Probabilistic inference of Homonymous and Heteronymous Recurrent Inhibition in Human Muscles from Large-Scale Motor Neuron Recordings

François DERNONCOURT[1], Simon AVRILLON[1,2], Thomas CATTAGNI[3], Dario FARINA[2] and François HUG[1,4,5] *

[1] Université Côte d'Azur, LAMHESS, Nice, France
[2] Department of Bioengineering, Faculty of Engineering, Imperial College London, London, United Kingdom
[3] Nantes Université, Movement-Interactions-Performance, MIP, UR 4334, F-44000, Nantes, France.
[4] The University of Queensland, School of Biomedical Sciences, Brisbane, QLD, Australia
[5] Institut Universitaire de France (IUF), Paris, France

* Corresponding author
Prof. François Hug (https://orcid.org/0000-0002-6432-558X)
Université Côte d'Azur, LAMHESS, Nice, France
E-mail: francois.hug@univ-cotedazur.fr

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Supplemental data availability:
All code used for data analysis and modeling is available at:
https://github.com/FrancoisDernoncourt/Mapping_Recurrent_Inhibition
The full dataset (raw electromyography data and edited motor unit spike trains) is available at:
https://figshare.com/s/c4da3eb57c88a9b07ddc

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Abstract

Understanding how spinal circuits shape motor neuron behavior during muscle contractions remains a major challenge. Here, we combined large-scale motor unit recordings with simulation-based inference to generate probabilistic estimates of homonymous and heteronymous recurrent inhibition, a key spinal circuit that has remained mostly inaccessible during natural voluntary contractions. We constructed synchronization cross-histograms from motor neuron spike trains and extracted features representative of recurrent inhibition. Because these features are influenced by higher-frequency components of common synaptic input, we developed a simulation-based inference framework to disentangle these effects. Following validation, we applied this framework to experimental data from six muscles and two contraction intensities, revealing previously uncharacterized muscle- and intensity-dependent patterns: recurrent inhibition decreased with contraction intensity in most muscles but increased in the vastus lateralis and medialis. The pipeline is openly available and designed for reuse on comparable datasets and adaptation to diverse experimental contexts, including other spinal circuits.

Keywords: motor unit, electromyography, simulation-based inference, recurrent inhibition

Introduction

Understanding how synaptic inputs shape motor neuron activity and ultimately generate muscle contraction remains limited. At the population level, motor neuron activity dynamics emerge from the interplay of descending supraspinal drive, sensory feedback, and spinal circuits, and exhibit substantial variation across motor neuron pools (Duchateau & Enoka, 2022; Heckman & Enoka, 2012; Keen et al., 2012). Yet, inferring the contribution of specific spinal circuits to motor neuron behavior remains a central barrier to understanding the neural control of movement.

Among spinal circuits, recurrent inhibition is a key mechanism that shapes motor neuron dynamics. Motor axon collaterals excite Renshaw cells that, in turn, inhibit the motor neurons they contact, forming a disynaptic negative feedback loop (Eccles et al., 1954; Renshaw, 1941). Despite these effects of recurrent inhibition on motor neuron behavior, its functional role in motor execution remains poorly understood. Proposed roles of recurrent inhibition include tremor-band damping through frequency-selective filtering (Edgley et al., 2021; Williams & Baker, 2009), as well as contributing to error correction and motor adaptation/learning (Brownstone et al., 2015; Lavaud et al., 2024; Ozyurt et al., 2025). These roles imply muscle- and task-dependent expression of recurrent inhibition. For example, because limb mechanical resonance frequency is generally higher in distal than in proximal joints (McAuley & Marsden, 2000), a recurrent loop that attenuates resonant oscillations at proximal joints could amplify them at distal joints, consistent with evidence of weaker recurrent inhibition in distal motor neuron pools (Edgley et al., 2021). Clarifying the role of recurrent inhibition therefore requires accurate characterization across motor neuron pools and contraction intensities.

Recurrent inhibition has been quantified in reduced or anesthetized animal preparations (Cullheim & Kellerth, 1978; Edgley et al., 2021). Although these studies provide precise measurements, their results cannot be directly extrapolated to natural behavior. In humans, mapping the distribution of recurrent inhibition across muscles has been attempted using indirect stimulation-based approaches such as the paired H-reflex and M-wave (Katz et al., 1993; Meunier et al., 1994; Rossi & Mazzocchio, 1991). These methods have been invaluable for probing recurrent inhibition, but they suffer from substantial limitations. First, stimulation imposes non-physiological patterns of motor neuron recruitment, producing responses that may not reflect spinal circuit behavior during voluntary contractions. Second, these methods sample a biased subset of motor neurons. Specifically, the paired H-reflex method assesses recurrent inhibition only in the subset of motor neurons recruited by the stimulation-induced Ia afferent volley (Hultborn & Pierrot-Deseilligny, 1979), whereas the M-only paradigm preferentially measures inhibition directed from large to small motor neurons (Özyurt et al., 2019). Third, the paired H-reflex method is susceptible to confounds from intrinsic motor neuron properties because it recruits the same motor neurons twice within a short interval (Pierrot-Deseilligny & Burke, 2012). Finally, these approaches can be used only in muscles that are easy to stimulate. As a result, human data are largely confined to the triceps surae, leaving many other pools insufficiently characterized.

Approaches have recently been developed to reverse-engineer the synaptic inputs received by motor neurons from their output, i.e. their firing patterns (Chardon et al., 2024). The underlying principle is that, with a physiologically grounded model, motor neuron spiking activity can be simulated under different input scenarios to determine which ones best match the experimental observations. Here, we build on this idea by leveraging large-scale motor unit recordings in

humans to provide a probabilistic mapping of homonymous and heteronymous recurrent inhibition across six muscles and two contraction intensities during voluntary isometric contractions. Specifically, we implemented and validated a pipeline that integrates these experimental data with simulation-based inference (Cranmer et al., 2020; Gonçalves et al., 2020). Using a simulation model that reproduces experimental motor unit behavior, we estimated the contributions of recurrent inhibition and higher-frequency components of common synaptic input to spiking activity. The model made all biological assumptions explicit by specifying the circuit components and their parameters, and the inference procedure returned a range of physiological parameter values compatible with the experimental data, along with their associated uncertainty. Our results revealed specific muscle- and intensity-dependent patterns of recurrent inhibition, challenging the assumption that recurrent inhibition changes uniformly and monotonically with force across muscles.

Results

General framework

We simulated pools of 30 motor neurons with a leaky integrate-and-fire model, receiving recurrent inhibition via 10 Renshaw cells. Recurrent inhibition strength was set by a single parameter: the mean disynaptic inhibitory weight (motor neuron-to-motor neuron; Fig. 1B). Each motor neuron received three inputs: a low-frequency common input (0–5 Hz), independent noise (0–80 Hz), and a band-limited higher-frequency common input with tunable bandwidth and amplitude (Fig. 1A). Each simulation generated 100 s of spiking activity, representing an isometric submaximal contraction task (Fig. 1C). Full details are provided in the Methods section, and the code and parameter settings for all simulations are available on GitHub (https://github.com/FrancoisDernoncourt/Mapping_Recurrent_Inhibition).

From the model outputs, we defined observable features from synchronization cross-histograms that served as proxies for recurrent inhibition and higher-frequency common input. To untangle the effects of recurrent inhibition from those of higher-frequency common input on these features, we used a simulation-based inference approach consisting of training a neural network on simulated data to probabilistically map these observable features to the latent physiological variables. Finally, we applied this trained network to experimental large-scale motor unit recordings, to provide a probabilistic mapping of recurrent inhibition across six muscles, at two contraction intensities.

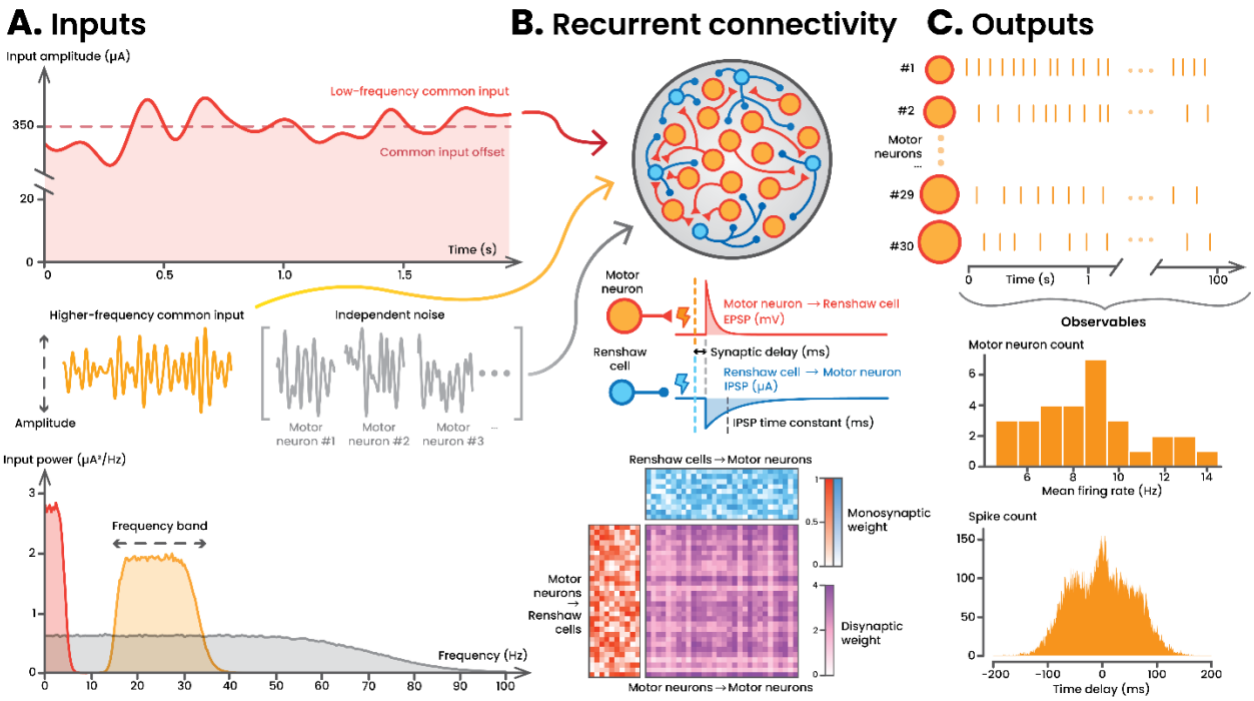

Figure 1. Simulation model overview. (A) Inputs were modelled as time-varying currents injected directly into leaky integrate-and-fire motor neurons. Within each simulated pool, all motor neurons received the same three components: a low-frequency common input (0–5 Hz), a band-limited higher-frequency common input, and a constant positive offset representing baseline excitation. Each motor neuron also received independent noise (0–80 Hz). **(B)** Each motor neuron spike produced an excitatory postsynaptic potential (EPSP) of fixed amplitude and decay time constant in its target Renshaw cells, scaled by a monosynaptic weight. In turn, each Renshaw cell spike produced an inhibitory postsynaptic potential (IPSP) of fixed amplitude and adjustable

time constant in its target motor neurons, also scaled by a monosynaptic weight. A single *recurrent inhibition strength* parameter set the mean disynaptic inhibitory weight from motor neurons-to-motor neurons, from which the two monosynaptic weight matrices (bottom panel; motor neurons-to-Renshaw cells and Renshaw cells-to-motor neurons) were derived. **(C)** We simulated 100 s of spiking activity in pools of 30 motor neurons with variable soma sizes and intrinsic properties. From the simulated spike trains, we extracted five observables, including the mean firing rates (top histogram) and synchronization cross-histogram features (bottom histogram; example shown for a single *comparison* motor neuron, representing its conditional probability of spiking at a given time lag relative to spikes from all other *reference* motor neurons).

Cross-histogram signatures of recurrent inhibition and higher-frequency common input

Synchronization cross-histograms were computed from simulated spike trains to represent the probability of a *comparison* motor neuron to fire at specific time lags relative to a *reference* motor neuron. Specifically, for each *comparison*/*reference* pair, we measured the delays between each spike time of the *reference* motor neuron and the nearest preceding and following spikes of the *comparison* motor neuron. Counts were normalized to obtain a probability distribution. Finally, for each *comparison* motor neuron, we averaged its synchronization cross-histograms across all *reference* motor neurons to estimate the net inhibitory influence exerted by the other identified motor neurons of the pool.

A typical synchronization cross-histogram exhibits a curved, trapezoid-shaped baseline with a central peak flanked by troughs. Each synchronization cross-histogram was fitted with a composite curve consisting of a *baseline* and a *peak-and-troughs* component (Methods). When applied to cross-histograms generated from simulated data, the goodness of fit was excellent (R^2 = 0.97±0.04). We extracted three features from these fits. First, *trough area*, defined as the area where the histogram fell below the baseline. It quantifies the reduction in firing probability relative to baseline and served as a proxy for recurrent inhibition strength (Fig. 2A). Second, *trough timing,* defined as the lag corresponding to the minimum autocorrelation of the residuals relative to the baseline curve. This metric served as a proxy for the delay of recurrent inhibition, reflecting both the disynaptic delay and the time constant of the Renshaw-mediated inhibitory post-synaptic potential (IPSP; Fig 2A). Third, *peak height*, defined as the maximum positive amplitude of the *peak-and-troughs* component and used as an index of short-timescale synchrony, mainly arising from higher-frequency components of the common input (Fig. 2B).

To validate that the three features tracked their intended physiological parameters, we simulated spike trains while independently varying recurrent inhibition and the higher-frequency component of the common input. We then quantified the linear relationships between each feature and its target physiological parameter. When varying recurrent inhibition strength across 300 simulations, linear regression of *trough area* against the ground-truth explained 97% of the variance (R^2 = 0.97; Fig. 2A). At fixed inhibition strength, linear regression showed that *trough timing* explained 84% of the variance in ground-truth disynaptic delay (300 simulations; 4–30 ms delays; R^2 = 0.84; Fig 2A) and 60 % of the variance in the Renshaw-mediated IPSP time constant (300 simulations; 5-100ms; R^2 = 0.60; Fig 2A). For higher-frequency common input, we ran 1,000 simulations, jointly varying amplitude and frequency content of common input. The input was band-limited to a fixed 20-Hz bandwidth, with center frequencies spanning between 15 and 50 Hz (i.e., frequency bands from 5-25 Hz up to 40-60 Hz). Within each band, linear regression of *peak height* against input amplitude explained more than 91% of the variance ($R^2 \geq 0.91$), and regressions remained high when pooling across bands (R^2=0.89; Fig. 2B). Together, these results suggest that synchronization cross-histogram features can serve as proxies for estimating the amplitude of higher-frequency

common input to motor neurons and the strength and delay of recurrent inhibition. However, our simulations also replicated prior observations that these proxies are not strictly mechanism-specific (Fig. 3): the recurrent inhibition proxy is modulated by the frequency content of common input, and the proxy for high-frequency common input is, in turn, modulated by recurrent inhibition (Muceli et al., 2022; Williams & Baker, 2009). This interaction makes it difficult to assign each feature exclusively to a single underlying mechanism, as further explained below.

