

Muscles from the same muscle group do not necessarily share common drive: evidence from the human triceps surae

François Hug, Alessandro del Vecchio, Simon Avrillon, Dario Farina, Kylie

Tucker

► To cite this version:

François Hug, Alessandro del Vecchio, Simon Avrillon, Dario Farina, Kylie Tucker. Muscles from the same muscle group do not necessarily share common drive: evidence from the human triceps surae. Journal of Applied Physiology, 2021, 130 (2), pp.342-354. 10.1152/japplphysiol.00635.2020. hal-03298614v1

HAL Id: hal-03298614 https://nantes-universite.hal.science/hal-03298614v1

Submitted on 31 May 2022 (v1), last revised 4 Apr 2023 (v2)

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	Muscles from the same muscle group do not necessarily share common
2	drive: evidence from the human triceps surae
3	
4	François HUG ^{1,2,3} , Alessandro DEL VECCHIO ^{4,5} , Simon AVRILLON ^{2,6,7} ,
5	Dario FARINA ⁴ , Kylie TUCKER ²
6	
7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22	 ¹ Nantes University, Laboratory "Movement, Interactions, Performance" (EA 4334), Nantes, France ² The University of Queensland, School of Biomedical Sciences, Brisbane, Australia ³ Institut Universitaire de France (IUF), Paris, France ⁴ Neuromechanics & Rehabilitation Technology Group, Department of Bioengineering, Faculty of Engineering, Imperial College London, UK ⁵ Neuromuscular Physiology and Neural Interfacing Group, Department of Artificial Intelligence in Biomedical Engineering, Faculty of Engineering, Friedrich-Alexander University, Erlangen-Nuremberg, 91052, Erlangen, Germany ⁶ Legs + Walking AbilityLab, Shirley Ryan AbilityLab, Chicago, IL, USA ⁷ Department of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation, Northwestern University, Chicago, IL, USA
	Prof. François Hug University of Nantes Laboratory « Movement, Interactions, Performance » (EA 4334) 25 bis boulevard Guy Mollet 44300 Nantes (France) e-mail: <u>françois.hug@univ-nantes.fr</u>
23 24 25	Running title: Independent control of synergist muscles
25 26 27 28	Keywords: Muscle synergies, gastrocnemius, common drive, electromyography, motor units, coherence
29 30 31 32 33	Acknowledgements: François Hug is supported by a fellowship from the <i>Institut Universitaire de France</i> (IUF) and a travel grant from the <i>Société de Biomécanique</i> . Support was received from the French national research agency (ANR-19-CE17-002-01, COMMODE project; to FH) and from the European Research Council Synergy Grant NaturalBionicS (contract #810346; to DF).
34 35 36	All the authors in this paper have no financial or other relationships that might lead to a conflict of interest.
37 38	Dataset availability: https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.12126627

- 39 Abstract (250 words)
- 40

It has been proposed that movements are produced through groups of muscles, or motor 41 42 modules, activated by common neural commands. However, the neural origin of motor modules is still debated. Here, we used complementary approaches to determine: i) whether 43 three muscles of the same muscle group (soleus, gastrocnemius medialis [GM] and lateralis 44 45 [GL]) are activated by a common neural drive ; and ii) whether the neural drive to GM and 46 GL could be differentially modified by altering the mechanical requirements of the task. 47 Eighteen human participants performed an isometric standing heel raise and submaximal isometric plantarflexions (10%, 30%, 50% of maximal effort). High-density surface 48 49 electromyography recordings were decomposed into motor unit action potentials and coherence analysis was applied on the motor units spike trains. We identified strong common 50 51 drive to each muscle, but minimal common drive between the muscles. Further, large 52 between-muscle differences were observed during the isometric plantarflexions, such as a delayed recruitment time of GL compared to GM and soleus motor units and opposite time-53 dependent changes in the estimates of neural drive to muscles during the torque plateau. 54 55 Finally, the feet position adopted during the heel raise task (neutral vs internally rotated) 56 affected only the GL neural drive with no change for GM. These results provide conclusive 57 evidence that not all anatomically defined synergist muscles are controlled by strong common 58 neural drive. Independent drive to some muscles from the same muscle group may allow for 59 more flexible control to comply with secondary goals such as joint stabilization.

60

61 New and Noteworthy

In this study, we demonstrated that the three muscles composing the human triceps surae
share minimal common drive during isometric contractions. Our results suggest that reducing
the number of effectively controlled degrees of freedom may not always be the strategy

- employed by the central nervous system to control movements. Independent control of some,
 but not all, synergist muscles may allow for more flexible control to comply with secondary
 goals (e.g. joint stabilization).

70 Introduction

How the central nervous system controls the large number of degrees of freedom of the musculoskeletal system to produce movements remains unclear. It has been proposed that muscles are controlled through motor modules, which represent groups of muscles, activated by a single neural command (9, 20, 47). Evidence for the existence of motor modules, which reduce the dimensionality in the control of movement, comes from animal models where cortical (45) or spinal micro-stimulation (46) led to complex multi-joint forces. However, the neural origin of motor modules is still debated (8, 36).

78

In support of the modular control of movements, there is evidence that some muscles are 79 controlled primarily by shared neural drive (11, 25, 35, 37), and that the intensity of this 80 81 shared drive is stronger between muscles that are anatomically and functionally closely 82 related (25, 35). Considering the behavior of a population of motor units identified from highdensity surface electromyography (HDsEMG), Laine et al. (37) demonstrated that the lateral 83 [vastus lateralis (VL)] and medial [vastus medialis (VM)] head of the quadriceps share most 84 85 of their synaptic input during isometric knee extension. Given the important role of VL and 86 VM in the control of the patellofemoral joint (40), this shared common input might achieve 87 two important goals: i) simplify the control of the task, and ii) regulate internal joint stresses. 88 While shared drive may be an optimal control strategy for the VL and VM muscles, it might 89 not be optimal for muscles that require more flexible control.

90

91 The *triceps surae* consists of the soleus (SOL), gastrocnemius medialis (GM) and lateralis 92 (GL). As GM and GL share the same two main functions (plantarflexion and knee flexion), 93 and both insert into the Achilles tendon, they are very often regarded as the same muscle (52). 94 In addition, using factorization of multiple bipolar EMG signals, these muscles are

95 consistently reported as part of the same module [e.g., gait (49), pedaling (33)]. However, there is some indirect evidence that GM and GL may produce different ankle torques in the 96 97 frontal plane (39, 50). As such, flexibility in their control with minimal common drive, i.e. the ability to activate the muscles independently, might be crucial for maintaining balance or 98 99 producing force in different directions. For example, Héroux et al. (27) observed a difference 100 in GM and GL motor unit discharge behavior during standing balance, with a relative absence 101 of GL motor unit activity. Taken together, these results suggest that the activation of the GM 102 and GL muscles may be partly independent, with a small amount of common drive, to allow 103 for flexible control of the ankle joint.

