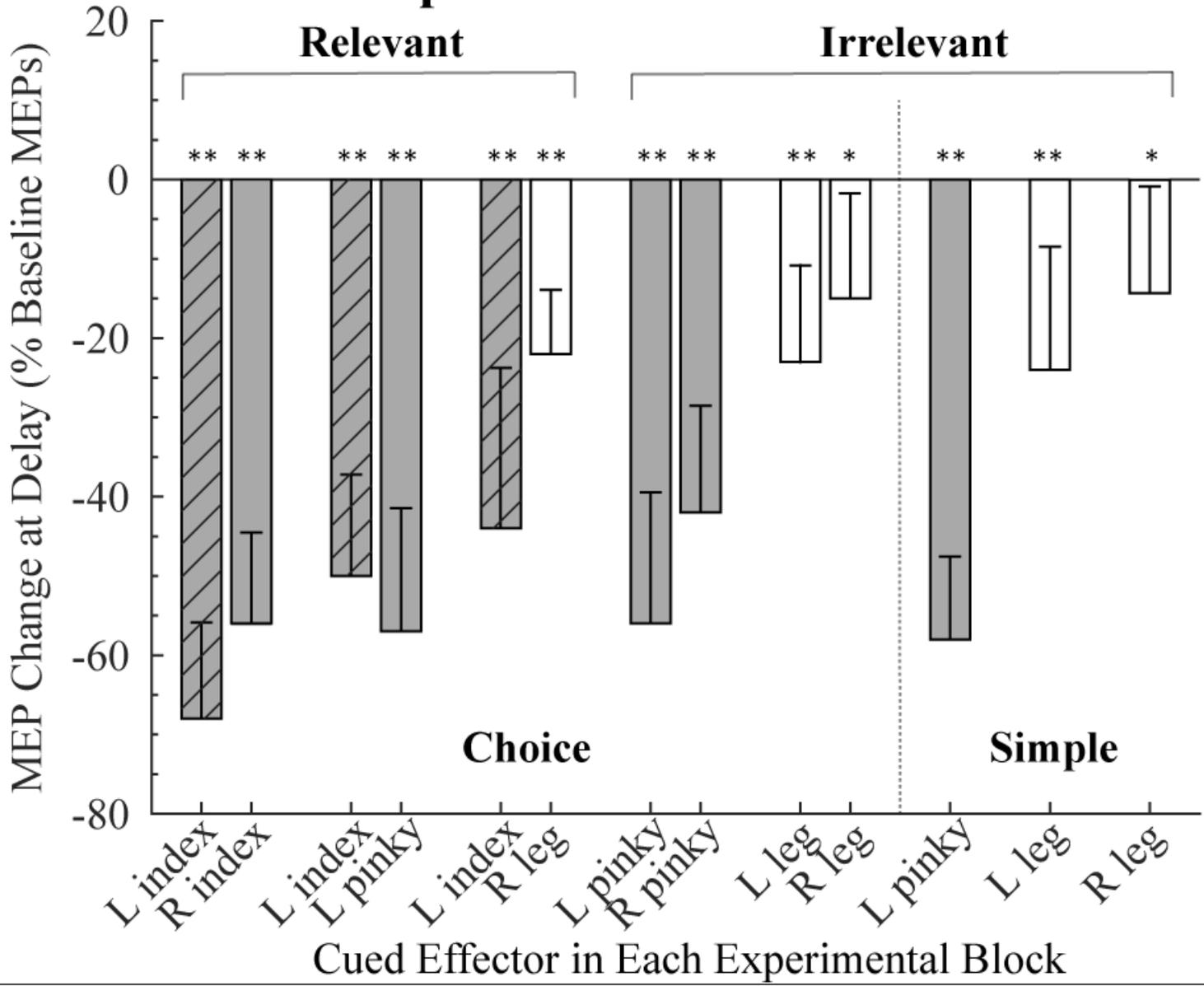
c

		Experiments		
		1	2	3
MEPs		Left FDI	Left FDI	Right TA
Selected effector		L index	L index	R leg
Relevant	Choice	1) L index - R index 2) L index - L pinky 3) L index - R leg	1) Both index - L index - R index 2) Both index - Eye 3) Both index - Mouth	1) L index - R leg
	Simple			2) R leg
Irrelevant	Choice	4) L pinky - R pinky 5) L leg - R leg	4) Eye - Mouth	3) Both index - L index - R index
	Simple	6) L pinky 7) L leg 8) R leg		4) L leg 5) R arm 6) R index 7) L index 8) Mouth