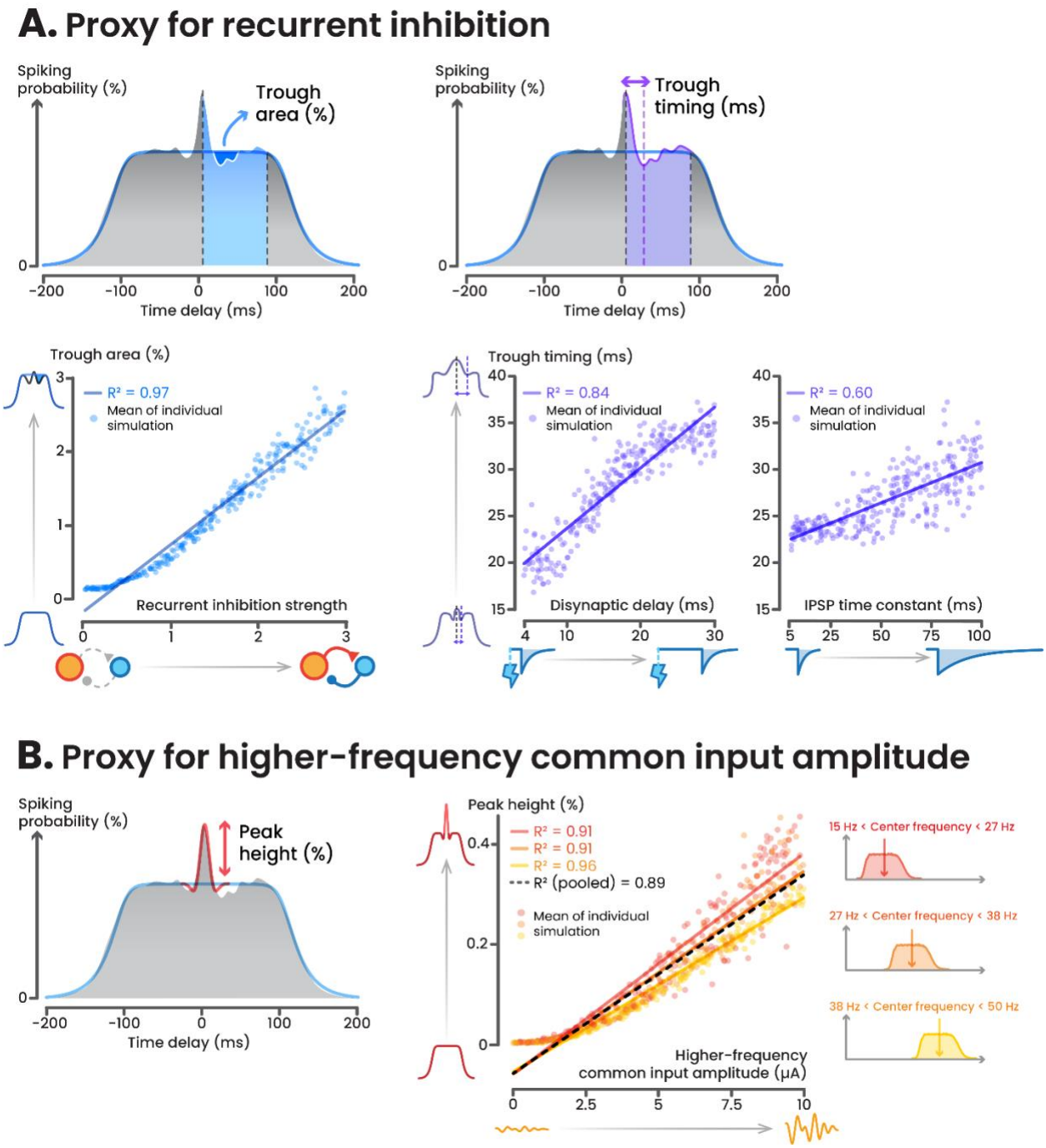

Figure 2. Synchronization cross-histogram features as proxies for recurrent inhibition and higher frequency common input amplitude. (A) Example synchronization cross-histogram illustrating how recurrent inhibition-

related proxy features were defined. The *trough area* was calculated as the integrated reduction in spiking probability relative to the baseline curve (blue) following the *reference* motor neurons' spikes. The *trough timing* was defined as the lag at which the minimum autocorrelation of the cross-histogram residuals relative to the baseline curve occurred. The bottom panels show the relationships between these features and their corresponding ground-truth physiological parameters in the simulations. Each point represents the mean feature value across motor neurons from a single simulation, and the solid lines show the corresponding linear regressions. **(B)** Example synchronization cross-histogram illustrating *peak height*, defined as the maximum positive amplitude of the *peak-and-trough* component of the fitted curve (red). The middle panel shows the relationship between *peak height* and the amplitude of the higher-frequency common input across simulations, where each point is the mean peak height across motor neurons from a single simulation. Colors indicate three conditions with different center frequency of the higher-frequency band (shown in the three insets). Linear regressions are shown for each of these three conditions, with the black dashed line indicating the regression across all conditions.

Recurrent inhibition as an intrinsic source of high-frequency synchrony

We used simulations to quantify cross-over effects between recurrent inhibition and the higher-frequency content of common input on the proxy features, i.e., *trough area*, *trough timing,* and *peak height*, as well as on the coherence spectrum of the cumulative spike trains. Using the in-silico model introduced above, we generated a dataset of 3,000 simulations by varying recurrent inhibition strength and the amplitude of higher-frequency content of the common input (fixed 15-35 Hz band). To compare simulations at similar discharge rates, we varied common input offset (baseline excitation) and retained simulations with mean firing rate between 8 and 12 Hz. We observed that simulations with different input parameters could yield similar outputs. To illustrate, we selected two simulations with opposite parameters, i.e., low recurrent inhibition with large higher-frequency common input amplitude *vs* high recurrent inhibition with low higher-frequency common input amplitude. Despite these opposing parameters, the resulting synchronization cross-histograms (R^2=0.79±0.20; Fig. 3A) and coherence spectra were closely matched (R^2=0.84±0.02; Fig. 3 B).

To explore this interaction further, we varied recurrent inhibition strength (three levels) and the Renshaw-mediated IPSP time constant (three levels) while supplying only low-frequency common input (0–5 Hz). Across these simulations, recurrent inhibition alone generated high-frequency synchrony, reflected as increased coherence at higher frequencies. Specifically, the IPSP time constant set the dominant frequency of the coherence spectrum, whereas recurrent inhibition strength scaled the amplitude of the coherence (Fig. 3C). We then introduced a broadband common input (0–60 Hz at fixed amplitude) to examine the interaction between recurrent inhibition and common input. We ran nine scenarios: no recurrent inhibition, plus two inhibition strength × 4 IPSP time constants. Recurrent inhibition behaved like a frequency-selective filter, i.e., it amplified oscillations near its intrinsic frequency, increasing coherence at 15–35 Hz and the cross-histogram *peak height* (short-timescale synchrony), and suppressed slower fluctuations, reducing coherence below ~15 Hz (Fig. 3D). In other words, recurrent inhibition amplifies input fluctuations that align with the recurrent loop's intrinsic dynamics and suppresses slower fluctuations.

Overall, these simulations show that, even under simplified conditions, different combinations of recurrent inhibition and higher-frequency common input amplitude can generate similar synchronization cross-histograms and coherence spectra. Disentangling the contribution of each mechanism from these features is therefore an ill-posed problem where multiple physiological parameter sets can account for the same observation. Such indeterminacy is common in neuroscience (Prinz et al., 2004). To address this challenge, models can be used to constrain the

set of solutions compatible with the experimental data. Simulation-based inference provides a principled Bayesian framework for this purpose (Cranmer et al., 2020) and has been successfully applied in neuroscience (Deistler et al., 2022; Gonçalves et al., 2020; Lueckmann et al., 2017; Tolley et al., 2024). In the current study, we implemented and validated a simulation-based inference workflow to infer plausible distributions of recurrent inhibition strength and higher-frequency common input amplitude from experimentally observable features, as detailed in the section below.

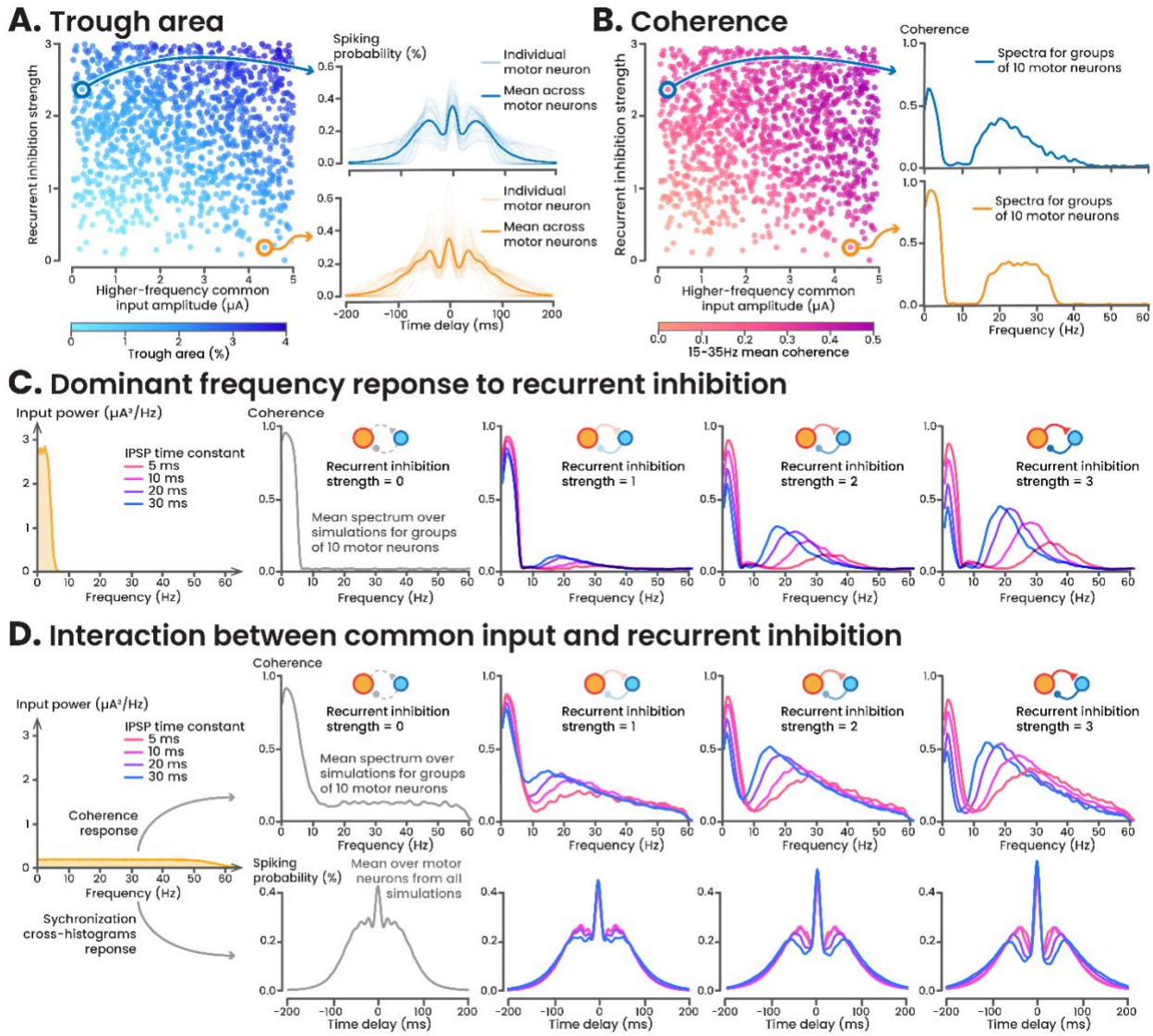

Figure 3. Interaction between common input and recurrent inhibition on synchronization cross-histogram features. (A) The scatterplot shows the trough area (color-coded) for different combinations of higher-frequency common input amplitude (x-axis) and recurrent inhibition strength (y-axis) across simulations. Each point corresponds to one simulation of 30 motor neurons. Synchronization cross-histograms are shown for two example simulations, where low-opacity lines represent each of the 30 simulated individual motor neurons and the high-opacity line represents their average. This example illustrates that two different combinations of higher-frequency common input amplitude and recurrent inhibition strength can produce similar synchronization cross-histograms. **(B)** Same layout as in panel A, with color coding representing the mean coherence in the 15-35 Hz bandwidth between two groups of 10 motor neurons. The coherence spectra are shown for the same two example simulations as

in panel A. **(C)** Effect of recurrent inhibition on coherence when only low-frequency common input and independent noise are delivered to the motor neuron pool. The left panel shows the power spectrum of the low-frequency common input (0–5 Hz) delivered to the pool, with the remaining four panels showing the mean coherence between groups of 10 motor neurons for different inhibitory post synaptic potential (IPSP) time constants (colors) and increasing recurrent inhibition strength (from left to right). **(D)** Effect of recurrent inhibition strength in the presence of broad-band common input. The left panel shows the power spectrum of the common input (0–50 Hz) delivered to the pool, with total input power matched to panel C. The top row shows mean coherence between groups of 10 motor neurons for different IPSP time constants (colors) and increasing recurrent inhibition strength (left to right). The bottom row shows the corresponding synchronization cross-histograms for the same simulations.

Simulation-based inference to quantify recurrent inhibition

To dissociate the effects of recurrent inhibition from those of higher-frequency common inputs on synchronization cross-histogram features, we used simulation-based inference with our in-silico model as the simulator. First, we defined ranges for five physiological parameters: (1) baseline excitation (common input offset), (2) recurrent inhibition strength, (3) amplitude of the higher-frequency component of the common input, along with its frequency band described by (4) its central frequency and (5) its half-width. These ranges defined the *priors* and were chosen so that simulated observations covered the range of experimental observations (Methods). All other parameters were held constant across simulations. Second, we sampled sets of parameters from these priors and generated simulated spike trains (12,000 simulations for single motor neuron pools and 20,000 simulations for pairs of synergistic motor neuron pools – see Methods). From each simulation we computed four observables: the three cross-histogram features (*trough area*, *trough timing*, *peak height*) and the mean firing rate. This provided a large training dataset consisting of pairs of parameter sets and their corresponding observed features. Third, we trained a neural density estimator (a neural network that outputs probability distributions) on this dataset to learn a probabilistic map between parameters and observed features. The map can then be inverted to infer which physiological parameter values are compatible with a given set of observed features. Finally, we fed summary statistics (mean, median, standard deviation, interquartile range) of experimentally-observed features into the trained neural density estimator, yielding a *posterior* distribution over physiological parameter combinations (see the next section for the experimental results). In other words, the estimator returned combinations of parameters (baseline excitation, recurrent inhibition strength, higher-frequency common input amplitude and frequency) that can explain the experimentally observed features (*trough area*, *trough timing*, *peak height*, mean firing rate), with quantified uncertainty (Fig 4A; Methods). As recommended in the literature, we validated this pipeline on simulated data with known ground truth and on experimental data (Deistler et al., 2025; Tolley et al., 2024).

We first evaluated the density estimator on simulated data held out from training (10% of the dataset). This provided an upper bound on performance under correct model specifications, as the held-out data were generated by the same model as that used to train the neural density estimator (Supplementary Fig. S1). Specifically, for each of the five [0,1]-normalized physiological parameters, we quantified the estimator's *accuracy* (how well it recovers the ground truth) and its *calibration* (whether its *posteriors* are over- or under-confident). For accuracy, we computed the root mean square error (RMSE) and Pearson's correlation coefficient between a parameter's ground truth values and its *posterior* modes (highest-probability values according to the *posterior*) across all simulations (Supplementary Fig. S1A). When considering baseline excitation, recurrent inhibition strength, and higher-frequency common input amplitude, this yielded low error levels

(RMSE ≤ 0.124 compared with RMSE ≅ 0.41 expected from *prior*; r ≥ 0.90 compared with r = 0 expected from *prior*). However, when considering the frequency band center and half-width, the accuracy was low (RMSE ≥ 0.33; r ≈ 0). Calibration was assessed using a coverage curve. We incrementally increased the nominal highest-*posterior*-density mass from 0 to 100% and, at each step, measured the proportion of held-out ground-truth values that fell within the corresponding highest-posterior-density interval (Methods). A perfect calibration would follow the identity line. Our curves were slightly below this line, indicating mild overconfidence, but overall calibration remained strong (mean calibration error ≤ 3.9% for all parameters; supplementary Fig. S1B). Together, these analyses performed on simulated data demonstrate that while detailed frequency content could not be recovered accurately using our approach, the parameters most relevant to our research question, including recurrent inhibition strength, are estimated accurately with well-quantified uncertainty.

We further tested the accuracy of our approach with *posterior* predictive checks on the experimental dataset (six male participants, six muscles, and two intensities). For each muscle × intensity combination (hereafter "condition"), we used the neural density estimator trained on simulated data to infer a *posterior* distribution over the physiological parameters, i.e., baseline excitation, recurrent inhibition strength, higher-frequency common input amplitude, central frequency and frequency band half-width. Then, we sampled 100 parameter sets from this *posterior* distribution, and we used those parameter sets to simulate motor neuron spike trains, leading to 1600 *posterior*-predictive simulations ([6 muscles + 2 synergist pairs] × 2 intensities × 100). From these spike trains, we constructed synchronization cross-histograms, extracted three features (*trough area*, *peak height, trough timing*), added the mean firing rate as a fourth feature, and computed the mean of each feature across motor neurons for every simulation. This yielded a distribution of *posterior*-predicted feature means for each condition. We standardized each feature to the experimental data so that an RMSE of 1 corresponds to an average prediction error equal to one standard deviation of the experimental values for that feature. We then compared, for each condition, the mean of the *posterior*-predicted distribution of feature means with the experimentally observed feature mean (Fig. 4B). Accuracy was very good for mean firing rate (RMSE=0.32), moderate for *peak height* (RMSE=0.73) and *trough timing* (RMSE=0.76), and poor for *trough area* (RMSE=1.41). However, errors were mostly due to systematic bias of the *posterior* predictions (overestimation of *trough area* and underestimation of *trough timing*), whereas the relative difference across conditions was well preserved. This is reflected in the high correlation coefficients between experimental and *posterior*-predicted feature means across conditions (mean firing rate: r=0.97, *trough area*: r=0.76; *peak height*: r=0.68; *trough timing*: r=0.85), indicating that the estimator reliably captures between-condition differences even when absolute levels are biased.