104

105 In this study we used multiple, complementary approaches to characterize the behavior of populations of motor neurons innervating the three heads of the triceps surae, with specific 106 107 consideration of GM and GL. Our primary aim was to determine whether GL and GM share a common neural drive during plantarflexion. We first estimated the within- and between-108 109 muscle common neural drive using correlation techniques in the frequency domain (i.e., coherence(22, 24) applied to motor units spike trains identified from an isometric heel raise 110 111 task. Then, we assessed motor unit discharge characteristics during isometric plantarflexions 112 performed on an ergometer. Our secondary aim was to determine whether the neural drive to 113 GM and GL could be differentially modified by altering the mechanical requirements of the task. For this purpose, we compared the motor unit discharge rate between two heel raise 114 115 tasks performed with different feet positions. We hypothesized that the GM and GL muscles share minimal common drive, and therefore, that the neural drive to the GM and GL can be 116 117 independently altered. If supported, this would provide strong evidence that some anatomically derived synergist muscles can be controlled by independent neural drive, and 118 force a reconsideration of our understanding of the modular control of movement. 119

120 Methods

121 1. Participants

122 Eighteen physically active males participated in this study (mean±standard deviation; age: 29.4±7.9 yr, height: 180±7 cm, body mass: 76±8 kg; body mass index: 23.6±2.7 kg.m⁻²). Of 123 124 note, we were not avoiding recruiting females; but for unknown reasons we failed to identify 125 enough motor units on females during our pilot testing, especially on GL. Participants had no 126 history of lower leg pain that had limited function that required time off work or sport, or a consultation with a health practitioner in the previous six months. The institutional research 127 ethics committee of the University of Queensland approved this study (n°2013001448), and 128 129 all procedures adhered to the Declaration of Helsinki. Participants provided informed written 130 consent.

131

132 2. Experimental design

The experimental session consisted of a series of isometric and postural tasks. The
myoelectrical activity of the three heads of the *triceps surae* of the dominant leg (right/left;
16/2) was measured using HDsEMG.

First, participants laid prone on a custom-made dynamometer equipped with a torque sensor 136 (TRE-50K, Dacell, Korea; Fig. 1). Their knee was fully extended, and their ankle angle was 137 set to 10° of plantarflexion (0° being the foot perpendicular to the shank). The experiment 138 began with a warm-up, which included a series of submaximal contractions. Then, 139 140 participants performed three maximal isometric contractions for 3 to 5 s with 120-s rest in between. The maximal value obtained from a moving average window of 250-ms was 141 considered as the peak torque (MVC). Then, participants performed three contractions at each 142 of the following intensities: 10%, 30%, and 50% of their MVC. The order of the intensities 143 144 was randomized. These contractions involved a 5-s ramp-up, a 15-s (50% of MVC) or 20-s

plateau (10% and 30% of MVC) and a 5-s ramp down phase. The contractions were separated
by either 60-s (10% of MVC) or 120-s (30% and 50% of MVC) of rest. Feedback of the target
and torque output was displayed on a monitor.

Second, participants stood barefoot on a force plate (Model 4060, Bertec, UK) and performed 148 149 a series of six tasks in a randomized order, including balance and heel-raise tasks. The balance 150 tasks were performed for another purpose. For the purpose of this study only the two 151 isometric heel-raise tasks were analyzed. These tasks consisted of holding the heel at a standard height of 6 cm, with both feet in a neutral position (Toes neutral) or internally 152 153 rotated (Toes in) (Fig. 1). To provide feedback of the height, a 6-cm thick piece of high-154 density foam was placed under the heels of the participants. The participants were instructed 155 to lightly touch the top of the foam with their heels and once the correct height was achieved (in typically less than 5s), the piece of foam was removed, and data collection began. For the 156 157 Toes neutral condition, the participants adopted a comfortable stance width with their feet pointing anteriorly. For the Toes in condition, the participants pointed their toes inward by 158 internally rotating their lower limbs, such that their feet formed an angle of 90°. About 1/4 of 159 the participants could not reach this angle in which case they were instructed to rotate their 160 161 lower limbs as far as possible. Each of these conditions was repeated two times for 30 to 35s 162 with 15-20 s of rest in between.

For both the plantarflexion tasks performed on the ergometer and the heel raise tasks, the mechanical signals (torque and force) were digitized at 2048 Hz using the same acquisition system as that used for HDsEMG (EMG-Quattrocento; 400-channel EMG amplifier, OT Biolelettronica, Italy).

167 Note that additional measurements were performed on the VL and VM muscles for two 168 participants (#5 and #10). These participants performed an isometric body-weight squat (knee 169 angle= 30° ; 0° =knee fully extended) for 3×30 s.

171 3. High-density surface EMG recordings

HDsEMG signals were recorded from the GL, GM, and SOL muscles. Two-dimensional 172 adhesive grids of 64 electrodes (13×5 electrodes with one electrode absent on a corner, gold-173 coated, inter-electrode distance: 8 mm; [ELSCH064NM2, SpesMedica, Battipaglia, Italy]) 174 were placed over both the GM and the GL muscle (Fig. 1). The grids were aligned with the 175 176 main fascicle direction as determined using B-mode ultrasound (Aixplorer, Supersonic Imagine, France). A two-dimensional adhesive grid of 32 electrodes (8×4 electrodes, gold-177 coated, inter-electrode distance: 10 mm; [GR10MM0804, SpesMedica, Battipaglia, Italy]) 178 179 was placed on the medial part of the SOL, below the myotendinous junction of the GM 180 muscle (Fig. 1). This electrode was aligned with the supposed line of action of the muscle. Before electrode application, the skin was shaved, and then cleaned with an abrasive pad and 181 182 alcohol. The adhesive grids were held on the skin using semi-disposable bi-adhesive foam layers (SpesMedica, Battipaglia, Italy). The skin-electrode contact was made by filling the 183 cavities of the adhesive layers with conductive paste (SpesMedica, Battipaglia, Italy). A 8-cm 184 wide elastic band was placed over the three electrodes with a slight tension to ensure that all 185 186 the electrodes remained in contact with the skin throughout the experiment. Strap electrodes 187 dampened with water were placed around the contralateral (ground electrode) and ipsilateral 188 ankle (reference electrode). The EMG signals were recorded in monopolar mode, bandpass 189 filtered (10-900 Hz) and digitized at a sampling rate of 2048 Hz using a multichannel 190 acquisition system (EMG-Quattrocento; 400-channel EMG amplifier, OT Biolelettronica, Italy). 191

192

193 4. Data analysis

194 In this study, we considered the neural drive as the ensemble of motor neuron discharges, and 195 this drive was estimated using the cumulative spike train (CST, sum of the motor unit 196 discharge times) of a subset of motor neurons identified by decomposition. Common drive 197 was considered as the component of the neural drive that is shared between motor neurons, 198 i.e. the common (correlated) fluctuations of motor unit discharge timings.

199

200 Global EMG

EMG signals were band-pass filtered (20-500 Hz), differentiated, and full-wave rectified. For the MVC trials, the EMG amplitude was calculated over a moving time window of 500 ms. The resulting highest value over the three contractions and over all the channels of the grid was considered as the maximal EMG amplitude value. For the submaximal tasks, the EMG amplitude was calculated over the whole contraction, averaged across all channels, and normalized to that determined during the maximal isometric contractions.

207

208 HDsEMG decomposition

First, the monopolar EMG signals were bandpass filtered between 20-750 Hz with a second-209 210 order Butterworth filter. The HDsEMG signals were decomposed with the convolutive blind 211 source separation method (31) implemented in the DEMUSE tool software (v4.9; The 212 University of Maribor, Slovenia). This decomposition procedure can identify motor unit discharge times over a wide range of contraction intensities and has been extensively 213 214 validated using experimental and simulated signals (29, 30). After the automatic identification of the motor units, all the motor unit spike trains were visually inspected (17, 18). As 215 216 classically done, only the motor units, which exhibited a pulse-to-noise ratio > 30 dB were retained for further analysis (19, 37). This threshold ensured a sensitivity higher than 90% and 217 218 a false-alarm rate lower than 2% (30).