** p < 0.01
 * p < 0.05

- ▨ Left index movement (selected)
- Upper limb movement
- Lower limb movement

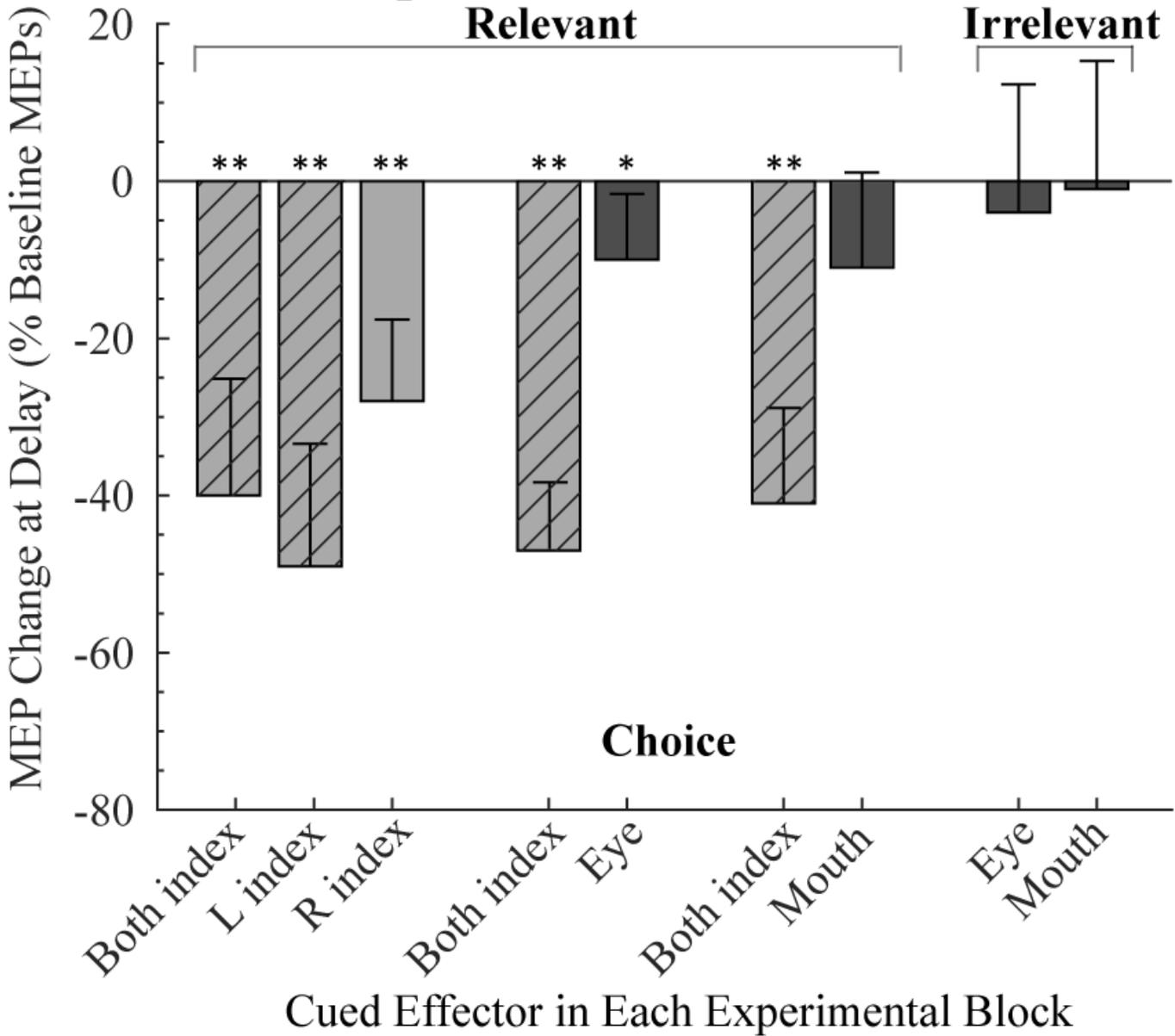
Experiment 1: Left FDI MEPs



- ▨ Left index movement (selected)
- ▩ Upper limb movement