In summary, these validation checks support the validity of the simulation-based inference pipeline: it recovered key parameters on held-out simulations with good calibration, and *posterior* predictions qualitatively reproduced the pattern of experimental features across conditions. We therefore used this approach to map homonymous and heteronymous recurrent inhibition in human spinal motor neurons innervating different muscles.

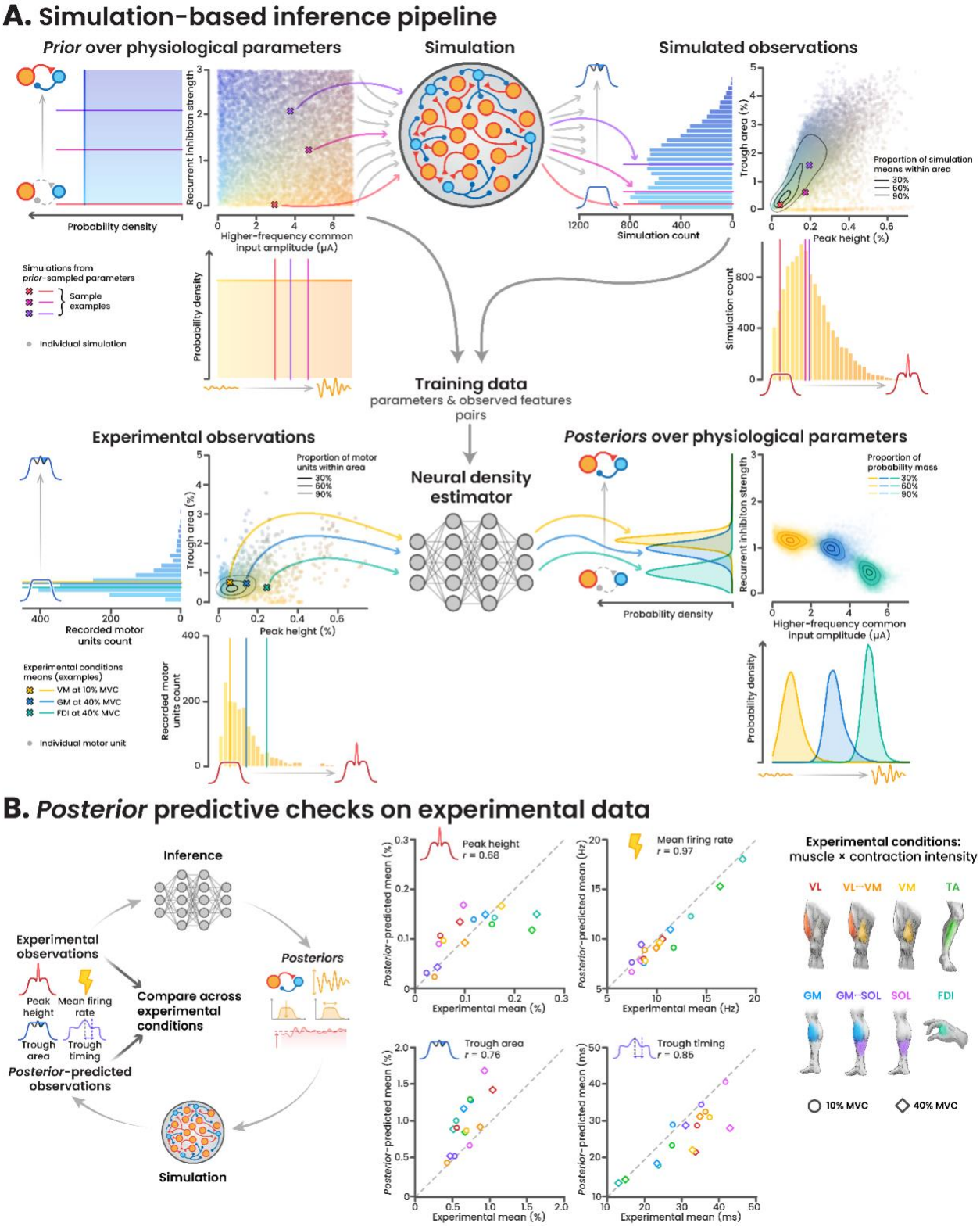

Figure 4. Simulation-based inference pipeline and validation. (A) Physiological parameters were sampled from their *prior* distributions (top left panels). The scatterplot shows the 12,000 *prior* draws used for single-pool simulations, projected onto two parameters of interest (recurrent inhibition strength and higher-frequency common input amplitude), with the marginal density plots showing the individual *priors* of the two parameters separately. Each parameter set was used in our simulation model to generate motor-neuron spike trains, from which observable

features were extracted (only *trough area* and *peak height* are shown; top right panels). In the upper plots, three example parameter combinations are shown in three different colors. The 12,000 parameter–feature pairs were then used to train a neural density estimator that learns the inverse mapping: given a set of features derived from experimental data, it returns a *posterior* distribution over the physiological parameters (bottom panels). In the experimental observations (bottom left), each point on the scatterplot represents a motor unit (all participants depicted), with colored crosses indicating the mean feature values for three example muscle × contraction intensity conditions (VM: Vastus Medialis; GM: Gastrocnemius Medialis; FDI: First Dorsal Interosseous). For each experimental condition, the trained density estimator used the summary statistics of all four features and returned a *posterior* over physiological parameters. The 2D density plot (bottom right) shows the joint *posterior* over recurrent inhibition strength and higher-frequency common input amplitude for the three example conditions, with the marginal density plots showing the corresponding *posteriors* for each of these two parameters separately. **(B)** *Posterior* predictive checks on experimental data. The schematic on the left summarizes the procedure. For each experimental condition (muscle × contraction intensity), the experimentally observed features were fed into the trained neural density estimator, which returned the corresponding *posteriors* over physiological parameters. We then used these inferred parameters in simulations to assess how well they reproduced the experimentally observed features. Specifically, 100 parameter sets were sampled from the inferred *posterior* and used in our simulation model to generate spike trains, from which observable features were extracted. For every condition and feature, we averaged across the 100 simulations to obtain a *posterior*-predicted mean feature value. Each of the four panels in the middle shows, for one feature, the relationship between the experimental mean (x-axis) and the corresponding posterior-predicted mean (y-axis) across all conditions. Each marker represents a different condition, with color indicating muscle and marker shape indicating contraction intensity (circle: 10% MVC; diamond: 40% MVC; legend on the right).

Experimental data

After excluding 16 motor units (<1% of the total) for poor synchronization cross-histogram fits or low spike counts (Methods), we retained 1669 unique motor units over the six participants, with an average of 109±76 motor units per muscle and contraction intensity (range: 27 for VM at 40% MVC to 254 for GM at 40% MVC). The full dataset (raw signals and motor unit spike trains) is available at: https://figshare.com/s/c4da3eb57c88a9b07ddc.

Using spike trains recorded over 200 s per participant, we constructed synchronization cross-histograms for each motor unit, fitted them with the composite curve (R^2=0.99±0.02), and extracted the features used for inference, i.e., mean firing rate, *trough area*, *trough timing*, and *peak height*. The simulation-based inferences used summary statistics of these feature distributions, aggregated across all motor units from all participants for each condition (muscle × intensity). Note that the approach is readily applicable at the single-participant level. Here, we pooled data across participants to obtain more generalizable comparative inferences. We focused on two physiological parameters: recurrent inhibition strength and higher-frequency common input amplitude. For each condition, Fig. 5A shows the *posterior* distribution of each physiological parameter (marginal *posteriors*) as well as their joint *posterior* distribution. We report between-condition contrasts as pΔ, defined as the *posterior* probability that the specified inequality (e.g., A>B) is true (Fig. 5B). Thus, "A>B: pΔ=0.9" indicates a 90% probability that A exceeds B. When reporting heteronymous recurrent inhibition between synergist muscles, we use a single bidirectional notation (VL↔VM and GM↔SOL), because the directional posteriors (VL→VM vs. VM→VL; GM→SOL vs. SOL→GM) were nearly identical (Methods).

In agreement with previous observations that recurrent inhibition is low or absent in intrinsic hand muscles (Edgley et al., 2021; Katz & Pierrot-Deseilligny, 1999), homonymous recurrent inhibition was lowest in FDI at 10% MVC, with high probability of being lower than in the calf muscles (FDI<GM: pΔ=0.97; FDI<SOL: pΔ=0.99). At this contraction intensity, the lower leg muscles

showed the highest recurrent inhibition strength overall, with GM, TA, and SOL likely higher than VL and VM (all $p\Delta \geq 0.75$). Heteronymous recurrent inhibition(i.e.,, between synergist muscles) consistently had a high probability of being lower than homonymous recurrent inhibition (all $p\Delta \geq 0.97$).

When contraction intensity increased from 10% MVC to 40% MVC, recurrent inhibition changed in a muscle-specific manner. Consistent with reports that recurrent inhibition decreases as force increases (Grosprêtre et al., 2016; Hultborn & Pierrot-Deseilligny, 1979; Katz & Pierrot-Deseilligny, 1999), there was a high probability of reduced homonymous recurrent inhibition strength in GM, TA, and FDI (all $p\Delta \geq 0.95$). By contrast, in the vastii, both homonymous and heteronymous recurrent inhibition increased (VL: $p\Delta=0.96$; VM: $p\Delta=0.83$; VM↔VL: $p\Delta=0.82$). Evidence for change in SOL and GM↔SOL was inconclusive. Consequently, at 40% MVC, GM, TA, and FDI had a high probability of exhibiting lower recurrent inhibition strength than VL and VM (all $p\Delta \geq 0.90$). In addition, GM↔SOL heteronymous recurrent inhibition had a high probability of being lower than homonymous inhibition in SOL, GM, VL, and VM (all $p\Delta \geq 0.95$), with no clear difference relative to FDI and TA. Finally, VL↔VM heteronymous recurrent inhibition at 40% MVC likely exceeded homonymous inhibition in FDI ($p\Delta=0.89$).

The amplitude of the higher-frequency common input was generally greater in TA and FDI than in the other muscles at both 10% and 40% MVC. At 10% MVC, TA and FDI values likely exceeded those of SOL, VM, and VL (all $p\Delta \geq 0.94$); at 40% MVC, they likely exceeded those of VL and GM (all $p\Delta \geq 0.97$). Across muscles, there was a high probability of an increase in the amplitude of higher-frequency common input from 10% MVC to 40% MVC (ranging from $p\Delta=0.77$ for VL up to $p\Delta \cong 1.00$ for FDI and TA).

Together, our results replicate well-established findings while adding key novel insight. Specifically, we showed muscle-specific changes in recurrent inhibition with increasing contraction intensity, leading to marked differences across muscles at 40% MVC: recurrent inhibition was overall greater in the vastii, and VL↔VM heteronymous inhibition exceeded homonymous recurrent inhibition in FDI and TA.

Finally, we conducted additional analyses to assess whether recurrent inhibition is homogeneously distributed within the motor neuron pool. Prior work suggests that recurrent inhibition depends on motor neuron size (Friedman et al., 1981; Hultborn, Katz, et al., 1988; Hultborn, Lipski, et al., 1988; Muceli et al., 2022), but direct confirmation in humans is lacking. Here, we leveraged our large-scale motor unit recordings to examine size-dependence in recurrent inhibition using a per-neuron proxy feature for *delivered* inhibition: the *trough area* computed at negative lags (*backward* in time) rather than positive lags. We made this choice to minimize confounding effects arising from intrinsic motor neuron properties. Indeed, lower-threshold motor neurons, having higher membrane resistance, are more sensitive to inhibitory inputs. Consequently, the *trough area* computed forward in time, as in the other analyses, can be larger in these neurons than in higher-threshold neurons, not because they receive greater inhibition, but because of their intrinsic properties. In contrast, the trough area assessed at negative lags reflects inhibition that a *comparison* motor neuron *delivers* to all other neurons. Because synchronization cross-histograms are averaged across many motor neurons, intrinsic property-dependent effects are cancelled out, allowing us to approximate the level of recurrent inhibition delivered by each *comparison* motor neuron as a function of its size. We report this analysis for the contractions performed at 40% of MVC where a broader range of motor neuron sizes is recruited. Within each muscle and participant, recruitment threshold (a proxy for motor neuron size) was positively related to

backward trough area at 40% MVC (R^2=0.38±0.19), with 20 out of 34 linear regressions reaching statistical significance (Fig. 5C). This indicates that higher-threshold (larger) neurons tend to induce more recurrent inhibition than lower-threshold (smaller) neurons.

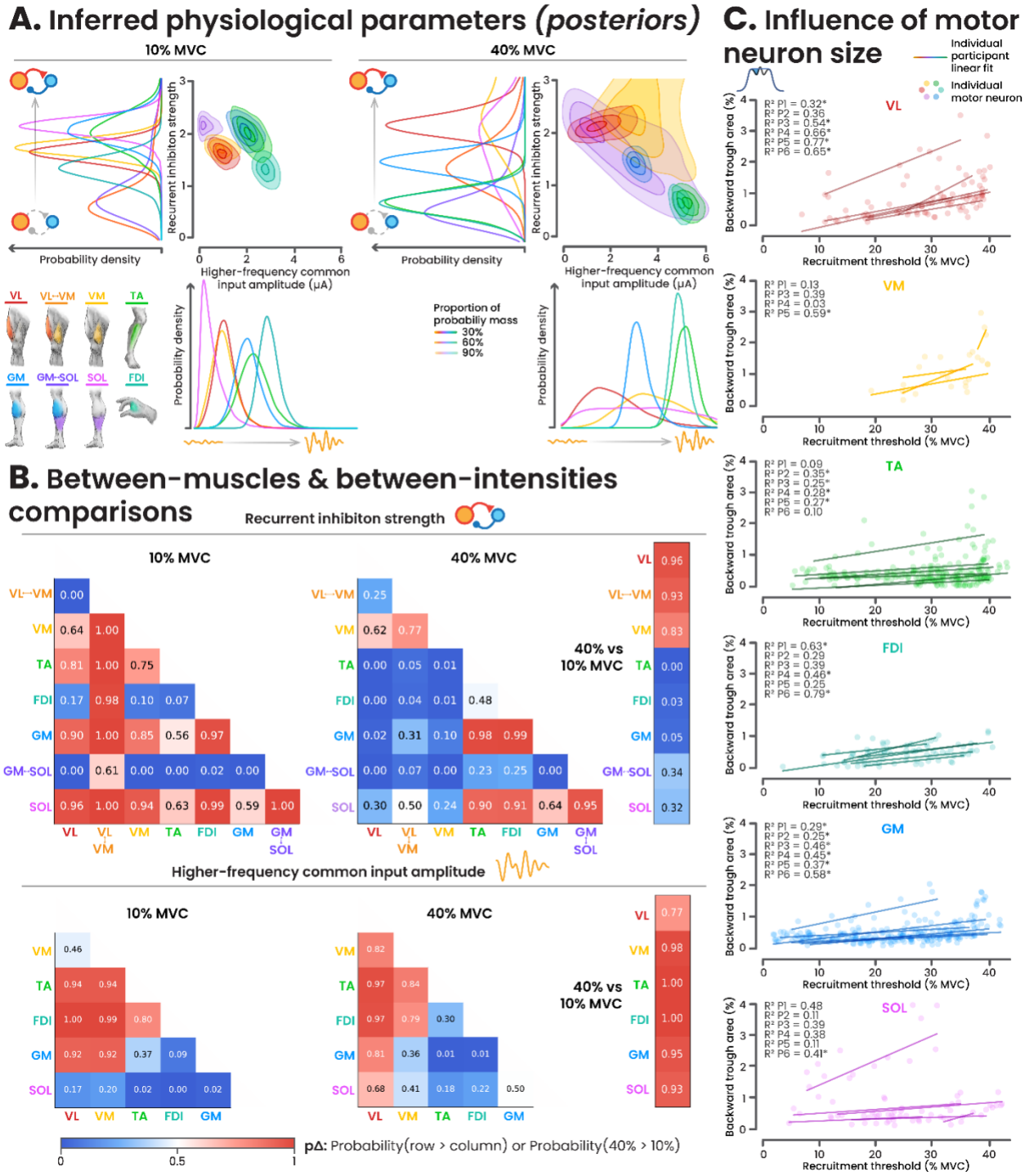

Figure 5. Simulation-based inference results. (A) *Posterior* distributions over recurrent inhibition strength and higher-frequency common input amplitude for each muscle or muscle pair at 10% (left) and 40% (right) of maximum voluntary contraction (MVC). The 2D density plots show the joint *posteriors* over these two parameters,

and the 1D density plots show the marginal *posteriors* for each parameter separately. Inference was performed for each muscle × contraction intensity condition using the summary statistics of all four observed features. Note that higher-frequency common input amplitude was inferred for individual muscles, so between-synergist conditions are absent from the corresponding marginal plots and from the joint plots. **(B)** Pairwise comparisons of the inferred *posteriors* for recurrent inhibition strength (top panels) and higher-frequency common input amplitude (bottom panels). On each matrix, the color scale shows the probability that the marginal *posterior* of the row muscle exceeds that of the column muscle for a given intensity (lower triangular matrices), or that the 40% MVC *posterior* exceeds the 10% MVC *posterior* for a given muscle (column vectors). **(C)** Scatterplots representing the backward *trough area* (proxy for *delivered* recurrent inhibition, as explained in the main text) as a function of recruitment threshold for contractions performed at 40% MVC. Each point represents individual motor neuron, and lines represents regressions fitted separately for each participant, with the corresponding R^2 values indicated. Asterisks mark regressions that were statistically significant ($p < 0.05$, Benjamini–Hochberg correction).