219

220 Assessment of cross-talk

221 Before assessing the neural connectivity between the different populations of motor neurons of the triceps surae, we used the discharge timings extracted by decomposition to assess the 222 223 uniqueness of the motor unit action potentials. This was done to guarantee that each motor 224 unit that was used for subsequent analysis originated from the target muscles on which the 225 high-density EMG grid was placed and was not a result of cross-talk from a neighboring muscle. For this purpose, the discharge timings of each motor unit extracted by 226 227 decomposition were used to trigger all of the HDsEMG signals (64 [GM] +64 [GL] +32 228 [SOL] channels). The motor unit action potentials extracted by spike trigger averaging were 229 then compared between muscles. Specifically, we calculated the average amplitude of the motor unit action potential, for each HDsEMG grid, by averaging the peak-to-peak amplitude 230 231 across all channels of each HDsEMG grid. We then compared this average peak-to-peak amplitude between grids to identify motor units that originated from crosstalk. This analysis 232 assumes that the action potential representation of a motor unit will be largest when recorded 233 from the electrodes placed on the muscle of origin. Conversely, motor units that are identified 234 235 from a neighboring muscle will have a smaller peak-to-peak amplitude due to a greater 236 distance between the electrodes and the muscle unit (18). As such, if the average peak-to-peak amplitude of a motor unit was higher in one of the muscles from where this units was not 237 238 originally identified, this unit was visually inspected and then omitted from the analysis.-

239

240 Within- and between-muscle coherence

We used a coherence analysis to assess the neural connectivity between motor units from the
same (within-muscle coherence) or from different muscles (between-muscle coherence) (3).
Note that coherence calculated at a given frequency represents the correlation between the

two signals at that frequency, with 0 indicating non correlation and 1 indicating perfect
correlation. Coherence within the delta band (0-5Hz) reflects the presence of common drive
(16, 18, 37).

Because the GL motor units were recruited late during the plateau of the isometric plantarflexion tasks performed on the ergometer (see *Results*), the number of discharges was too low to conduct coherence analysis on these tasks. In other words, too few motor units were recruited during enough time to run a meaningful coherence analysis. Thus, the coherence analysis was only performed on the isometric heel raise task, with Toes neutral, as this was the condition during which the greatest number of motor units were identified for both GM and GL.

254 Prior to this coherence analysis, the discharge times of each motor unit were visually inspected. Even if it was not frequently observed, pauses in the recruitment of some motor 255 256 units occasionally occurred. Such pauses can affect the calculation of the coherence. 257 Therefore, if one motor unit exhibited a pause in discharges for > 2s, this portion of the signal was discarded for all motor units. If for a given unit these pauses occurred too often, that 258 259 motor unit was not considered such that the analysis could still be performed on all other 260 units. On average the coherence analysis was performed on 54 ± 16 s and 47 ± 13 s, for withinmuscle and between-muscle coherence, respectively. 261

For the within-muscle coherence, we calculated the magnitude-squared coherence using the Welch's periodogram with non-overlapping windows of 1-s (Fig 2). This analysis was performed on two equally sized groups of CST. The number of motor units in each of the two groups varied from 1 to the maximum number (half of the total number of identified units) and 100 random permutations of the identified units were performed for each iteration. Then, we estimated the proportion of common synaptic input to motor neurons using the method described by Negro et al. (44). For this analysis we focused on the low frequency bandwidth

(0-5 Hz), as it has been shown to be the main determinant of the force output (22). The 269 270 relationship between the average values of coherence in the bandwidth 0-5 Hz and the number 271 of motor units was fitted by least-squares using a non-linear equation described in Negro et al. (44). The rate of change (the slope) was considered as the proportion of common input with 272 respect to the total input received by the motor neuron pool (Fig. 2) [PCI; (44)]. This method 273 was validated in numerical simulations, which were based on a model of populations of motor 274 275 neurons that received common and independent inputs (44). The advantage of this method is to provide a quantitative estimate of the relative strength of the common synaptic input, 276 independent of the number of identified units, allowing us to make direct comparisons 277 278 between muscles.

The between-muscle coherence was assessed in a similar way as the within-muscle coherence. Specifically, the total number of identified motor units was used to generate the CST. Then, we applied the coherence function between the CST for each muscle pair (GM-GL, GM-SOL, GL-SOL). Coherence was considered significant when it was higher than the maximum value of coherence for frequencies > 100 Hz, where no coherence is expected (4). In addition, we considered the presence of substantial common neural drive if the coherence values reached this significance threshold over the entire bandwidth 0-5 Hz.

286

287 Motor unit discharge characteristics

To compare the neural drive received by the three muscles during the isometric plantarflexions performed on the ergometer, we calculated three indexes (Fig. 3). First, the time of recruitment of each motor unit was determined for each contraction as the time when the first action potential was observed (Fig. 3). As these tasks involved a 5-s ramp-up phase before the torque plateau, a value higher than 5 s indicated that the motor unit was recruited during the plateau. As expected, most of GM and SOL motor units were recruited during the

ramp-up phase, but surprisingly, most of the GL motor units were recruited during the plateau 294 295 (Fig. 3). Therefore, we were unable to consider the joint torque associated with recruitment 296 (i.e, the recruitment threshold), as classically done. Second, we determined the delta discharge rate (expressed in pps.s⁻¹) to provide an estimate of the synaptic inputs received by the motor 297 298 neuron pools (42). This was calculated as the rate of change in discharge rate within the first 2 s of recruitment (Fig. 3). Because variability in instantaneous discharge rate may occur at 299 300 recruitment, we considered the discharge rate at recruitment as the mean of the first three discharges (21). Finally, we estimated the discharge rate of each motor unit during the 301 302 plateau. However, as shown in Fig. 3, time-dependent changes in discharge rate were 303 observed during the plateau, with most of the GM motor units exhibiting a decrease in their 304 discharge rate. Consequently, we used a sixth-order polynomial to smooth the instantaneous discharge rates (26) and then we considered the peak discharge rate from this polynomial fit. 305

306 We further assessed the difference in neural drive received by the three muscles by comparing 307 their time-dependent changes in neural drive during the torque plateau. To this end, we estimated the neural drive through the calculation of the cumulative spike train (CST) of the 308 identified motor units (19, 43). To generate the CST of each muscle, the individual motor unit 309 310 discharge timings were summed and then smoothed with a Hanning window of 400-ms 311 duration (15). After down-sampling the data by 100, we calculated the slope of the linear 312 regression between CST and time to determine whether the CST decreased (negative slope different to 0), increased (positive slope different to 0) or remained stable during the torque 313 314 plateau.

To determine whether the feet configuration (Toes neutral and Toes in) adopted during the heel raise tasks could differentially affect GM and GL recruitment, we calculated the mean motor unit discharge rate. Values of discharge rate < 4 pps were removed from this calculation, as such discharge rates likely indicate inconsistent firings of the motor units (42). Note that SOL motor units were not considered in this part of the experiment, as it is already well known that the SOL and gastrocnemii muscles can be differentially activated by modifying the knee angle (34, 38), as is expected given their different function around the knee.

323 324

325 326

327 **5.** Statistical analysis

A Shapiro-Wilk test was used to test for a normal distribution. The discharge rate data measured during the heal raise task (Toes in and Toes neutral conditions) did not pass the normality test. Therefore, these data were transformed [1/square root(x)]. The distributions of the time at recruitment and delta discharge rate values did not pass the normality test either. However, because no transformation was able to provide a normal distribution, we performed non-parametric tests on these data. All data are reported as mean \pm standard deviation and the level of significance was set at p ≤ 0.05 .