- Facial movement

** p < 0.01
 * p < 0.05

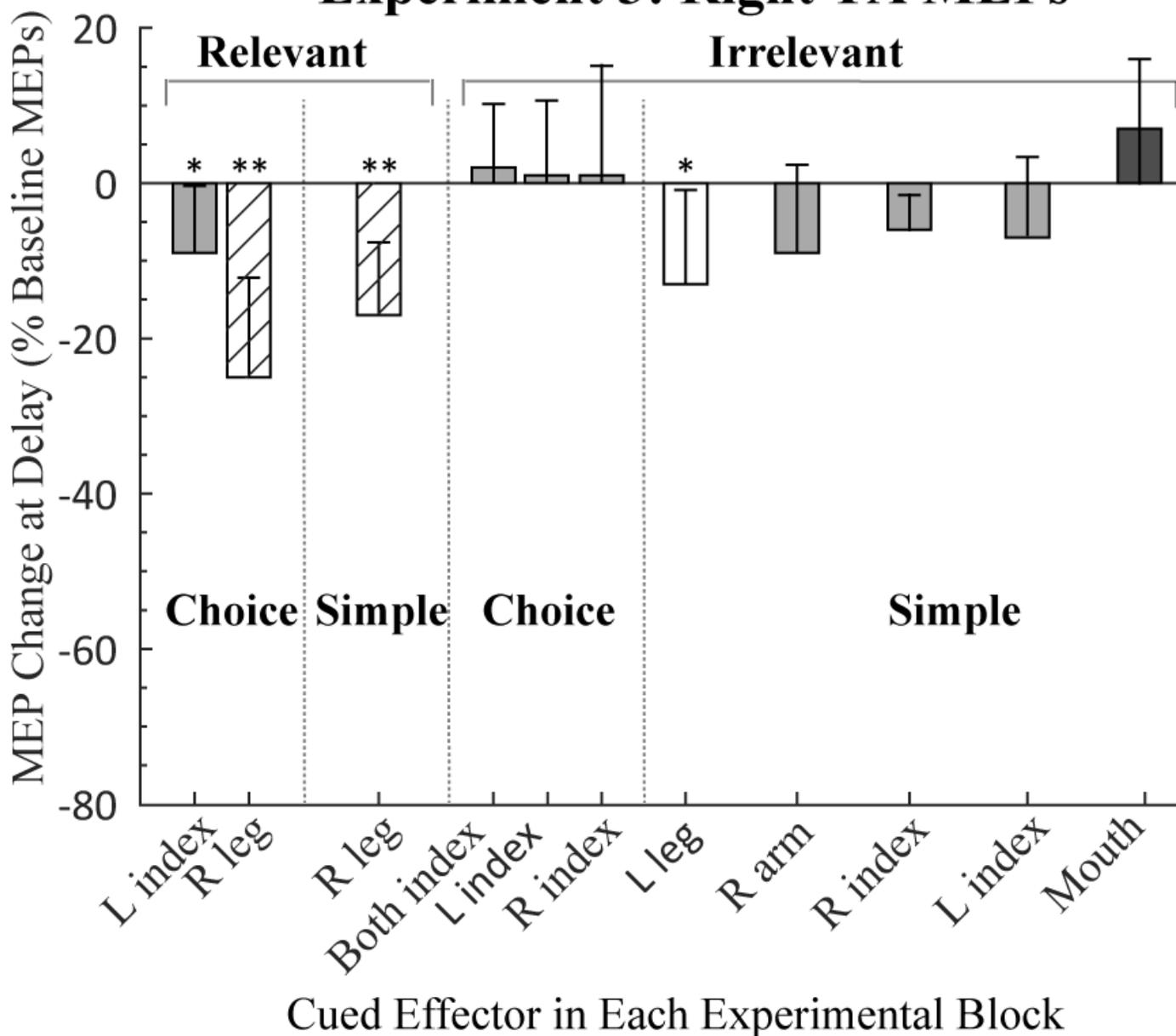
Experiment 2: Left FDI MEPs



-  Right leg movement (selected)
-  Upper limb movement
-  Lower limb movement
-  Facial movement