Discussion

Although Renshaw cell–mediated spinal recurrent inhibition was among the first spinal circuits to be described (Eccles et al., 1954; Renshaw, 1941), its functional role and regulation remain poorly understood. In humans, direct measurements are not feasible, and recurrent inhibition can only be inferred indirectly, with inherent limitations. In this study, we developed and validated an innovative framework that combines experimental data with simulation-based inference to estimate homonymous and heteronymous recurrent inhibition to motor unit spiking behavior across six muscles during isometric contractions at two force levels. While several of our findings are consistent with previous observations in humans and animal models, others reveal new insights that prompt a reconsideration how of recurrent inhibition differs across muscle groups and how it varies with contraction intensity.

We estimated recurrent inhibition from synchronization cross-histograms constructed from motor neuron spike trains. However, simulations revealed that these cross-histograms are also influenced by high-frequency components of the common synaptic input. To disentangle these effects, we developed a simulation-based inference framework (Cranmer et al., 2020; Gonçalves et al., 2020), in which a neural density estimator was trained on simulated data. Feeding the experimentally observed features into this model returned probability distributions over recurrent inhibition strength. In other words, this approach let us interpret the experimental data in a principled and testable manner, with all assumptions made explicit. Unlike stimulation paradigms (Bussel & Pierrot-Deseilligny, 1977; Grosprêtre et al., 2016; Hultborn & Pierrot-Deseilligny, 1979; Özyurt et al., 2019), our approach estimates recurrent inhibition from naturalistic behavior (voluntary contractions), and can be applied to any muscle from which motor unit spike trains can be identified.

To interpret our findings appropriately, several methodological considerations must be addressed. First, it is important to acknowledge the assumptions and level of abstraction underlying our model. Based on leaky integrate-and-fire neurons, the model reproduced realistic motor neuron activity while capturing the effects of recurrent inhibition and common input. It was intentionally minimal, excluding other spinal pathways and state-dependent nonlinearities such as those arising from persistent inward currents. We consider these omissions acceptable for modelling short, non-fatiguing submaximal isometric contractions at constant force, because proprioceptive feedback (Dimitriou, 2022; Macefield & Knellwolf, 2018) and history-dependent motor neuron behavior (Heckman et al., 2008; Mesquita et al., 2024) are expected to remain approximately stable under these conditions. Nevertheless, all inferences should be interpreted in the context of the model's scope and *priors*. Second, because motor unit decomposition deteriorates at higher activation levels, with lower motor unit yields, we limited intensity to 40% MVC. Consequently, our results should not be extrapolated to higher intensities. Third, the accuracy of synchronization cross-histogram features depends on spike count: lower motor neuron yields and shorter spike trains produce noisier estimates and increase inference uncertainty (notably in VM and SOL, Fig. 5A and B). We mitigated this limitation by analyzing long contractions (total of 200 s) and by using multiple electrode grids (up to 256 electrodes), which allowed us to identify a relatively large number of motor neurons (e.g., mean of 42 motor neurons per participant in GM at 40% MVC). Finally, we acknowledge that experimental data were obtained exclusively from male participants. This was primarily due to technical limitations, as we were unable to reliably decode a sufficient number of motor units from the vastii and soleus muscles in female participants (pilot data) to support the present analyses. Our validation analyses, together with the fact that we reproduced

well-established features of recurrent inhibition — including several observed directly in animal models — give us confidence that the aforementioned limitations do not substantially affect the interpretation of our results, as further detailed below.

Our results reveal a low level of recurrent inhibition in FDI, consistent with cross-species evidence that intrinsic hand muscles display little to no recurrent inhibition compared with proximal muscles (cat: Hahne et al., 1988; McCurdy & Hamm, 1992; human: Katz et al., 1993; Katz & Pierrot-Deseilligny, 1999; Mattei, Schmied, Mazzocchio, et al., 2003; primate: Edgley et al., 2021). Second, we observed a decrease in recurrent inhibition with contraction intensity in some lower-leg muscles, consistent with classic findings in humans (Grosprêtre et al., 2016; Hultborn & Pierrot-Deseilligny, 1979; Katz & Pierrot-Deseilligny, 1999). Direct recordings in reduced animal preparations also indicate that Renshaw cells saturate and exhibit short-term depression at higher stimulation frequencies, diminishing their inhibitory influence (Moore et al., 2015; Ross et al., 1976; Windhorst et al., 1988). Third, the trough timing we recovered (e.g., 33.6±13.3 ms for VL at 40% MVC) falls within the range reported previously (~20–40 ms; Kudina & Pantseva, 1988, p. 20032; Mattei, Schmied, & Vedel, 2003; Muceli et al., 2022; Özyurt et al., 2019). Fourth, size-dependent trends were observed in our data, consistent with direct measurements in animal (Friedman et al., 1981; Hultborn, Katz, et al., 1988; Hultborn, Lipski, et al., 1988) and indirect observations in humans (Muceli et al., 2022), indicating that larger motor neurons deliver stronger recurrent inhibition than smaller ones.

Beyond replicating classical results, our approach revealed new results that challenge long-held assumptions about recurrent inhibition. Specifically, unlike the classical pattern observed in lower-leg muscles, both homonymous and heteronymous recurrent inhibition increased in the vastii with contraction intensity. Of note, because Renshaw cells activity is driven by motor neuron axon collaterals, this increase in recurrent inhibition with force is the logical consequence of increased motor neuron firing rate. This, in turn, suggests a negligible contribution from independent pathways that regulate Renshaw cells activity. Conversely, the decrease in recurrent inhibition classically observed in other muscles, and confirmed in our data, likely reflects a supraspinal downregulation of Renshaw cells (Mazzocchio et al., 1994). Taken together, these results reveal fundamental differences in the neural control of distinct motor neuron pools: in some muscles (e.g., GM, TA, Fig. 5B and C), inhibition is reduced as excitatory drive increases (a "push-pull" scheme; Johnson et al., 2012), wherein others (e.g. VL, VM; Fig. 5A and B) inhibition is maintained or even increased in parallel with excitation (a "balanced excitation-inhibition" scheme; Berg et al., 2007, 2019). These control schemes, mediated in part by recurrent inhibition, may help explain the well-documented differences in motor unit behavior across motor pools and contraction intensities. For example, in some muscles such as the FDI, most motor units are recruited early during a ramp-up contraction, and force is primarily modulated through rate coding (Duchateau & Enoka, 2022; Inglis et al., 2025; Moritz et al., 2005). In contrast, in the VL muscle, force modulation is primarily achieved through motor unit recruitment, with only limited modulation of firing rate (Avrillon, Hug, Enoka, et al., 2024; Duchateau & Enoka, 2022; Inglis et al., 2025). This latter pattern is consistent with a balanced excitation-inhibition regime, in which increased excitation is accompanied by a parallel increase in inhibition (Kuhn et al., 2004; Petersen & Berg, 2016; Powers & Heckman, 2017; Vestergaard & Berg, 2015). Of note, if later recruited, larger neurons also exert stronger inhibitory influence on earlier-recruited smaller neurons, this rate-limiting effect should become even more pronounced. Our finding that recurrent inhibition in the VL and VM is stronger at 40% MVC than at 10% MVC supports the idea that these muscles operate closer to a balanced excitation-inhibition regime than the other muscles examined.

Between-muscle differences in recurrent inhibition patterns may also help explain variations in motor unit hysteresis and input-output nonlinearities. Because inhibition limits the amplification effect of persistent inward currents (Binder et al., 2020; Hultborn et al., 2003; Hyngstrom et al., 2008; Kuo et al., 2003; Revill & Fuglevand, 2017), the balanced excitation-inhibition pattern in vastii predicts smaller hysteresis and a flatter frequency-current curve compared with other muscles (Beauchamp et al., 2023; Chardon et al., 2024), particularly at higher contraction intensities, as confirmed by recent findings (Hug et al., 2025; Mesquita et al., 2024; Škarabot et al., 2025). In summary, our estimates of recurrent inhibition offer a plausible mechanism for the reported differences in motor unit behavior across muscles and raise important questions about the functional relevance of the distinct inhibition scheme observed in the vastii.

The knee extensors have a role in joint-protection that goes beyond generating knee extension torque. In particular, coordinated VL and VM activity ensures mediolateral tracking of the patella (Alessandro et al., 2018, 2020; Stephen et al., 2018), while quadriceps-hamstring co-contraction limits anterior tibial translation and reduces cruciate ligament loading (Li et al., 1999; Maniar et al., 2022; Withrow et al., 2006). We propose that these objectives are at least partly implemented by fast, low-level spinal circuits in which recurrent inhibition plays a key role. In addition to reducing agonist (homonymous) motor neuron activity, recurrent inhibition also increases antagonist activity by inhibiting Ia inhibitory interneurons (Alvarez & Fyffe, 2007; Hultborn, 1972; Hultborn et al., 1971; Katz & Pierrot-Deseilligny, 1984), which has led to the suggestion that recurrent inhibition may contribute to the control of joint stiffness (Windhorst, 1996). This interpretation fits within the framework that considers spinal circuitry as a predictive–comparator system (Brownstone et al., 2015; Ozyurt et al., 2025). Specifically, these latter studies suggest that alpha motor neurons act as comparators, integrating excitatory proprioceptive ("instructive") Ia input with a negative efference copy (the "predictive" inhibitory input) delivered by Renshaw cells to compute a local sensory prediction error. If this error term is defined over the full set of task objectives, including minimizing internal joint stress for example, recurrent inhibition may become an adaptive, rapid error-correction mechanism that can tune agonist (by inhibition) and antagonist (by disinhibition) motor neuron activity to regulate internal joint stress. Consistent with this idea, Renshaw cells are required for the behavioral expression of a learned association between a specific limb position and a noxious stimulus (Lavaud et al., 2024), where the relevant error can be viewed as the limb approaching a configuration associated with nociceptive input. Overall, the increase in homonymous and heteronymous recurrent inhibition we observed in the vastii at higher force levels may reflect a greater contribution of joint-protective control mechanisms implemented at the spinal level. This interpretation is further supported by reports of stronger recurrent inhibition during eccentric than during concentric or isometric contractions (Barrué-Belou et al., 2018; Colard et al., 2025; Glories & Duclay, 2023), conditions characterized by higher internal joint stress.

Beyond providing new physiological insights, this work introduces a framework for inferring recurrent inhibition from motor-unit activity during voluntary contractions, which was not achievable using existing approaches. The full pipeline, including the spiking network simulator, feature-extraction scripts, and trained neural density estimators, is openly available. Researchers can easily apply the current model to compatible datasets, where the observed features fall within the range of the simulated training data, or adapt it to new contexts (e.g., different muscles, tasks, clinical populations) or other spinal circuits, by modifying the simulation model and/or priors and running the simulation and training stages.

Methods

Simulation model

We simulated the spiking activity of motor neurons with varying recurrent inhibition and different characteristics of common synaptic inputs. To this end, we used a simulator for spiking neural networks (Brian 2; Stimberg et al., 2019) to implement our models in Python. The following section presents the main features of the simulation framework. The complete simulation code and full list of parameters are publicly available at:
https://github.com/FrancoisDernoncourt/Mapping_Recurrent_Inhibition

Motor neuron model

We modeled each motor neuron as a leaky integrate-and-fire neuron with a resting membrane potential and reset voltage V_{rest} = 0 mV, and a firing threshold V_{thresh} = 10 mV. The membrane potential change at each time step, $\frac{dv^i}{dt}$, was computed using Euler integration (time step dt = 0.1ms) according to the equation below:

$$\frac{dv^i}{dt} = \frac{-\left(I^i_{leak} + I^i_{AHP}\right) + S^i\left(I^i_{external}(t) + I^i_{synaptic}\right)}{C^i}$$

Where i denotes motor neuron index, C^i is membrane capacitance, S^i is an input scaling factor, I^i_{leak} is the motor neuron leak current, $I^i_{external}(t)$ is the net external input current (baseline input + common input + independent input), and $I^i_{synaptic}$ is the Renshaw-mediated inhibitory synaptic current. After a spike, v^i was reset to V_{rest}, an absolute 5 ms refractory period was enforced (v^i clamped at V_{rest}), and a decaying afterhyperpolarization I^i_{AHP} current was induced. Each current was calculated as follows:

- $I^i_{leak} = g^i_{leak}\left(v^i - V_{rest}\right)$ with g^i_{leak} being the leak conductance, calculated as $g^i_{leak} = \frac{1}{R^i}$, where R^i is the membrane resistance.
- $I^i_{AHP} = g^i_{AHP}\left(v^i - V_{AHP}\right)$ where g^i_{AHP} is the afterhyperpolarization conductance. This conductance increased by a fixed increment Δg_{AHP} (1 mS) at each spike and decayed over time according to $\frac{dg^i_{AHP}}{dt} = -\frac{g^i_{AHP}}{\tau^i_{AHP}}$. V_{AHP} was set to -13.3 mV, corresponding to the -90 mV potassium reversal potential under our convention V_{rest} = 0 mV and V_{thresh} = 10 mV.
- The net external input current was defined as $I^i_{external}(t) = max\left(I_{baseline} + I_{common}(t) + I^i_{independent}(t) - I^i_{rheobase}, 0\right)$, where $I_{baseline}$, $I_{common}(t)$ and $I^i_{independent}(t)$ represent the time-varying input currents either shared across the population of motor neurons or specific to the motor neuron (see *Inputs to the motor neurons*). The offset $I^i_{rheobase}$ represents the minimum input required for the depolarizing current to become non-zero.
- Each presynaptic Renshaw spike induced a fixed hyperpolarizing (-5 µA) jump $\Delta I_{synaptic}$ in $I^i_{synaptic}$, which was further scaled by the Renshaw cell-to-motor neuron synaptic weight. The

decay rate of this inhibitory current was governed by $\tau^i_{synaptic}$, which was either manually specified or set equal to the motor neuron's membrane time constant ($R^i \times C^i$). Thus, $I^i_{synaptic}$ evolved according to $\frac{dI^i_{synaptic}}{dt} = -\frac{I^i_{synaptic}}{\tau^i_{synaptic}}$.

Finally, all motor neuron-specific parameters (C^i, R^i, τ^i_{AHP}, $I^i_{rheobase}$) were computed from soma diameter D^i using the power-law relations proposed by Caillet et al. (2022), except in simulation scenarios where parameters were explicitly assigned. The input scaling S^i corresponds to the normalized membrane resistance and was set to $S^i = \frac{R^i}{R_{min}}$, where R_{min} is the membrane resistance for a soma diameter of 50 µm. Therefore, $S^i \cong 1$ for the smallest simulated motor neuron and decreased with increasing soma size. We simulated groups of 30 motor neurons with normally-distributed soma diameters (mean ± SD: 60±5 µm), consistent with smaller motor neurons (~50–70 µm; Manuel et al., 2019) typically recruited during submaximal contractions.