Statistical analyses were performed in Statistica v7.0 (Statsoft, Tulsa, OK, USA). The withinmuscle coherence analysis was only performed when \geq 4 motor units were identified. Consequently, the number of participants considered for this analysis differed between muscles. For this reason, we used a one-way ANOVA for independent samples to compare the PCI between muscles [between-subject factor: muscle (GM, GL, SOL)].

It is likely that different populations of motor units, with different intrinsic properties, were identified during the plantarflexion tasks performed at the different intensities (10%, 20%, and 50%). For this reason, we did not directly compare the time at recruitment and the *delta* discharge rate between intensities, and these values were only compared between muscles using a Kruskal-Wallis test for main effect [between-subject factor: muscle (GM, GL, SOL)]. When appropriate, *post hoc* analyses were performed using multiple comparisons of mean 346 ranks.

The peak motor unit discharge rate estimated from the polynomial fit during the isometric plantarflexions was compared between muscles and contraction intensities using a 2-way ANOVA [between-subject factor: muscle (GM, GL, SOL) and intensity (10%, 20%, and 50%)]. A similar two-way ANOVA was performed to test the effect of the feet position on the discharge rate of GL and GM [between-subject factor: muscle (GM, GL, SOL) and condition (Toes Neutral and Toes In)]. When appropriate, *post hoc* analyses were performed using the Bonferroni test.

354

355 **Results**

356 The entire dataset (raw and processed data) is available at 357 <u>https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.12126627</u>

358

359 Motor unit decomposition

First, the spike-triggered averaging technique was used to identify decomposed motor units, 360 which might originate from crosstalk of one of the two other muscles. To achieve this aim, we 361 compared the amplitude of the ensemble-averaged motor unit action potentials. At this stage, 362 363 17 motor units that were identified from the array placed above the GL ($\approx 4\%$ of the total number of GL motor units) were suspected to originate from GM. After exclusion of these 364 motor units, the number of decomposed units over each of the five motor tasks ranged from 365 173 to 335 for GM, 10 to 120 for GL, and 65 to 94 for SOL (Table 1). Note that only 10 366 motor units were decomposed for GL from the isometric plantarflexion performed at 10% of 367 MVC, which is consistent with the low global GL EMG amplitude measured at this 368 contraction intensity, i.e. 7.1±2.4% of the maximal EMG amplitude measured during MVC. 369

The pulse-to-noise ratio averaged over the three muscles and the five tasks (i.e. a total of 2096
motor units) was 36.2±4.5 (range: 30.0-53.6).

We used a coherence analysis to provide insight into the common neural drive received by the 372 373 motor neurons. Because the number of GL motor unit discharges identified during the isometric plantarflexion tasks was too low (see Methods), the coherence analysis was only 374 performed on the isometric heel raise task performed with toes in neutral position (Toes 375 neutral). Of note, the normalized global EMG amplitude of GM and GL (GM: 24.1±6.0%, 376 377 GL: 12.1±6.9%, and SOL: 24.8±10.7% of maximal EMG amplitude) during the Toes neutral condition was close to that measured during the isometric plantarflexion at 30% of MVC 378 379 (GM: 28.7±6.8%, GL: 14.9±4.7%, and SOL: 18.4±11.5% of maximal EMG amplitude).

380

381 *Within-muscle coherence*

After discarding the motor units that were recruited intermittently and the data from participants with less than four consistently firing motor units, the within-muscle coherence analysis was performed on 243 motor units from 17 participants for GM, 83 motor units from 11 participants for GL, and 63 motor units from 10 participants for SOL.

386 The proportion of common synaptic input (PCI) with respect to the total input received by the 387 motor neuron pool was estimated from the relationship between the average values of 388 coherence in the bandwidth 0-5 Hz and the number of motor units used in the calculation (see Methods; Fig. 2). As the number of participants differed between the three muscles, we ran a 389 one-way ANOVA for independent samples. There was a significant main effect of muscle (F 390 391 [2, 35] = 14.2 p < 0.001) on the PCI values, with the PCI being lower in SOL (0.58±0.06) than 392 in both GM (0.67±0.06; p=0.004) and GL (0.73±0.07, p<0.001) (Fig. 4). PCI was not different between GM and GL (p=0.063). Note that we also ran a repeated measures ANOVA 393 394 on the seven participants who had enough active motor units discriminated from all the three

muscles. This test confirmed the existence of a significant main effect of *muscle* (F [2, 12] = 26.9, p<0.001), with the PCI being lower in SOL than in both GM (p=0.001) and GL (p<0.001), with no difference between GM and GL (p=0.082).

The proportion of common input to motor neurons within the VL and VM, assessed on two participants who performed an isometric body-weight squat (additional experiments), was in the lower range of that calculated for the *triceps surae* muscles, i.e. VL: 0.50 and 0.57; VM 0.49 and 0.54.

402

403 Between-muscles coherence

404 When considering data from all participants, there was no significant correlation between the 405 coherence in the bandwidth 0-5 Hz [common drive (16)] and the minimal number of motor units over the two muscles being tested (r=0.03, -0.15, and -0.08 for the GM-GL, GL-SOL, 406 407 and GM-SOL pair, respectively). This provides evidence that the number of motor units considered in the analysis did not influence the level of coherence that is reported. 408 Consequently, after discarding the motor units that were recruited intermittently, we retained 409 all the participants with at least one motor unit per muscle. Using this criterion, the coherence 410 411 analysis was performed on 13 participants for GM-GL [193 (GM) and 87 (GL) motor units], 412 and 11 participants for both GM-SOL [168 (GM) and 56 (SOL) motor units] and GL-SOL [62 (GL) and 52 (SOL) motor units]. 413

414 Overall, minimal between-muscle coherence was observed, regardless of the bandwidth, i.e. 415 delta (0-5 Hz), alpha (5-15 Hz), and beta (15-35 Hz) bands. For example, when considering 416 the GM-GL muscle pair, only 2/13 participants exhibited significant coherence over the entire 417 bandwidth 0-5 Hz (Fig. 5 and Fig. 6). While 5/13 participants exhibited coherence at some 418 (but not all) frequencies within the 0-5 Hz bandwidth, 6/13 participants exhibited no 419 significant coherence over this bandwidth. Note that participant #5, who exhibited the highest 420 coherence over the whole population (Fig. 5), was retested two months after the initial testing,
421 and the results confirmed the presence of significant coherence. When considering the GM422 SOL and GL-SOL muscle pairs, none of the participants exhibited significant coherence over
423 the entire bandwidth 0-5 Hz (Fig. 5 and Fig 6).

424 Note that the two participants who performed an isometric body-weight squat (additional 425 experiments) exhibited significant coherence between VL and VM motor units, over the entire 426 bandwidth 0-5 Hz (peak values: 0.34 and 0.81). It confirms previous results showing a strong 427 common drive between these muscles during isometric knee extension tasks (37).