** $p < 0.01$ [one tail]
 * $p < 0.05$ [one tail]

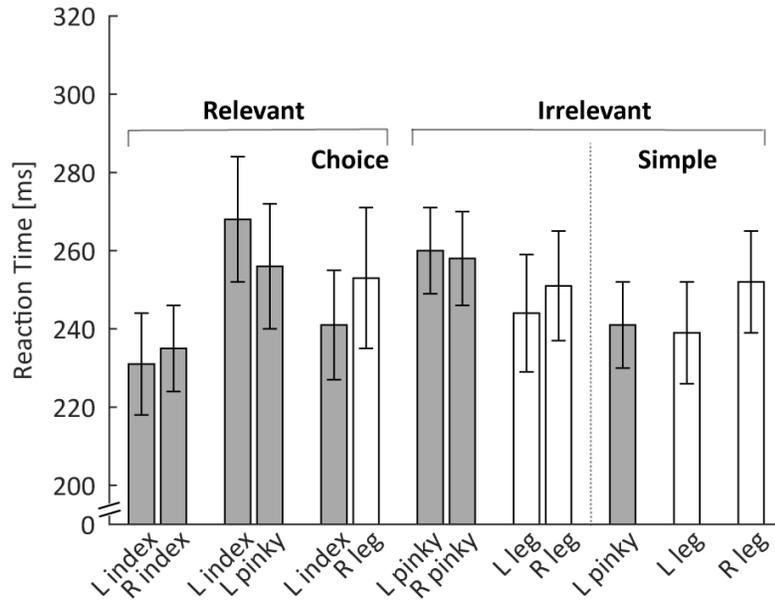
Experiment 3: Right TA MEPs



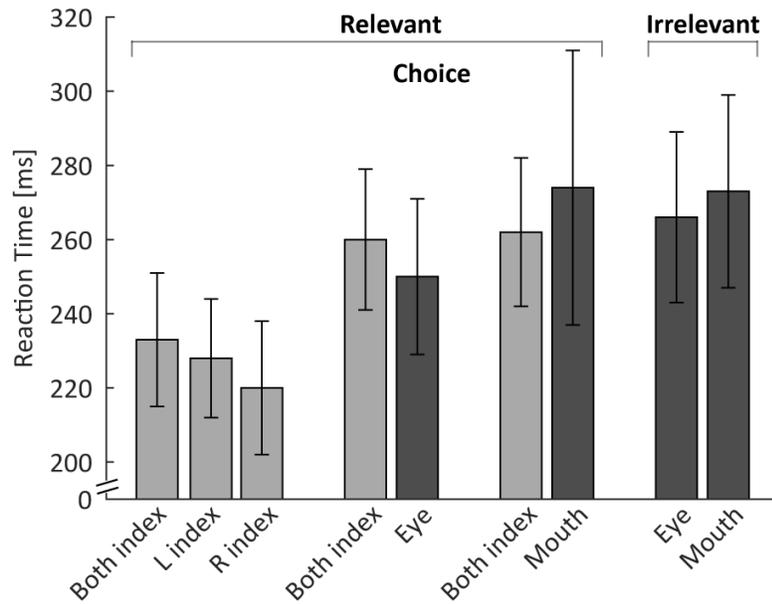
- Upper limb movement
- Lower limb movement
- Facial movement