Simulated recurrent connectivity via Renshaw cells

Simulations included either a single group of motor neurons to model homonymous recurrent inhibition or two groups of motor neurons to model heteronymous recurrent inhibition between synergist muscles.

For a single simulated group of motor neurons, we instantiated $n_{Renshaw}$ = 10 Renshaw cells. A single *recurrent inhibition strength* parameter ($\mu_{disynaptic}$) controlled the target mean disynaptic connectivity of the motor neuron-to-motor neuron weight matrix ($\mathrm{W_{MN\rightarrow MN}}$). To achieve this, the mean monosynaptic connectivity of both the motor neuron-to-Renshaw cell ($\mathrm{W_{MN\rightarrow Renshaw}}$) and Renshaw cell-to-motor neuron ($\mathrm{W_{Renshaw\rightarrow MN}}$) weight matrices was set to the same value:

$$\mu_{\mathrm{monosynaptic}} = \sqrt{\frac{\mu_{disynaptic}}{n_{Renshaw}}}$$

Entries of $\mathrm{W_{MN\rightarrow Renshaw}}$ and $\mathrm{W_{Renshaw\rightarrow MN}}$ were sampled from a normal distribution with a mean of $\mu_{monosynaptic}$ and standard deviation of $\mu_{monosynaptic} \times 0.4$. The effective disynaptic weights were obtained as the matrix product of the two monosynaptic weight matrices:

$$\mathrm{W_{MN\rightarrow MN}} = \mathrm{W_{MN\rightarrow Renshaw}} \cdot \mathrm{W_{Renshaw\rightarrow MN}}$$

By construction the mean disynaptic connectivity between motor neurons was equal to the specified $\mu_{disynaptic}$ parameter, with a coefficient of variation of roughly ~20%.

We applied the same logic when two groups of motor neurons were simulated, by defining one $\mu_{disynaptic}$ parameter for each ordered pair of groups (A→A, B→B, A→B, B→A) and instantiating 10 Renshaw cells per pair. Each set of 10 Renshaw cells was exclusively associated with a specific pair, so that each pair had its own two monosynaptic weight matrices. For example, for the A→B pair, the first matrix encoded the connectivity from motor neuron group A to the set of Renshaw cells A→B, and the second matrix encoded the connectivity from the set of Renshaw cells A→B to the motor neuron group B. Although such a strictly modular organization is biologically implausible, it enabled complete control of between- and within-group inhibition and

thus approximated the experimentally-observed patterns of homonymous and heteronymous inhibition. Renshaw cells were modeled as leaky integrate-and-fire neurons $\frac{dv}{dt} = \frac{V_{Renshaw}(t)-v}{\tau_{Renshaw}}$, where $V_{Renshaw}(t)$ is the time-varying independent input to each Renshaw cell (specified as a voltage variation directly) and $\tau_{Renshaw}$ is the time constant, set to 8 ms (Maltenfort et al., 1998; Williams & Baker, 2009). Each Renshaw cell had a resting membrane potential and reset voltage of 0 mV, a firing threshold of 10 mV, and a refractory period of 5 ms. Each Renshaw cell's independent input $I_{Renshaw}(t)$ was modelled as a zero-mean, 50 Hz low-pass-filtered Gaussian noise with a standard deviation of 3.33 mV. In addition, each spike from a pre-synaptic motor neuron produced an instantaneous depolarization ΔV_{EPSP} of 6.7mV scaled by the motor neuron-to-Renshaw cell synaptic weight. Each spike from a Renshaw cell injected a decaying hyperpolarizing inhibitory current $\Delta I_{synaptic}$ of -5 µA into its postsynaptic target motor neurons, scaled by the Renshaw cell-to-motor neuron synaptic weight. Unless otherwise specified, the synaptic delay was set to 5 ms in both directions (motor neurons to Renshaw cells and Renshaw cells to motor neurons).

<u>Inputs to motor neurons</u>

The simulated motor neurons within each group received a combination of external time-varying input currents. For each motor neuron *i*, the net external input $I^{i}_{external}(t)$ consisted of three components: (i) a constant baseline excitatory current ($I_{baseline}$), (ii) a common time-varying input ($I_{common}(t)$) shared among motor neurons within the same group, and (iii) an independent input ($I^{i}_{independent}(t)$) specific to each motor neuron. The common input was constructed as the sum of two zero-mean, band-limited Gaussian-noise processes: a low-frequency component (0–5 Hz) with a fixed amplitude (in-band SD: 3.5 µA), and a higher-frequency component whose amplitude, center frequency and half-width varied across simulations. The independent input to each motor neuron was a zero-mean Gaussian-noise process, low-pass filtered at 80 Hz and scaled such that its total power was three times the 0–5 Hz in-band power of the common input (Farina & Negro, 2015).

In simulations involving two groups of motor neurons, the common input for each group was first generated independently. A Cholesky-based whitening–recoloring transform was then applied to impose a specified between-groups correlation $\rho(I^{A}_{common} \leftrightarrow I^{B}_{common})$, thereby controlling the proportion of shared input while preserving each group's common input amplitude. This step was important to simulate groups of motor neurons from anatomically defined synergist muscles, which are expected to share a certain level of common drive.

Parameter	Definition	Value
$\boldsymbol{T_{sim}}$	Simulation duration	100 s (fixed)
$\boldsymbol{dt}$	Integration time step	0.1 ms (fixed)
$\boldsymbol{n_{group}}$	Number of motor neuron groups	1 (within-muscle) or 2 (between-synergist-muscles)

n_{MN}	Number of motor neurons per group	30 (fixed)
V_{rest}	Resting potential	0 mV (fixed)
V_{thresh}	Firing threshold	10 mV (fixed)
$t_{refractory}$	Refractory period	5 ms (fixed)
$\mu(D)$	Mean soma diameter	60 µm (fixed)
$\sigma(D)$	Soma diameter standard deviation	5 µm (fixed)
R^i	Membrane resistance	Size-dependent
C^i	Membrane capacitance	Size-dependent
$I^i_{rheobase}$	Rheobase	Size-dependent
τ^i	Membrane time constant (= $R^i \times C^i$).	Size-dependent
S^i	Input scaling (normalized resistance)	Size-dependent
V_{AHP}	Afterhyperpolarization potential	-13.3 mV (fixed)
Δg_{AHP}	Spike-triggered afterhyperpolarization conductance	1 mS (fixed)
τ^i_{AHP}	Afterhyperpolarization time constant	Size-dependent
$n_{Renshaw}$	Number of Renshaw cells per pair of motor neuron groups	10 (fixed)
$\tau_{Renshaw}$	Renshaw cells time constant	8 ms (fixed)
ΔV_{EPSP}	Motor neurons post synaptic depolarization	6.7 mV (fixed)
$\Delta I_{synaptic}$	Renshaw cells post synaptic hyperpolarizing current	-5 µA (fixed)
$\tau^i_{synaptic}$	Post synaptic hyperpolarizing current time constant	Variable (Default: membrane time constant τ^i)
$t_{synaptic}$	Synaptic delay	Variable (Default: 5 ms)
$\mu_{disynaptic}$ or $\mu^{A\to A}_{disynaptic}$ $\mu^{A\to B}_{disynaptic}$ $\mu^{B\to B}_{disynaptic}$ $\mu^{B\to A}_{disynaptic}$	Mean motor neuron to motor neuron disynaptic connectivity (recurrent inhibition strength). One value per pair of motor neuron groups (1 if n_{group} = 1; 4 if n_{group} = 2)	Variable *Prior*: [0-3] (within-muscle); [0-2] (between-synergist-muscles)
$\sigma_{disynaptic}$	Standard deviation of motor neuron to motor neuron disynaptic connectivity (recurrent inhibition variability)	$0.4^2 \times \mu_{disynaptic}$ (fixed; 0.4 is $\sigma_{monosynaptic}$)
$\sigma(V_{Renshaw})$	Renshaw cells independent input amplitude	3.33 mV (fixed)
$f(V_{Renshaw})$	Renshaw cells independent input frequency range	0-50 Hz (fixed)
$I_{baseline}$	Baseline excitation (common input offset). One value per motor neuron group.	Variable *Prior*: [20-70] µA (within-muscle); [20-90] µA (between-synergist-muscles)
$f(I_{independent})$	Independent noise frequency range	0-80 Hz (fixed)
$\sigma(I_{independent})$	Independent noise amplitude (in-band standard deviation)	Calculated so that $power(I_{independent})_{0\text{-}80\ Hz} = 3 \times power(I_{common})_{0\text{-}5\ Hz}$ (fixed)
$f(I_{common,low})$	Low-frequency common input amplitude bandwidth	0-5 Hz (fixed)
$\sigma(I_{common,low})$	Low-frequency common input amplitude (in-band standard deviation)	3.5 µA (fixed)
f_{center}	Higher-frequency common input amplitude center frequency. One value per motor neuron group.	Variable *Prior*: [2.5-75] Hz (within-muscle)

$f_{half-width}$	Higher-frequency common input amplitude half-bandwidth. One value per motor neuron group.	Variable *Prior*: [2.5-25] Hz (within-muscle)
$\sigma(I_{common,high})$	Higher-frequency common input amplitude (in-band standard deviation). One value per motor neuron group.	Variable *Prior*: [0-7] µA (within-muscle)
$\rho(I^{A}_{common} \leftrightarrow I^{B}_{common})$	Between-group common input correlation (only if number of simulated groups n_{group} = 2)	Variable *Prior*: [0-1] (between-synergist-muscles)

Table 1. Simulation parameters.

Synchronization cross-histograms and their features

Constructing and interpreting the synchronization cross-histograms

We computed count-normalized synchronization cross-histograms for each motor neuron (experimental or simulated) from the *inhibition-receiver* perspective. For each neuron of interest (the *comparison* neuron), all other neurons from the homonymous pool or from a heteronymous pool served as *reference* neurons. For every spike of a *reference* neuron, we identified the closest preceding and closest following spike of the *comparison* neuron within a ±200 ms window. The corresponding delays were binned at the recording resolution (1/2048 s) to generate a pairwise cross-histogram for each *comparison-reference* pair. Each histogram was normalized to form a probability distribution (summing to 1), and these were then averaged across all *reference* neurons to yield one synchronization cross-histogram per *comparison* neuron. To suppress high-frequency noise arising from finite spike counts, each averaged distribution was convolved (zero-phase) with a normalized 16.7 ms Hanning window. The resulting smoothed synchronization cross-histogram represents the conditional probability of the neuron firing as a function of time relative to spikes from any *reference* neuron.

We pooled data across *reference* neurons to increase sample size and thereby obtain more accurate estimates. We also adopted the *inhibition-receiver* perspective, in which the motor neuron of interest is the *comparison* neuron, receiving inhibition from all *reference* neurons, rather than the *inhibition-sender* perspective in which the motor neuron of interest is the *reference* neuron, delivering inhibition to all *comparison* neurons. Although both perspectives are valid, we preferred the *inhibition-receiver* perspective because it reduced firing-rate–dependent bias at the pool level. With the *inhibition-receiver* perspective, cross-histogram width is influenced primarily by the *comparison* neuron's own mean discharge rate, creating neuron-to-neuron variability within a pool. By contrast, the *inhibition-sender* perspective ties cross-histogram width to the pool's average firing rate, so histograms from a given pool/simulation tend to share similar widths. Because our simulation-based inferences relied on pool-level summary statistics, the *inhibition-receiver* perspective yielded per-simulation summaries that more faithfully captured the diversity observed in the experimental data. Importantly, we verified that both perspectives resulted in qualitatively similar values for the *trough area*, *trough timing* and *peak height* features.

When constructing heteronymous synchronization cross-histograms, i.e., when the comparison motor neuron belonged to a different pool than the reference motor neurons, we selected the direction that maximized spike count per histogram. For example, because more motor units were identified in VL than in VM, using VM as the *comparison* pool and VL as the *reference* pool

yielded higher per-histogram counts, and thus more reliable estimates than the converse. For the triceps surae, SOL served as the *comparison* pool and GM as the *reference* pool.

Curve-fitting

Each synchronization cross-histogram was fitted using a two-components model: (1) a *baseline* curve $Baseline(t)$ representing the expected firing probability of a *comparison* neuron relative to the *reference* neurons' spikes in the absence of recurrent inhibition and common input, and (2) a *peak-and-troughs* curve $Peak\&Troughs(t)$ capturing the central peak and surrounding troughs. The baseline was modeled as the sum of two mirrored generalized logistic functions, $G_{L1}(t)$ and $G_{L2}(t)$, allowing flexible fitting of symmetric probability distributions with rising, plateau, and falling phases:

$$G_{L1}(t) = \left[1 + \nu \times e^{-\alpha(t-\mu_{base})}\right]^{-\frac{1}{\nu}}, \quad G_{L2}(t) = G_{L1}(-t) - 1$$
$$Baseline(t) = A_{base} \times [G_{L1}(t) + G_{L2}(t)] + O_{base}$$

The *baseline* component included five free parameters: α, controlling the steepness of the transitions to and from the plateau; μ_{base}, determining the horizontal centers of the logistic curves; ν, shaping the curve's skew; A_{base}, scaling the amplitude; and O_{base}, providing a vertical offset.

The residual *peak-and-troughs* component was modeled by a Mexican-hat wavelet $M_H(\mathrm{t})$ multiplied by a unit-height Gaussian $\mathcal{N}$, as follows:

$$M_H(\mathrm{t}) = A_{MH} \times \left[1 - \frac{(t-\mu_{MH})^2}{(\sigma_{MH})^2}\right] \times \exp\left(-\frac{(t-\mu_{MH})^2}{\tau^2}\right)$$
$$Peak\&Troughs(t) = [M_H(t) + O_{MH}] \times \mathcal{N}(\sigma_{Gauss})$$

This component introduced six additional free parameters: A_{MH}, σ_{MH}, τ, which respectively defined the amplitude, the zero-crossing of the wavelet side lobes, and the decay rate of the Mexican-hat curve; μ_{MH}, controlling the horizontal shift of both the Mexican-hat and Gaussian; σ_{Gauss}, the width of the Gaussian (Gaussian center fixed at 0); and O_{MH}, a vertical offset.

To let the *baseline* component capture most of the variance and to improve fitting convergence, we sequentially and iteratively fitted $Baseline(t)$ and $Peak\&Troughs(t)$ using alternating least-squares optimization (SciPy, Virtanen et al., 2020), holding one component constant while fitting the other. To aid intuition, we provide a Desmos-based interactive graph where each parameter can be swept to visualize its effect on the composite curve: https://www.desmos.com/calculator/9g8wis8xaa?lang=fr.

To ensure robust estimates, we discarded synchronization cross-histograms from analysis if any of the following rejection criteria were met: (1) fewer than 5,000 total spikes (experimental data) or 10,000 spikes (simulated data), (2) $R^2<0.1$ for the *baseline* component fit, or (3) $R^2<0.75$ for the composite fit. In practice, the composite fit was excellent for the vast majority of synchronization cross-histograms after exclusion (simulated data: $R^2 = 0.97\pm0.04$; experimental data: $R^2 = 0.99\pm0.02$).

Feature extraction

From each fitted synchronization cross-histogram, we extracted three observable features:

- *Trough area*, defined as the integral of the negative residuals (histogram minus *baseline* curve) within a predefined analysis window (see below), expressed as a percentage of total probability

mass. This feature quantifies the reduction in firing probability of the *comparison* neuron relative to the baseline expectation.

- *Trough timing*, defined as the time lag with minimum autocorrelation of the residuals computed within the same analysis window as for the trough area. This feature summarizes the temporal aspect of the histogram's troughs.
- *Peak height*, defined as the maximum value of the fitted *peak-and-troughs* curve, expressed as a probability percentage. This feature serves as a proxy for short-timescale synchrony, reflecting the higher-frequency component of the common input.

We defined the window of analysis used for the *trough area* and *trough timing* features by fitting a trapezoid to the *baseline* curve. The trapezoidal function was a piece-wise linear function, with flat outer segments at 0, a linear rise, a plateau, and a linear fall. The analysis window was defined as the post-*reference*-spike time corresponding to the plateau of the trapezoid (i.e., $0 < t <$ start of the falling edge). When computing the *trough area* backwards in time, the analysis window was shifted to the plateau's pre-*reference*-spike interval (i.e. end of the rising edge $< t < 0$).