- 428
- 429
- 430

431 Motor unit discharge characteristics during the isometric plantarflexion tasks

432 As indicated above, only 10 motor units were decomposed from the GL muscle during the plantarflexion at 10% of MVC. As the comparison between GL and GM was the main 433 purpose of this study, no further analysis was completed on the contractions at 10% of MVC. 434 At 30% of MVC, most of the identified motor units discharged during the three contractions 435 (93% for GM, 69% for GL, and 68% for SOL). There was a significant main effect of muscle 436 437 on the time at recruitment (H = 68.7, df = 2, p<0.001), with the GL motor units being recruited much later (11.5±5.9s) than both GM (4.4±3.3s, p<0.001) and SOL motor units 438 439 (5.2±4.2s, p<0.001). No difference of time at recruitment was observed between GM and 440 SOL (p=0.20). As the time at recruitment was calculated from the start of the 5-s ramp-up 441 period (see Methods), this result indicates that most of the motor units from GL started to be 442 recruited during the torque plateau (Fig. 7). There was a significant main effect of *muscle* on 443 the *delta* discharge rate measured during the first 2s after recruitment (H = 17.2, df = 2, p=0.002). The *delta* discharge rate was significantly lower for SOL $(1.4\pm0.9 \text{ pps.s}^{-1})$ than for 444

both GL (1.8±1.5 pps.s⁻¹, p=0.012) and GM (2.0±1.3 pps.s⁻¹, p<0.001). No difference between
GL and GM was observed (p=1).

Similar results were observed for the contractions performed at 50% of MVC, with a 447 significant main effect of *muscle* on the time at recruitment (H = 80.7, df = 2, p<0.001). As 448 449 observed at 30% of MVC, GL motor units were recruited much later (9.5±4.2s) than both GM 450 $(3.7\pm2.6s, p<0.001)$ and SOL motor units $(4.4\pm2.7s, p=0.018)$ (Fig. 7). At this intensity, SOL 451 motor units were also recruited later than GM motor units (p<0.001). There was also a main effect of *muscle* on the delta discharge rate (H = 26.9, df = 2, p<0.001). The *delta* discharge 452 rate was significantly lower for both SOL (1.5 ± 1.2 pps.s⁻¹, p<0.001) and GL (1.6 ± 1.9 pps.s⁻¹, 453 454 p < 0.001) when compared to GM (2.6±1.6 pps.s⁻¹). There was no difference between GM and 455 SOL (p=0.961).

456 There was a significant main effect of *muscle* (F [2, 766] = 83.4, p<0.001), a significant main effect of *intensity* (F [1, 766] = 68.9, p<0.001), and a significant *muscle* × *intensity* interaction 457 458 (F [2, 766] = 8.7, p=0.002) on the peak motor unit discharge rate estimated from the polynomial fit (Fig. 7). Regardless the contraction intensity, the discharge rate was lower for 459 460 SOL than for both GM and GL (all p values <0.037). While there was no difference in 461 discharge rate between GM and GL at 30% of MVC (P=1), the discharge rate was significantly higher for GM (14.0 \pm 3.0 pps) than GL (12.2 \pm 2.6 pps; p<0.001) at 50% of MVC. 462 This result is mainly explained by the absence of an increase in discharge rate of the GL 463 464 motor units between the two intensities (P=1).

We estimated the change in neural drive of each muscle during the plateau of the forcematched contractions through the assessment of the change in their cumulative spike trains (CST). When considering all the participants and the three contractions at 30% of MVC, we observed a significant decrease in the GM CST for most of the contractions (48% decrease, vs. 42% increase and 10% no change). Conversely, a significant increase in the CST was

470	observed in 92% of the contractions for GL and 54 % of the contractions for SOL. Opposite
471	change in CST was observed in 64%, 65% and 44% of the contractions when considering
472	GM-GL, GM-SOL, and GL-SOL pair, which provides strong evidence for opposing changes
473	in neural drive to these muscle pairs.
474	When considering the contractions at 50% of MVC, we observed a significant decrease in the
475	GM and SOL CST for most of the contractions (69% and 71% for GM and SOL,
476	respectively). Conversely, a significant increase in the GL CST was observed in 100% of the
477	contractions. Opposite change in CST was observed in 66%, 36% and 67% of the contractions
478	when considering GM-GL, GM-SOL, and GL-SOL pairs.
479 480 481 482	
402 483	Effect of toe position on motor units discharge rate during isometric heel raise
484 485	We compared the discharge rate of all identified motor units during the heel raise tasks
486	between Toes neutral (335 and 120 motor units for GM and GL, respectively) and Toes in
487	(312 and 85 motor units for GM and GL, respectively) (Fig. 8). There was a significant main
488	effect of <i>condition</i> (F [1, 848] = 7.4, p=0.006), a significant main effect of <i>muscle</i> (F [1, 848]
489	= 12.7, p<0.001), and a significant muscle \times condition on the discharge rate (F [1, 848] =
490	10.5, p=0.001). While no change in motor units discharge rate was observed for GM between
491	the two conditions (p=1), there was a significant increase in the discharge rate of GL motor
492	units, from 10.2 ± 1.2 pps for Toes neutral to 10.8 ± 1.5 pps for Toes in (p=0.002).

494 **Discussion**

495 We identified strong common neural drive to the motor neuron pools innervating each 496 muscle, but minimal common drive between pools innervating different muscles. Together 497 with differences in motor unit behaviors, our results provide evidence for minimal common 498 drive between the muscle heads of the triceps surae, which contrasts with observations from 499 other anatomically derived synergist muscles. This important result has implications for our 500 current understanding of the modular control of muscle coordination.

501

502 Strong common synaptic input to motor neurons within each muscle

We assessed the PCI received by the motor neuron pools of the three muscles of the triceps 503 504 surae. PCI values reported here were similar to those reported in the *abductor digiti minimi*, 505 tibialis anterior, and vastus medialis (44). This suggests that motor neurons of a single muscle receive most of their input from a common source. Unlike the previous observations made by 506 507 Negro, Yavuz and Farina (44), but in line with other data obtained from the first dorsal 508 interosseous and the biceps brachii (21), we observed a significant difference between muscles, with GL (PCI=0.73) and SOL (PCI=0.58) having the highest and lowest PCI values, 509 respectively. These between-muscle differences may be interpreted as differences in the 510 effective neural drive that is converted to force, presumably underlying differences in the 511 control of these muscles. 512

513

514 Minimal level of common drive between the heads of the triceps surae

515 We determined that the three heads of the triceps surae receive minimal common drive during 516 isometric heel raise tasks (Toes neutral). To reach this conclusion, we performed a coherence analysis between the CST of each muscle (15, 18, 37). To the best of our knowledge, this is 517 518 the first report minimal (or an absence of) coherence in all the frequency bands reflecting cortical and spinal inputs (24) between muscles that share the same main function(s) and that 519 520 belong to the same muscle group. As such, it was important to rule out the possibility that our 521 approach failed to identify existing coherence. First, the coherence analysis requires that the 522 CST is calculated from several motor units such that the synaptic input is represented over a 523 broad frequency range (23). Our analysis was performed on a relatively large number of units (Table 1) with, for example, 14.8±7.3 (GM) and 6.7±3.2 (GL) motor units when considering 524 525 the coherence between GM and GL. It is important to note that some of the participants who exhibited no significant GM-GL coherence in the bandwidth 0-5 Hz (Fig. 5) were among the 526 527 participants whose data allowed the largest number of motor units to be discriminated (e.g. 21 [GM] and 8 [GL] units for participant #12, 16 [GM] and 9 [GL] units for participant #18). 528 Second, we tested our analysis procedure on the VL and VM muscles of two participants. In 529 line with the strong common input shared by these muscles (37), we observed a significant 530 531 coherence in the bandwidth 0-5 Hz for both participants. Given the above considerations, we believe that our dataset and analysis methods were appropriate to show coherence if it did 532 exist between the muscles of the triceps surae. 533

Our conclusion that the three heads of the triceps surae share minimal common drive is 534 535 further strengthened by two complementary approaches. First, the motor unit discharge 536 characteristics observed during the isometric plantarflexion tasks performed on the ergometer 537 revealed obvious differences among muscles. GL motor units were recruited much later than either SOL or GM motor units at both contraction intensities (Fig. 3 and 6). Even though this 538 539 difference in recruitment time might be explained by different intrinsic motor neuron properties rather than different neural drive, the fact that opposite changes in CST were 540 541 observed in most of the contractions provides evidence that the three muscles receive different neural drive (Fig. 3). Our proposition provides an explanation for the absence of active GL 542 543 motor units observed during standing balance (27). Second, the differential change in the 544 discharge rate of GL and GM observed between the heel raise tasks performed with Toes in and Toes neutral provide definitive evidence that these muscles are not controlled primarily 545 546 by shared neural drive, as it is the case for other synergist muscles.