Reaction Times

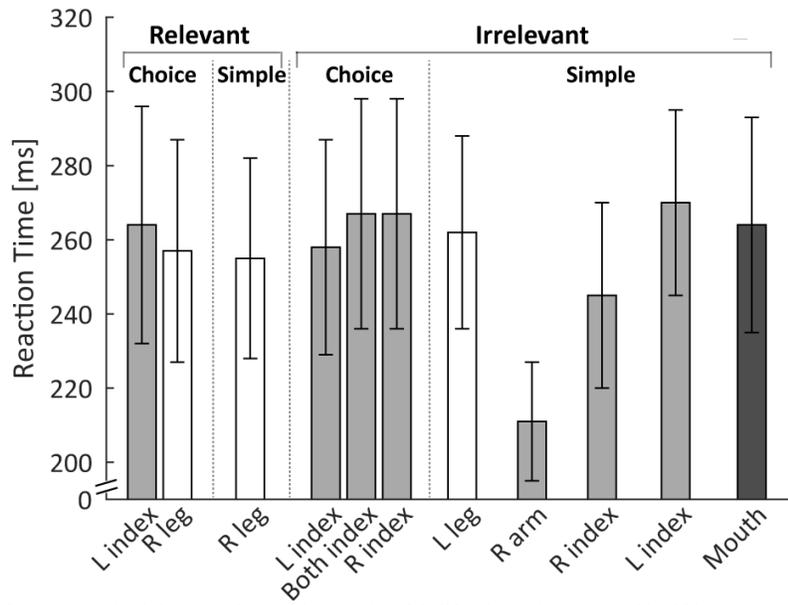
Experiment 1



Experiment 2



Experiment 3



Exp 1: Left FDI MEPs			Exp 2: Left FDI MEPs			Exp 3: right TA MEPs		
Cued effector	t ₍₁₁₎ or Z	p	Cued effector	t ₍₁₁₎ or Z	p	Cued effector	t ₍₁₁₎ or Z	p
Relevant Choice			Relevant Choice			Relevant Choice		
L index**	3.06	0.001	Both index	4.95	0.000	L index	1.80	0.049
R index	8.98	0.000	L index**	3.06	0.001	R leg	3.59	0.002
L index	7.05	0.000	R index**	2.75	0.003	Relevant Simple		
L pinky	6.76	0.000	Both index	10.08	0.000	R leg	3.23	0.004
L index	3.97	0.001	Eye**	2.00	0.020	Irrelevant Choice		
R leg	4.83	0.000	Both index	6.15	0.000	Both index	-0.22	0.415
Irrelevant Choice			Mouth	1.60	0.069	Left index	-0.21	0.419
L pinky	6.20	0.000	Irrelevant Choice			R index**	-0.71	0.237
R pinky	5.67	0.000	Eye**	1.53	0.126	Irrelevant Simple		
L leg	3.40	0.003	Mouth	0.47	0.468	L leg**	1.49	0.068
R leg	2.05	0.032				R arm	1.38	0.097
Irrelevant Simple						R index	2.19	0.026
L pinky	10.01	0.000				L index	1.28	0.116
L leg	2.82	0.008				Mouth	-0.81	0.217
R leg	1.81	0.048						