Other data analyses

Coherence spectrum

To assess the influence of recurrent inhibition and common input shape on the correlated activity of motor neurons in the frequency domain, we computed magnitude-squared coherence between cumulative spike trains built from simulated motor neuron activity. For each simulation, two non-overlapping random subsets of N motor neurons were repeatedly drawn (without replacement), and two cumulative spike trains were constructed by summing the binary spike trains within each subset. The subset size N varied from 1 up to half of the available motor neurons (here, $N \leq 15$). To keep computation time manageable, we used more iterations for smaller N (100 at $N = 1$) and progressively fewer as N increased. Coherence between two mean-centered cumulative spike trains x and y at each frequency f was estimated with Welch's method using 1-s Hann windows and 50% segment overlap:

$$\mathrm{Coh}_{xy}(f) = \frac{|\, S_{xy}(f) \,|^2}{S_{xx}(f)\, S_{yy}(f)}$$

where S_{xy} is the cross power-spectrum and S_{xx}, S_{yy} are auto power-spectra (all averaged over segments). For each N, coherence curves were averaged over random draws.

Recruitment thresholds

We estimated the recruitment threshold of each motor neuron during the ramp-up phases of the contractions. Only valid ramps were included, defined as those in which at least 50% of samples in a 7s pre-plateau window had a z-scored derivative of the 1-Hz low-pass filtered torque exceeding 0.05. For each valid ramp, the recruitment threshold was defined as the relative torque at the time of the first spike in the earliest sequence of five consecutive spikes occurring within 1 s. For each motor neuron, values were averaged across all valid ramps to obtain a single estimate.

Experimental study

Participants and ethical approval

Six physically active males (age: 29.7±8.0 years, height: 177.7±3.4 cm, body mass: 73.7±5.4 kg) participated in four distinct experiments involving isometric tasks: knee extension, plantarflexion, dorsiflexion or finger pinch. The study procedures were approved by the ethics committee (CPP Ouest III; 23.00453.000166) and conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki, except for registration in a database. All participants were fully informed of the potential risks and discomforts associated before providing written informed consent.

Procedures

Each participant performed four distinct experiments on separate days. For the *knee extension* experiment, participants were seated on a dynamometer (Biodex System 3 Pro, Biodex Medical, USA) with the hips and right leg flexed at 80° (0° being the neutral position). For the *plantarflexion* experiment, participants sat on the same dynamometer with their hips flexed at 80° and their right leg fully extended. For the *dorsiflexion* experiment, participants were seated in a custom-built chair connected to an ankle ergometer (DinamometroGC, OT Bioelettronica, Torino, Italia). The right foot was securely attached to the footplate with the leg fully extended and the hips flexed at 80°. For both the plantarflexion and dorsiflexion tasks, the foot was placed perpendicular to the shank. For these three experiments, inextensible straps were tightened to immobilize the torso, pelvis, and thighs on the test side. For the *pinch* experiment, participants held a dynamometer (Cor2, OT Bioelettronica, Torino, Italia) between the radial side of the index finger and the thumb.

In each experiment, the session began with a standardized warm up, followed by three maximal voluntary contractions (MVC) for 3 s, with 60 s of rest in between. Peak MVC force was considered as the maximal value obtained from a moving average window of 250 ms. Participants then performed 10 trapezoidal isometric contractions, each consisting of a 5-s ramp followed by a 20-s plateau at 10% MVC, with 30-s of rest between contractions. This was followed by 20 trapezoidal isometric contractions, each with a 5-s ramp and 10-s plateau at 40% MVC, with at least 30-s of rest in between. We instructed the participants to follow the ramp on the first five contractions only. This large number of contractions ensured the acquisition of sufficient motor unit firings to allow for a robust assessment of recurrent inhibition.

Surface electromyography recordings

EMG signals were recorded using adhesive grids of 64 electrodes, with an inter-electrode distance (IED) of 8 mm or 4 mm (GR08MM1305 or GR04MM1305, OT Bioelettronica, Italy). In the *knee extension* experiment, four grids (8-mm IED) were placed over the vastus lateralis (VL), and two grids (4-mm IED) were placed over the vastus medialis (VM). In the *plantarflexion* experiment, four grids (4-mm IED) were placed over the Gastrocnemius medialis (GM), and two grids (4-mm IED) were placed over Soleus (SOL), targeting its medial and lateral portion. In the *dorsiflexion* experiment, four grids (4-mm IED) were placed over the Tibialis anterior (TA). Finally, in the *pinch* experiment, one grid (4-mm IED) was placed over the first dorsal interosseous (FDI) muscle. When possible, multiple grids were placed over the same muscle to maximize the number of decomposed motor units (Caillet et al., 2023).

Prior to electrode placement, the skin was shaved and cleaned with an abrasive paste (Nuprep, Weaver and Company, USA). The adhesive grids were secured with double-sided adhesive foam layers (SpesMedica, Battipaglia, Italy). The skin-electrode contact was made by filling the cavities of the adhesive layers with conductive paste (SpesMedica, Battipaglia, Italy). A reference electrode (5×5 cm; Kendall Medi-Trace; Covidien, Ireland) was placed over a bony prominence

(tibia, patella, or wrist), and a strap electrode dampened with water (ground electrode) was placed around the left ankle or the wrist. The EMG signals were recorded in a monopolar montage, bandpass filtered (10–500 Hz), and digitized at a sampling rate of 2048 Hz using a multichannel acquisition system (EMG-Quattrocento; 400-channel EMG amplifier; OT Biolelettronica, Italy).

Decoding of motor unit firing activity

The EMG signals were decomposed using convolutive blind source separation (Negro et al., 2016), as implemented in the MUedit software (Avrillon, Hug, Baker, et al., 2024). Prior to automatic decomposition, all channels were visually inspected, and those with low signal-to-noise ratio or artifacts were discarded. The remaining EMG signals were extended and whitened, after which fast independent component analysis was performed to retrieve the motor unit spike trains. The resulting spike trains were manually edited according to established procedures (Del Vecchio et al., 2020). Manual editing involved removing detected peaks that result in erroneous firing rates (outliers) and adding missed firing times that are clearly distinguishable from the noise. The motor unit pulse trains were ultimately recalculated with updated separation vectors and accepted by the operator once all the putative firing times were selected. This procedure was demonstrated to be highly reliable across operators (Hug et al., 2021).

Decomposition was performed independently for each electrode grid. Because the same motor units could be identified across multiple grids covering the same muscle, duplicate units were detected by comparing their spike trains. Firing times that occurred within 0.5 ms interval were considered as common between motor units; and motor units that shared more than 30% of their firing times were considered as duplicates (Holobar et al., 2010; Avrillon et al., 2024). When duplicated motor units were identified, only the motor unit with the lowest coefficient of variation of its inter-spike intervals was retained.

Prior to analyses, the spike trains were realigned based on the onset of their average motor unit action potential (MUAP). The average MUAP shape was calculated using spike-trigger averaging, and its onset was defined as the time at which it first crossed a threshold set at six standard deviations from the baseline (Ibáñez et al., 2021).

Simulation-based inference

We performed simulation-based inference using the sbi Python toolbox (Tejero-Cantero et al., 2020) with sequential neural posterior estimation (SNPE; Gonçalves et al., 2020) to infer physiological parameters from observed features derived from motor neuron spiking activity. This approach involved the following steps: (1) specifying *priors* over a subset of parameters relevant to our research question, (2) simulating spike trains with our mechanistic simulation model, (3) reducing the output of each simulation to a set of summary statistics derived from observable features, and (4) training a neural density estimator to approximate the *posterior* distribution (i.e. the probability of parameter values given the observed features). This framework was validated from both experimental and simulated data.

Observable features and inferred parameters

Each simulated and experimentally recorded motor unit spike train was reduced to four observable features: *trough area*, *trough timing*, *peak height*, and mean firing rate. Note that the inference procedure was applied independently for each muscle and contraction intensity, at the level of the group of identified motor neurons. Specifically, motor units were pooled across participants, and each observable feature was characterized by its mean, median, standard deviation, and interquartile range. These summaries yielded a 16-elements feature-summary vector (4 observables × 4 summary statistics) per experimental condition, which the neural density estimator

mapped to a *posterior* distribution over physiological parameters. In the single-muscle case, we inferred five physiological parameters: (1) baseline excitation (common input offset $I_{baseline}$), (2) recurrent inhibition strength (mean disynaptic connectivity $\mu_{disynaptic}$), (3) amplitude of the higher-frequency component of the common input $\sigma(I_{common,high})$, and the (4) center frequency f_{center} and (5) half-width $f_{half-width}$ of that higher-frequency component. In the between-muscles case, we inferred heteronymous recurrent inhibition strength in both directions, i.e. (1) from muscle A to muscle B ($\mu_{disynaptic}^{A\to B}$) and (2) from muscle B to muscle A ($\mu_{disynaptic}^{B\to A}$), and (3) the proportion of shared common input between muscles $\rho(I_{common}^{A} \leftrightarrow I_{common}^{B})$. Of note, posterior estimates of heteronymous recurrent inhibition strength were highly similar in both directions (e.g., A→B inhibition ≅ B→A inhibition). For clarity, we therefore report a single bidirectional value per synergist muscles pair in the Results section. Because the proportion of common input was weakly identifiable (uncertain marginal *posterior*), it is not reported.

<u>*Priors* and training simulations</u>

The physiological parameters to infer were chosen to estimate recurrent inhibition and higher-frequency common input while keeping the dimensionality of the parameter space tractable. We selected *priors* ranges broad enough for the simulated feature summaries to span the entire range of feature summaries derived from experimental data, yet constrained enough to avoid wasting simulation resources on unobserved regions of the parameter space. In the single-muscle case, independent uniform *priors* were used for all five parameters ($I_{baseline}$, $\mu_{disynaptic}$, $\sigma(I_{common,high})$, f_{center}, $f_{half-width}$; bounds in Table 1). We generated 12,000 simulations as training data, yielding one feature-summary vector per simulation. For the between-muscles case, parameters used the inferred single-muscle *posteriors* as informed *priors*, while between- muscles parameters ($\mu_{disynaptic}^{A\to B}$, $\mu_{disynaptic}^{B\to A}$, $\rho(I_{common}^{A} \leftrightarrow I_{common}^{B})$) used independent uniform *priors* (bounds in Table 1). This approach concentrated simulation effort where within-muscle parameters were most probable while allowing between-muscle parameters to vary freely. We generated 20,000 simulations to train the neural density estimator in the between-muscles case: for each synergist pair (VL↔VM, GM↔SOL) and intensity (10% and 40% MVC), 5,000 parameter sets were drawn, with within-muscle values sampled from the corresponding *posterior* and between-muscles values from their uniform *prior*.

<u>Neural density estimator</u>

We used the sbi toolbox default SNPE implementation with a masked autoregressive flow (MAF; Papamakarios et al., 2017) as the neural density estimator. Briefly, SNPE trains the neural density estimator to maximize the log-probability-density of the ground-truth parameters under the learned *posterior*, and MAF is a normalizing flow network that learns to map a simple base probability distribution to a target probability distribution (the *posterior* in this case). We kept the default architecture and preprocessing (50 hidden features, 5 transforms, independent z-scoring of parameters and features, and a standard-normal base distribution). Gradient descent was performed using Adam (Kingma & Ba, 2017), with a training batch size of 200, a learning rate of 5×10^{-4}, a 10% validation split, and early stopping after 20 epochs without improvement (explicit cap of 2,000 epochs). We trained separate estimators for the single-muscle and between-muscle conditions. We repeated the training of each estimator with different seeds to assess dependence on random initialization: the inferred *posteriors* remained qualitatively stable under different initial conditions; variability was largest for conditions with broad *posteriors* (i.e., high uncertainty, like

for SOL at 40% MVC). *Posteriors* reported in the Results section are derived from a representative training run.

Validation

To assess the estimator's ability to recover parameters under correct-model assumptions, we withheld 10% of simulations from training and evaluated the *posteriors* estimated from the trained estimator on this held-out dataset. Values for each parameter were mapped to a [0,1] scale relative to *prior* bounds. As recommended by the literature (Deistler et al., 2025; Tolley et al., 2024), we assessed *accuracy* (how close the estimator's marginal *posteriors* are to the held-out ground truths; Supplementary Fig. S1A) and *calibration* (how well the *posterior* uncertainty matches the frequency with which the ground truth is contained; Supplementary Fig. S1B) for each parameter. Accuracy was quantified by calculating RMSE and Pearson's correlation coefficient *r* between the ground-truth values across held-out simulations and the corresponding *posterior* modes (the parameter values with highest *posterior* probability). RMSE captures absolute errors on the [0,1] scale, whereas *r* captures how well the estimator preserves the pattern of variation across simulations, irrespective of any bias. As a reference, we also computed the RMSE and Pearson's *r* expected from the *prior* (independent samples from a uniform distribution over [0,1]). Calibration was assessed using coverage curves. For each parameter and each held-out simulation, we calculated the highest-*posterior*-density intervals for percentages of the *posterior* probability masses between 0% (interval of zero length) and 100% (the full [0,1] range). At each percentage, we then measured the proportion of ground-truth values that fell inside the corresponding highest-*posterior*-density interval across held-out simulations. A perfectly calibrated estimator yields a coverage curve that follows the identity line; for example, 50% highest-*posterior*-density intervals contain the ground truth in 50% of simulations. Overconfidence and underconfidence are reflected in curves lying below or above this line, respectively. We summarized miscalibration for each parameter by the mean absolute deviation between its coverage curve and the identity line.

In addition, we performed *posterior* predictive checks by testing whether simulations whose parameters came from the inferred *posteriors* accurately reproduced the experimental data. For each condition we drew 100 parameter samples from the corresponding *posterior* and used them as inputs to the mechanistic model to simulate spike trains. For each simulated spike train, we computed the four observable features (*trough area*, *peak height*, *trough timing*, and mean firing rate) and then averaged each feature across motor neurons, yielding a distribution of 100 *posterior*-predicted feature means per condition. We then standardized (mean=0, standard deviation=1) the values for each feature relative to the experimentally observed per-condition means. Finally, for each feature and across conditions, we computed the RMSE and Pearson's *r* between the *posterior*-predicted feature means (center of mass of each condition's *posterior*-predictive distribution) and the experimentally observed feature means.