548 GM and GL are "non-identical twins"

Even though SOL and Gastrocnemii are consistently reported as part of the same synergy 549 550 during walking (van den Hoorn et al., 2015), the observation that the SOL muscle does not share a common drive with the two gastrocnemius muscles is not surprising given their 551 552 different functions and previous observations of dissociated motor unit behavior of GM and SOL in humans (34, 38) and animals (28). However, considering that muscles that share the 553 554 same function(s) are thought to share neural drive (25, 37), the minimal coherence between 555 GM and GL, despite attaching to the same distal tendon, is somewhat surprising. Our findings do not support the long-held belief that GM and GL are the "same muscle" such that they are 556 557 named the "twin" muscles in some languages, e.g. "jumeaux" in French and "gemelos" in 558 Spanish.

The minimal common drive between GL and GM may be related to the complexity of ankle 559 560 joint control. Control at the ankle is important in maintaining balance during a wide variety of tasks, such as quiet stance, walking, running and maintaining balance when responding to 561 perturbations. Therefore, relative independent control of these muscles may allow for flexible 562 control of the ankle joint to comply with secondary goals (e.g. joint stabilization, distribution 563 564 of tendon strain). This is supported by indirect neurophysiological and biomechanical 565 measures of human GL and GM, that suggest different actions in the frontal plane (12, 39, 566 50). Also, these muscles are architecturally different, with GL exhibiting a smaller volume and longer fascicles than GM (13). This means that these two muscles have different 567 568 contractile dynamics (6). Therefore, an independent control of GM and GL might be an optimal way for the nervous system to tune the activation to the mechanical requirements of 569 570 the task (32). Overall, the minimal common drive observed between GM and GL suggests that reducing the number of effectively controlled degrees of freedom may not always be the 571 572 strategy used by the central nervous system to control movements, even when this strategy would be functionally viable. This is in agreement with recent results showing that the central nervous system compromises between restoration of task performance and optimization of joint load after VL denervation in rats (2). Of note, we cannot rule out an alternative interpretation that the lack of common drive between GM and GL is a suboptimal strategy resulting from the late, and perhaps incomplete, evolution of the Achilles tendon and plantarflexors for human locomotion (1).

579

580 Modular organization of muscle coordination

581 It has been proposed that the central nervous system produces movements through the 582 combination of motor modules; each module being composed of muscles activated by shared inputs to their motor neurons (5, 14, 47). However, the neural origin of motor modules is 583 debated, with some studies suggesting that they reflect biomechanical constraints of the task 584 585 rather than a neural control strategy (36, 48). Using a similar approach to that used in our study, shared neural drive was found between two thigh muscles for which control is 586 biomechanically constrained [VL and VM; (37)] as well as between two hands muscles for 587 which control is not biomechanically constrained [first dorsal interosseous and thenar 588 589 muscles; (18)]. Here, we observed little, if any, coherence in the bandwidth corresponding to 590 both the spinal and cortical drive, suggesting that GM and GL are controlled mostly independently. Taken together, it provides evidence against a pure association between 591 biomechanical constraints and modular muscle control. Indeed, GM and GL are both 592 593 anatomically and biomechanically associated during plantarflexion, as performed in our study. However, these constraints did not determine modular control of their activation, even 594 though control with reduced dimensionality would have been viable for these specific 595 plantarflexion tasks. This and previous studies thus point to the possibility that neural 596 connectivity may be partly dissociated from biomechanical connectivity. 597

It is important to note that classical non-invasive approaches, based on factorization of multiple bipolar EMG signals, consistently report GM and GL as part of the same module(s) (33, 49). Together with our results, this suggests that separate EMG signals can be correlated, but in a way that does not reflect a common synaptic input (42). The non-invasive approach with EMG decomposition used in the present study could be extended to other muscles to provide a comprehensive description of neural muscle modules that could be distinguished from "biomechanical" modules.

605

606 *Limitations*

607 This experiment requires consideration of several methodological aspects. First, the level of 608 common synaptic input to the motor neuron pools of GM, GL and SOL has been estimated only indirectly from the recorded motor neuron outputs. Moreover, in most cases, it was 609 610 assumed that the transmission at the motor neuron population level was linear, as it has been proposed in previous work (23), although it cannot be excluded that transmission to the motor 611 neuron output included some non-linear components (7, 51). The coherence between the 612 cumulative discharge times calculated over a group of motor neurons reflects the common 613 614 components of the synaptic input, although the frequency bands of these components may not 615 be the same between input and output when accounting for non-linear transmission. Similarly, 616 the model we used to estimate the PCI does not specifically account for persistent inward 617 currents which introduce further non-linearity in the system (7). Second, the SOL muscle is 618 composed by four compartments with different architecture (10) and different innervation (41). Given the placement of our surface EMG electrodes (see Methods), it is likely that we 619 620 measured only one compartment, which did not represent the motor unit activity in the entire muscle. It is therefore possible that neural drive was shared between GM or GL and other 621 622 SOL compartments. Finally, the observation of minimal common drive between the heads of

- 623 the triceps surae cannot be extrapolated to other motor tasks such as dynamic tasks. Whether
- 624 similar results would be observed during dynamic locomotor tasks remains an open question.

625

626

627 **References**

- 628
- Aerts P, D'Aout K, Thorpe S, Berillon G, and Vereecke E. The gibbon's Achilles tendon revisited: consequences for the evolution of the great apes? *Proc Biol Sci* 285: 2018.
- Alessandro C, Rellinger BA, Barroso FO, and Tresch MC. Adaptation after vastus lateralis denervation in rats demonstrates neural regulation of joint stresses and strains. *Elife* 7: 2018.
- Baker SN, Kilner JM, Pinches EM, and Lemon RN. The role of synchrony and oscillations in the motor output. *Exp Brain Res* 128: 109-117, 1999.
- 637 4. Baker SN, Pinches EM, and Lemon RN. Synchronization in monkey motor cortex
 638 during a precision grip task. II. effect of oscillatory activity on corticospinal output. J
 639 Neurophysiol 89: 1941-1953, 2003.
- 640 5. Berniker M, Jarc A, Bizzi E, and Tresch MC. Simplified and effective motor control
 641 based on muscle synergies to exploit musculoskeletal dynamics. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S*642 A 106: 7601-7606, 2009.
- 643 6. Biewener AA. Locomotion as an emergent property of muscle contractile dynamics. J
 644 Exp Biol 219: 285-294, 2016.
- 645 7. Binder MD, Powers RK, and Heckman CJ. Nonlinear Input-Output Functions of
 646 Motoneurons. *Physiology (Bethesda)* 35: 31-39, 2020.
- 8. Bizzi E, and Cheung VC. The neural origin of muscle synergies. *Front Comput Neurosci* 7: 51, 2013.
- 649 9. Bizzi E, Cheung VC, d'Avella A, Saltiel P, and Tresch M. Combining modules for movement. *Brain Res Rev* 57: 125-133, 2008.
- 10. Bolsterlee B, Finni T, D'Souza A, Eguchi J, Clarke EC, and Herbert RD. Threedimensional architecture of the whole human soleus muscle in vivo. *PeerJ* 6: e4610,
 2018.
- Bremner FD, Baker JR, and Stephens JA. Correlation between the discharges of motor
 units recorded from the same and from different finger muscles in man. *J Physiol* 432:
 355-380, 1991.
- Cohen JW, Gallina A, Ivanova TD, Vieira T, McAndrew DJ, and Garland SJ.
 Regional modulation of the ankle plantarflexor muscles associated with standing external
 perturbations across different directions. *Exp Brain Res* 2019.
- 660 13. Crouzier M, Lacourpaille L, Nordez A, Tucker K, and Hug F. Neuromechanical
 661 coupling within the human triceps surae and its consequence on individual force-sharing
 662 strategies. *J Exp Biol* 221: 2018.
- 14. d'Avella A, and Bizzi E. Shared and specific muscle synergies in natural motor
 behaviors. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 102: 3076-3081, 2005.
- 15. De Luca CJ, LeFever RS, McCue MP, and Xenakis AP. Behaviour of human motor
 units in different muscles during linearly varying contractions. *J Physiol* 329: 113-128,
 1982.

- 16. De Luca CJ, LeFever RS, McCue MP, and Xenakis AP. Control scheme governing
 concurrently active human motor units during voluntary contractions. *J Physiol* 329: 129142, 1982.
- 17. Del Vecchio A, Falla D, Felici F, and Farina D. The relative strength of common synaptic input to motor neurons is not a determinant of the maximal rate of force development in humans. *J Appl Physiol (1985)* 127: 205-214, 2019.
- 18. Del Vecchio A, Germer CM, Elias LA, Fu Q, Fine J, Santello M, and Farina D. The
 human central nervous system transmits common synaptic inputs to distinct motor neuron
 pools during non-synergistic digit actions. *J Physiol* 2019.
- 19. Del Vecchio A, Ubeda A, Sartori M, Azorin JM, Felici F, and Farina D. Central
 nervous system modulates the neuromechanical delay in a broad range for the control of
 muscle force. *J Appl Physiol (1985)* 125: 1404-1410, 2018.
- 20. Dominici N, Ivanenko YP, Cappellini G, d'Avella A, Mondi V, Cicchese M, Fabiano
 A, Silei T, Di Paolo A, Giannini C, Poppele RE, and Lacquaniti F. Locomotor
 primitives in newborn babies and their development. *Science* 334: 997-999, 2011.
- Farina D, Castronovo AM, Vujaklija I, Sturma A, Salminger S, Hofer C, and
 Aszmann O. Common Synaptic Input to Motor Neurons and Neural Drive to Targeted
 Reinnervated Muscles. *J Neurosci* 37: 11285-11292, 2017.
- 686 22. Farina D, and Negro F. Common synaptic input to motor neurons, motor unit synchronization, and force control. *Exerc Sport Sci Rev* 43: 23-33, 2015.
- 688 23. Farina D, Negro F, Muceli S, and Enoka RM. Principles of Motor Unit Physiology
 689 Evolve With Advances in Technology. *Physiology (Bethesda)* 31: 83-94, 2016.
- 690 24. Farmer SF, Bremner FD, Halliday DM, Rosenberg JR, and Stephens JA. The
 691 frequency content of common synaptic inputs to motoneurones studied during voluntary
 692 isometric contraction in man. *J Physiol* 470: 127-155, 1993.
- 693 25. Gibbs J, Harrison LM, and Stephens JA. Organization of inputs to motoneurone pools
 694 in man. J Physiol 485 (Pt 1): 245-256, 1995.
- 695 26. Gorassini M, Yang JF, Siu M, and Bennett DJ. Intrinsic activation of human
 696 motoneurons: possible contribution to motor unit excitation. *J Neurophysiol* 87: 1850697 1858, 2002.
- 698 27. Heroux ME, Dakin CJ, Luu BL, Inglis JT, and Blouin JS. Absence of lateral
 699 gastrocnemius activity and differential motor unit behavior in soleus and medial
 700 gastrocnemius during standing balance. *J Appl Physiol (1985)* 116: 140-148, 2014.
- 701 28. Hodgson JA. The relationship between soleus and gastrocnemius muscle activity in conscious cats--a model for motor unit recruitment? *J Physiol* 337: 553-562, 1983.
- Provide the second stress of the secon
- 30. Holobar A, Minetto MA, and Farina D. Accurate identification of motor unit discharge
 patterns from high-density surface EMG and validation with a novel signal-based
 performance metric. *J Neural Eng* 11: 016008, 2014.
- 31. Holobar A, and Zazula D. Multichannel Blind Source Separation Using Convolution
 Kernel Compensation. *IEEE Transactions on Signal Processing* 55: 4487-4496, 2007.
- 32. Hudson AL, Gandevia SC, and Butler JE. A Principle of Neuromechanical Matching
 for Motor Unit Recruitment in Human Movement. *Exerc Sport Sci Rev* 47: 157-168,
 2019.
- 33. Hug F, Turpin NA, Couturier A, and Dorel S. Consistency of muscle synergies during
 pedaling across different mechanical constraints. *J Neurophysiol* 106: 91-103, 2011.
- 34. Kennedy PM, and Cresswell AG. The effect of muscle length on motor-unit recruitment
 during isometric plantar flexion in humans. *Exp Brain Res* 137: 58-64, 2001.