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Supplementary figure

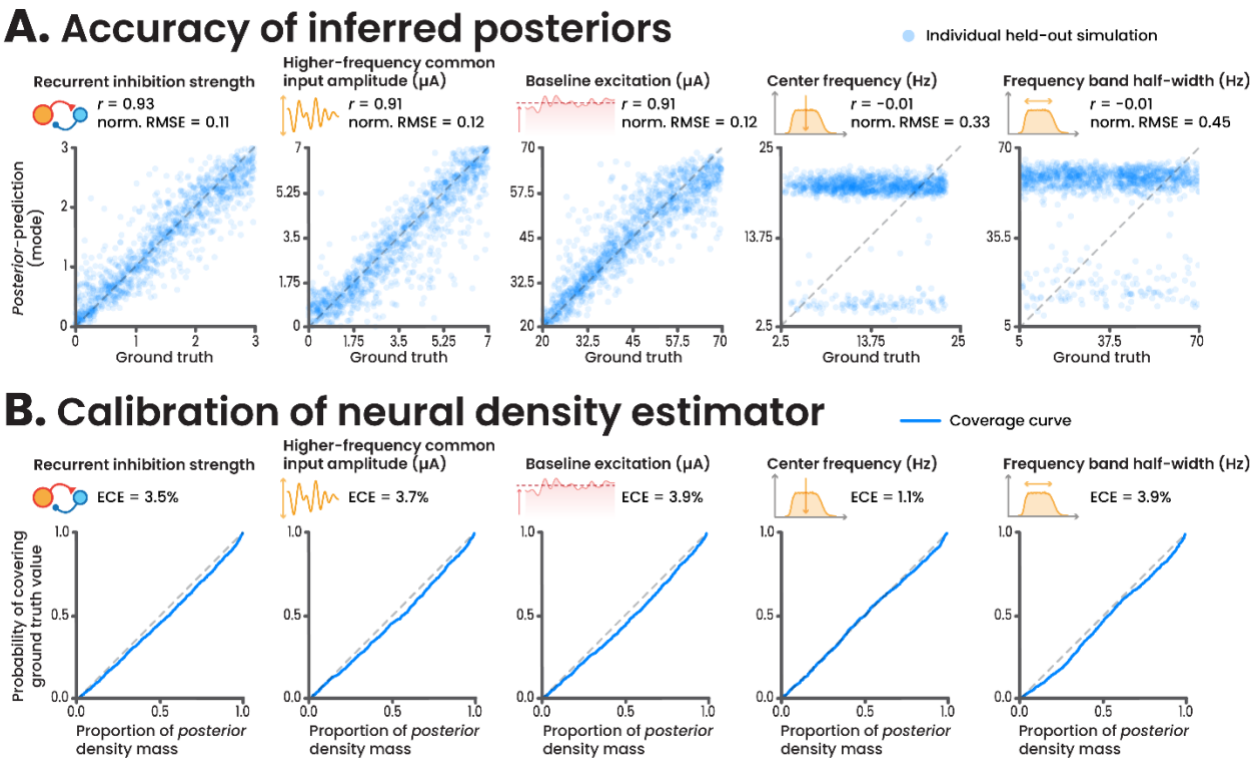
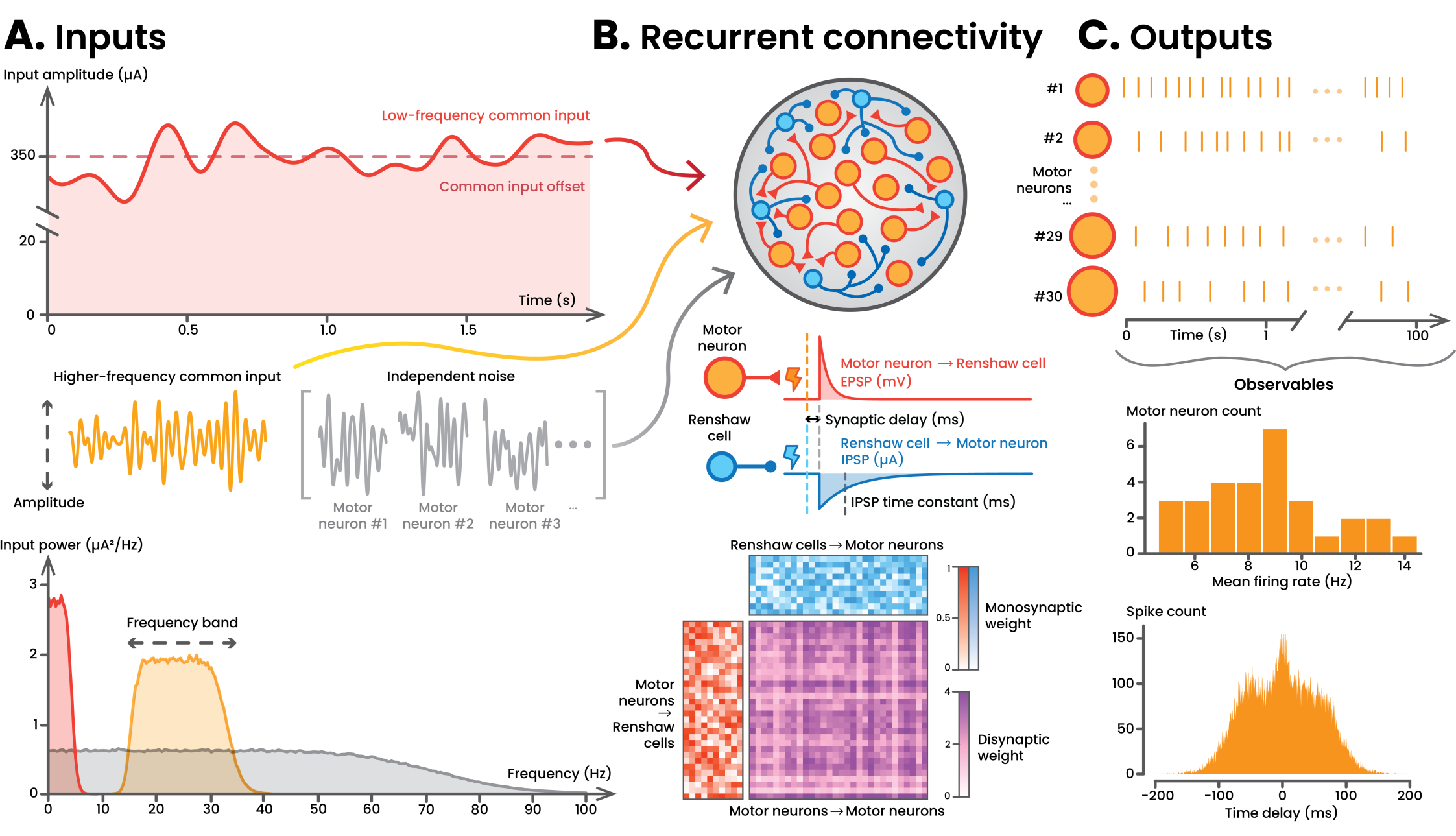
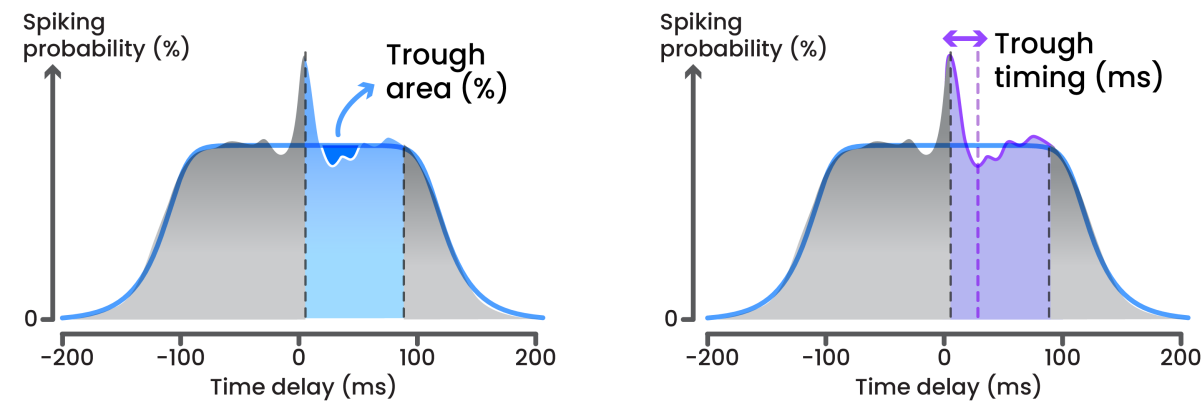
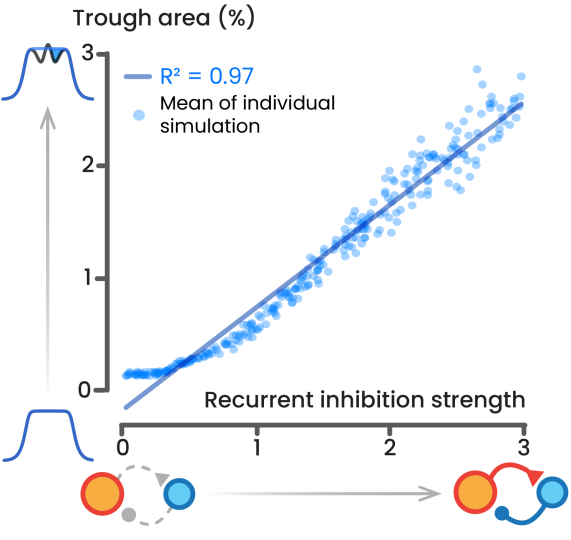


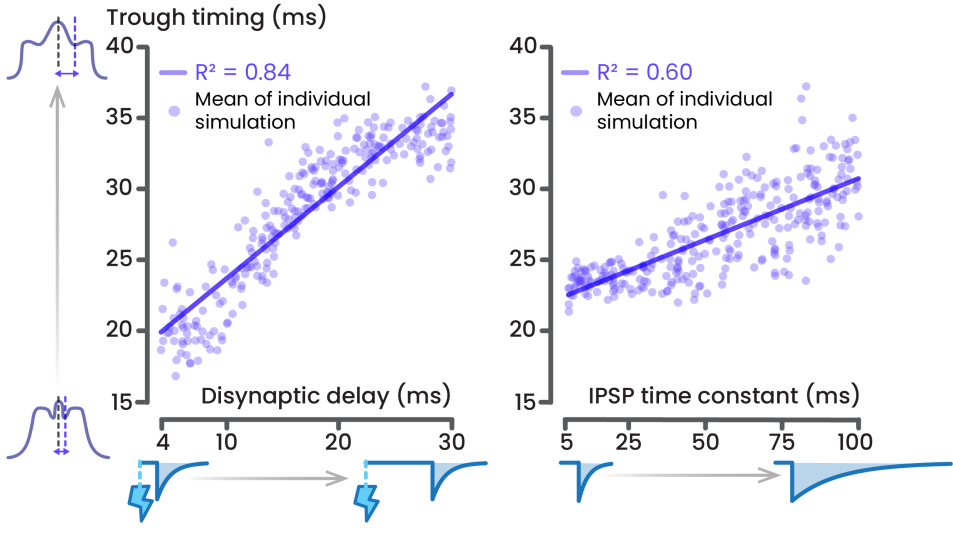
Figure S1. Validation on inference on simulated data. (A) The panels show, for each parameter, the relationship between the simulated ground-truth (x-axis) and the corresponding posterior-predicted mode (y-axis). Norm. RMSE: root mean square error for the [0,1]-normalized parameters. Under a uniform *prior*, expected normalized RMSE ≅ 0.41, and expected $r = 0$. **(B)** Each panel shows the calibration of the neural density estimator for one parameter. The expected calibration error (ECE) is the average deviation from the identity line (i.e., perfect calibration).


A. Inputs
Input amplitude (μA)
Low-frequency common input
Common input offset
350
20
0
Time (s)
0
0.5
1.0
1.5
Higher-frequency common input
Amplitude
Independent noise
Motor neuron #1
Motor neuron #2
Motor neuron #3
...
Input power (μA²/Hz)
Frequency band
Frequency (Hz)
B. Recurrent connectivity
Motor neuron
Renshaw cell
Motor neuron → Renshaw cell EPSP (mV)
Synaptic delay (ms)
Renshaw cell → Motor neuron IPSP (μA)
IPSP time constant (ms)
Renshaw cells → Motor neurons
Motor neurons → Renshaw cells
Motor neurons → Motor neurons
Monosynaptic weight
Disynaptic weight
C. Outputs
#1
#2
Motor neurons
...
#29
#30
Time (s)
Observables
Motor neuron count
Mean firing rate (Hz)
Spike count
Time delay (ms)