- 35. Kerkman JN, Daffertshofer A, Gollo LL, Breakspear M, and Boonstra TW.
 Network structure of the human musculoskeletal system shapes neural interactions on multiple time scales. *Sci Adv* 4: eaat0497, 2018.
- 36. Kutch JJ, and Valero-Cuevas FJ. Challenges and new approaches to proving the existence of muscle synergies of neural origin. *PLoS Comput Biol* 8: e1002434, 2012.
- 37. Laine CM, Martinez-Valdes E, Falla D, Mayer F, and Farina D. Motor Neuron Pools
 of Synergistic Thigh Muscles Share Most of Their Synaptic Input. *J Neurosci* 35: 1220712216, 2015.
- 38. Lauber B, Lichtwark GA, and Cresswell AG. Reciprocal activation of gastrocnemius
 and soleus motor units is associated with fascicle length change during knee flexion. *Physiol Rep* 2: 2014.
- 39. Lee SS, and Piazza SJ. Inversion-eversion moment arms of gastrocnemius and tibialis
 anterior measured in vivo. *J Biomech* 41: 3366-3370, 2008.
- 40. Lieb FJ, and Perry J. Quadriceps function. An anatomical and mechanical study using amputated limbs. *J Bone Joint Surg Am* 50: 1535-1548, 1968.
- 41. Loh EY, Agur AM, and McKee NH. Intramuscular innervation of the human soleus muscle: a 3D model. *Clin Anat* 16: 378-382, 2003.
- 42. Martinez-Valdes E, Negro F, Falla D, De Nunzio AM, and Farina D. Surface
 electromyographic amplitude does not identify differences in neural drive to synergistic
 muscles. *J Appl Physiol (1985)* 124: 1071-1079, 2018.
- Negro F, Holobar A, and Farina D. Fluctuations in isometric muscle force can be
 described by one linear projection of low-frequency components of motor unit discharge
 rates. *J Physiol* 587: 5925-5938, 2009.
- 44. Negro F, Yavuz US, and Farina D. The human motor neuron pools receive a dominant slow-varying common synaptic input. *J Physiol* 594: 5491-5505, 2016.
- 742 45. Overduin SA, d'Avella A, Carmena JM, and Bizzi E. Microstimulation activates a handful of muscle synergies. *Neuron* 76: 1071-1077, 2012.
- 744 46. Tresch MC, and Bizzi E. Responses to spinal microstimulation in the chronically
 745 spinalized rat and their relationship to spinal systems activated by low threshold
 746 cutaneous stimulation. *Exp Brain Res* 129: 401-416, 1999.
- 747 47. Tresch MC, and Jarc A. The case for and against muscle synergies. *Curr Opin* 748 *Neurobiol* 19: 601-607, 2009.
- Valero-Cuevas FJ, Venkadesan M, and Todorov E. Structured variability of muscle
 activations supports the minimal intervention principle of motor control. *J Neurophysiol*102: 59-68, 2009.
- van den Hoorn W, Hodges PW, van Dieen JH, and Hug F. Effect of acute noxious
 stimulation to the leg or back on muscle synergies during walking. *J Neurophysiol* 113:
 244-254, 2015.
- 50. Vieira TM, Windhorst U, and Merletti R. Is the stabilization of quiet upright stance in
 humans driven by synchronized modulations of the activity of medial and lateral
 gastrocnemius muscles? *J Appl Physiol (1985)* 108: 85-97, 2010.
- 51. Watanabe RN, and Kohn AF. Fast Oscillatory Commands from the Motor Cortex Can
 Be Decoded by the Spinal Cord for Force Control. *J Neurosci* 35: 13687-13697, 2015.
- 52. Winter SL, and Challis JH. Reconstruction of the human gastrocnemius force-length
 curve in vivo: part 1-model-based validation of method. J Appl Biomech 24: 197-206,
 2008.
- 763

- 765 Figure legends
- 766

Figure 1. Experimental setup. Panel A shows the placement of the high-density 767 electromyography electrodes. A two-dimensional adhesive grid of 64 electrodes was placed 768 over both the gastrocnemius medialis (GM) and the gastrocnemius lateralis (GL) muscle. A 769 770 two-dimensional adhesive grid of 32 electrodes was placed on the medial part of the soleus (SOL), below the myotendinous junction of the GM muscle. Panel B shows the isometric 771 plantarflexion task performed on the ergometer (knee was fully extended and ankle angle at 772 773 10° of plantarflexion). Panel C shows the isometric heel raise task which consisted of holding the heel at a standard height of 6 cm, with either the feet in neutral position (comfortable 774 775 stance; Toes neutral) or internally rotated (Toes in).

776

777 Figure 2. Individual example of the assessment of the proportion of common input (PCI). Panel A shows the smoothed discharge rate (cut-off frequency=2 Hz) of 25 motor 778 779 units identified from the gastrocnemius medialis, during the isometric heel raise task performed with the toes in neutral position, for participant #12. Note that only 20s of the 780 contraction are depicted here. Panel B shows the results of the coherence analyses performed 781 782 on two cumulative spike trains, with varying number of motor units in each group, i.e. from 1 783 to 12 motor units. Each estimation is the average of 100 random permutations of motor units. 784 The horizontal line indicates the threshold of significant coherence for 12 motor units per group. Panel C represents the relationship between the mean values (±standard deviation) of 785 786 coherence in the bandwidth 0-5 Hz and the number of motor units. This relationship was 787 fitted by least-squares (red line) and the rate of change was considered as an index of the 788 proportion of common input (PCI).

789

790 Figure 3. Individual example of the assessment of the neural drive during the isometric plantarflexions performed on the ergometer. Panel A represents the smoothed discharge 791 792 rate (cut-off frequency=2 Hz) of the motor units identified in participant #11 during the contraction at 30% of MVC. Panel B shows three outcomes (time at recruitment, delta and 793 794 peak discharge rate) estimated from the instantaneous discharge rate of one motor unit of the 795 gastrocnemius medialis muscle. Note that the peak discharge rate value was estimated from a sixth-order polynomial used to smooth the instantaneous discharge rates. Panel C shows the 796 797 cumulative spike train (CST; index of neural drive) of each of the three muscles. GM, 798 Gastrocnemius medialis; GL, Gastrocnemius lateralis; SOL, Soleus (medial-posterior compartment); MVC, maximal voluntary contraction. 799

800

Figure 4. Proportion of common synaptic input to motor neurons within the same muscle, estimated during the isometric heel raise (Toes neutral). The within-muscle coherence analysis was performed on 17, 11, and 10 participants for gastrocnemius medialis (GM), gastrocnemius lateralis (GL), and soleus (SOL), respectively. Each participant is represented by a different color and the horizontal line indicates the mean value. \$, indicates significant difference compared with SOL. There was no significant difference between GM and GL.

808

Figure 5. Between-muscle coherence estimated during the isometric heel raise (toes neutral). Panel A shows examples of the coherence between GM and GL for two participants: Participant #18 who exhibited no coherence and participant #5 who exhibited the highest coherence over the population tested. The horizontal lines represent the threshold of significance defined as the highest coherence value for frequencies > 100 Hz, at which no coherence is expected. The other panels show, for each participant, the frequencies at which a

significant coherence was observed (Panel B for GM-GL, Panel C for GM-SOL, Panel C for
GL-SOL). Some participants were discarded from this analysis as too few motor units were
discriminated to allow this analysis. Individual coherence data are depicted on Fig 5-1, 5-2
and 5-3 (extended data). GM, Gastrocnemius medialis; GL, Gastrocnemius lateralis; SOL,
Soleus.

820

821 Figure 6: Individual data of coherence between the three heads of the triceps surae 822 estimated during the isometric heel raise (toes neutral). The red horizontal lines represent 823 the threshold of significance defined as the highest coherence value for frequencies > 100 Hz, 824 at which no coherence is expected. Some participants were discarded from this analysis as too 825 few motor units were discriminated to allow this analysis. GM, Gastrocnemius medialis; GL, 826 Gastrocnemius lateralis; SOL, Soleus.

827

Figure 7. Motor unit discharge characteristics during the isometric plantarflexion tasks performed at 30% (Panel A) and 50% of MVC (Panel B). Each participant is represented by a different colour and the horizontal bar indicates the mean value. The dashed horizontal line on the upper panels indicate the beginning of the torque plateau. *, p<0.05 for comparison with GM; \$, p<0.05 for comparison with SOL; £, p<0.05 for comparison with GL. GM, Gastrocnemius medialis; GL, Gastrocnemius lateralis; SOL, Soleus; MVC, maximal voluntary contractions.

835

Figure 8. Discharge rate during the isometric heel raise performed with different feet configurations. Each participant (n=14-17) is represented by a different colour and the horizontal bar indicates the mean value. *, p<0.05 for comparison with Toes neutral. GM, Gastrocnemius medialis; GL, Gastrocnemius lateralis.

- 840
- 841