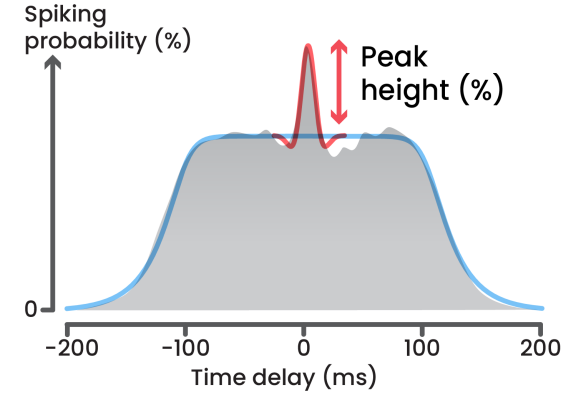
A. Proxy for recurrent inhibition

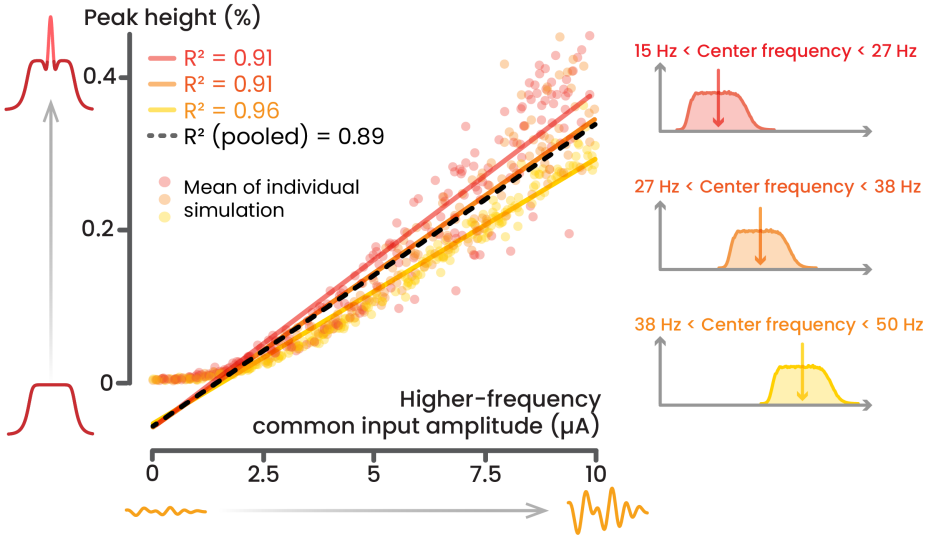


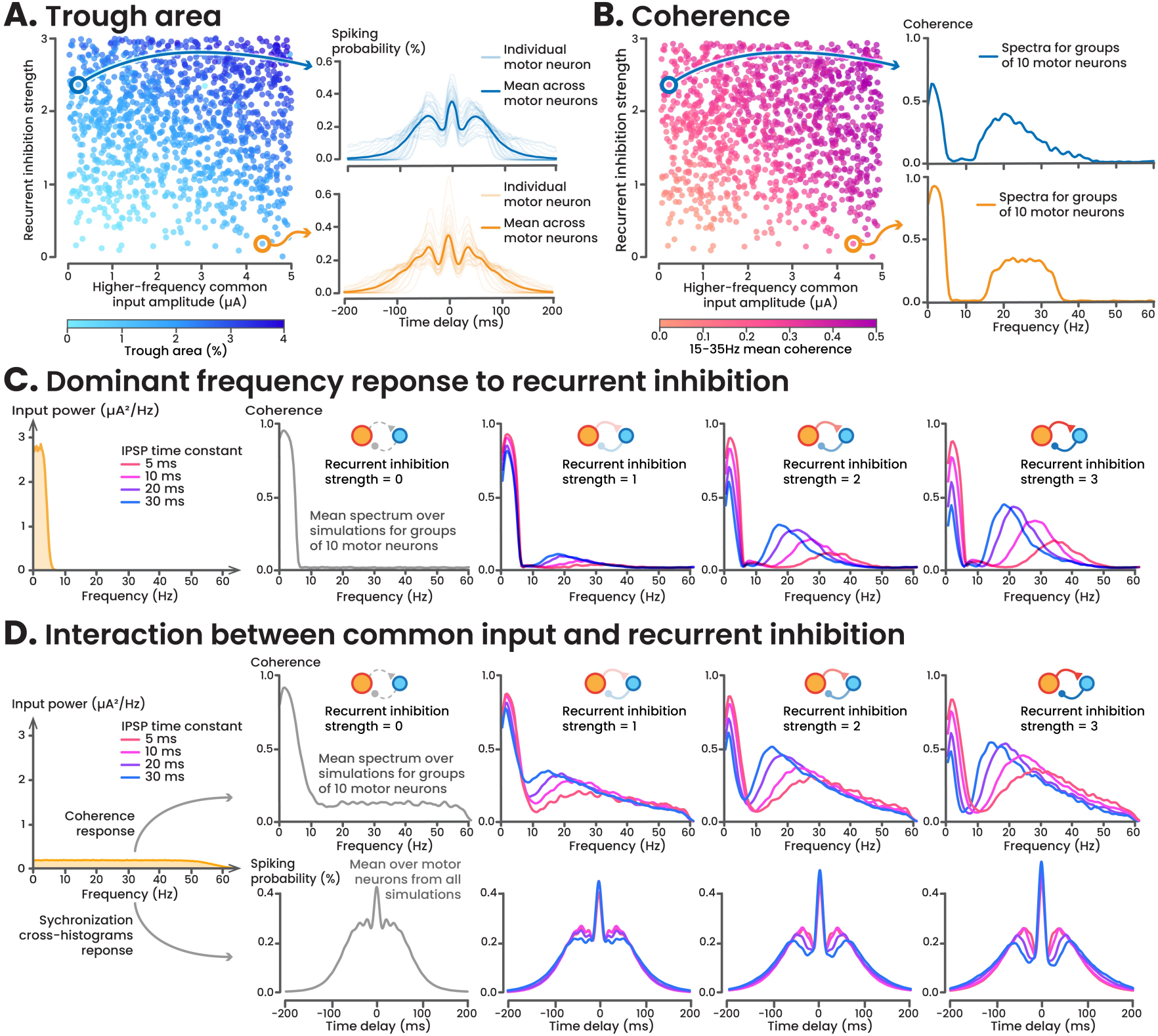




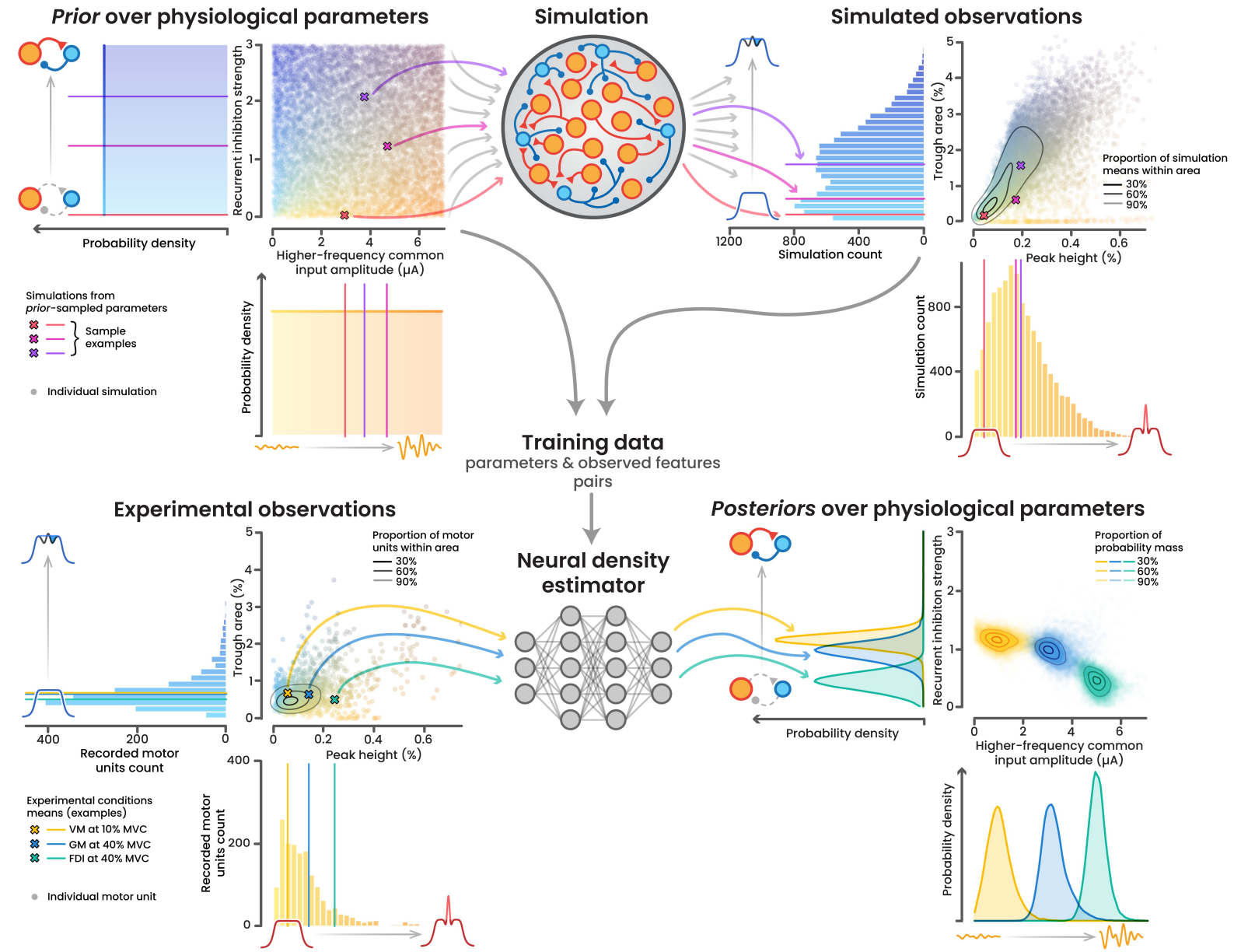
B. Proxy for higher-frequency common input amplitude



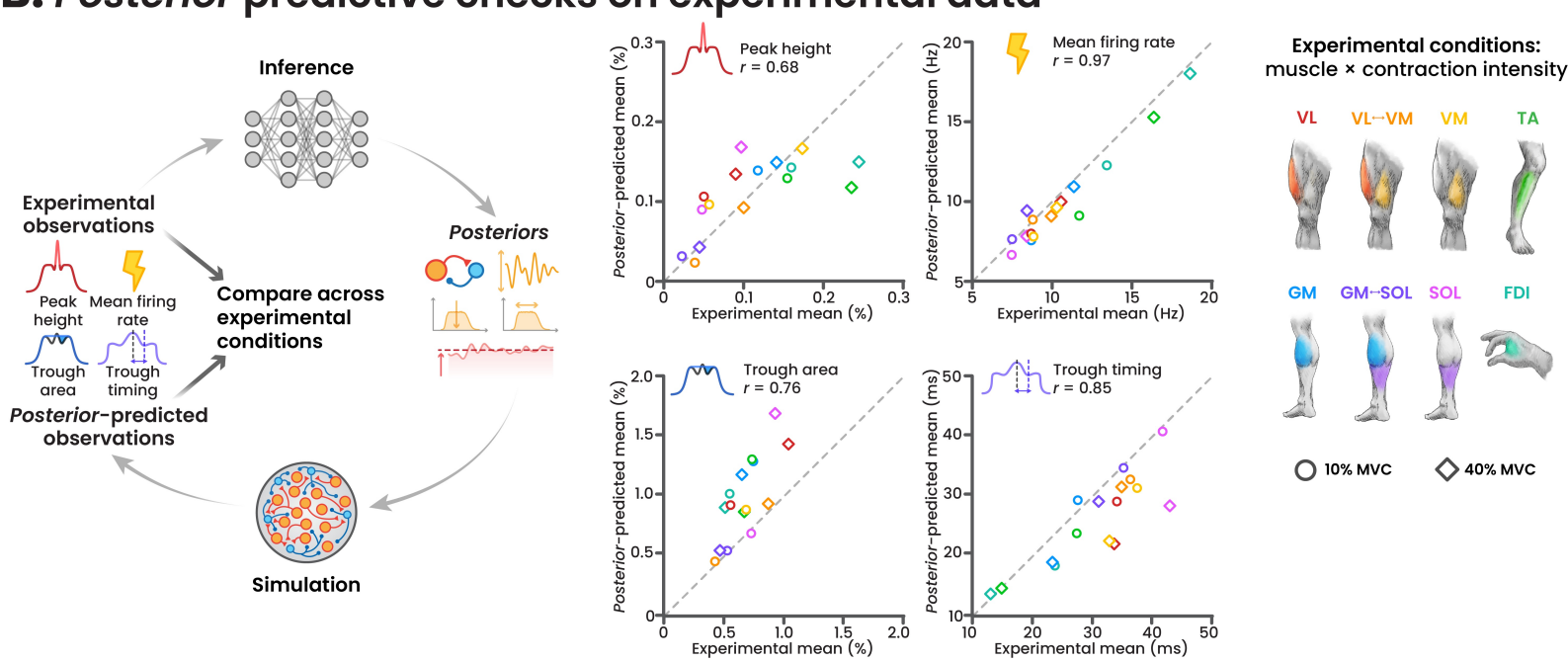



A. Trough area
Recurrent inhibition strength
Higher-frequency common input amplitude (μA)
Trough area (%)
Spiking probability (%)
Individual motor neuron
Mean across motor neurons
Time delay (ms)
B. Coherence
Coherence
Spectra for groups of 10 motor neurons
Frequency (Hz)
15-35Hz mean coherence
C. Dominant frequency reponse to recurrent inhibition
Input power (μA²/Hz)
IPSP time constant
5 ms
10 ms
20 ms
30 ms
Recurrent inhibition strength = 0
Recurrent inhibition strength = 1
Recurrent inhibition strength = 2
Recurrent inhibition strength = 3
Mean spectrum over simulations for groups of 10 motor neurons
D. Interaction between common input and recurrent inhibition
Coherence response
Sychronization cross-histograms reponse
Mean over motor neurons from all simulations

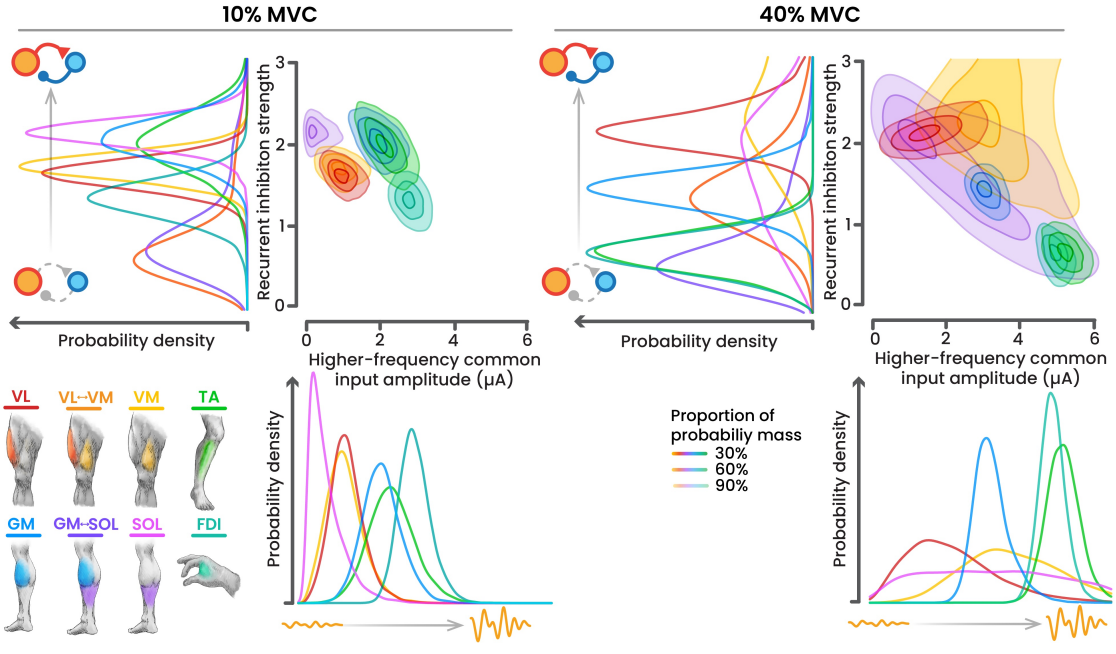
A. Simulation-based inference pipeline



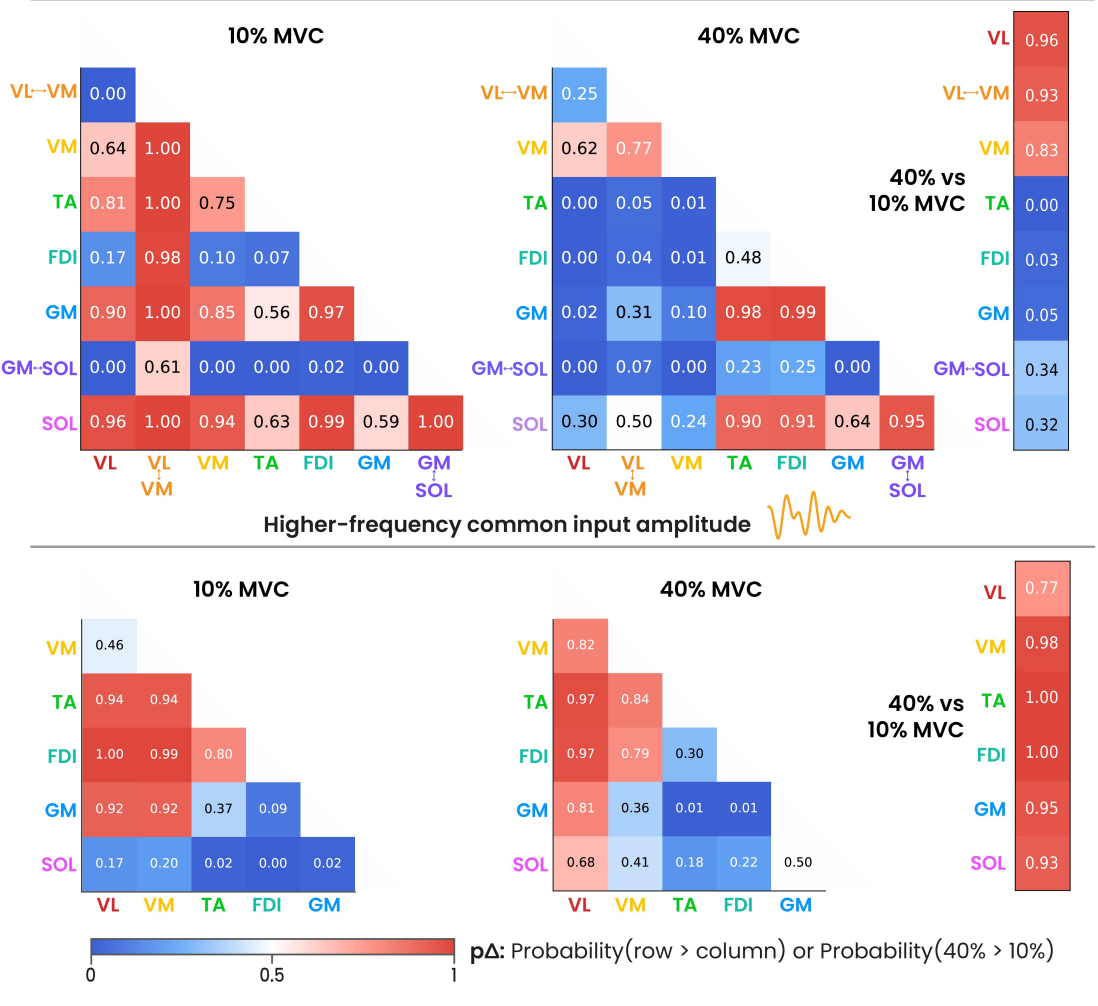
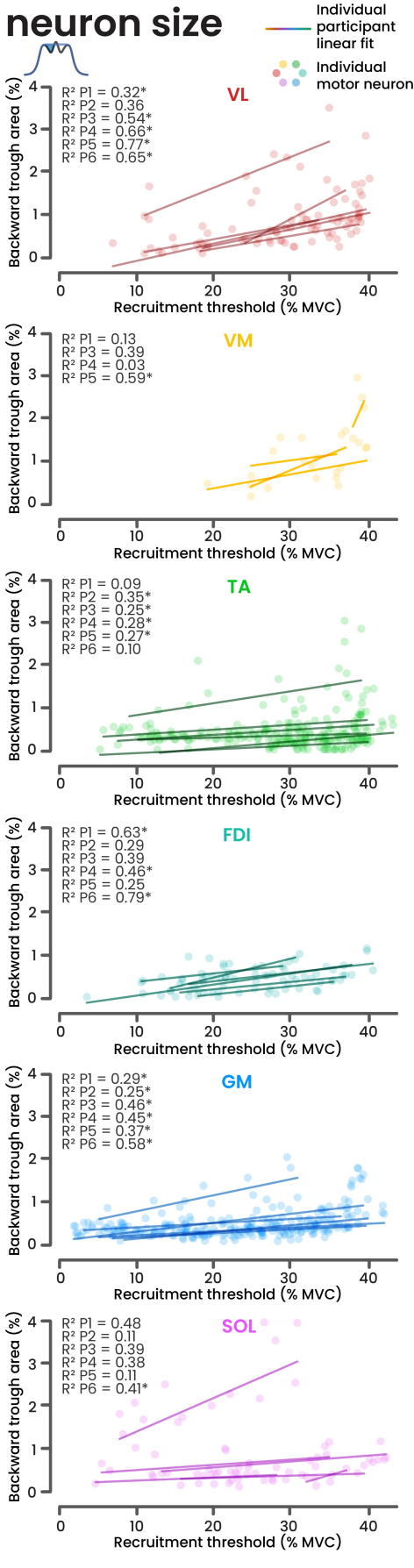
B. *Posterior* predictive checks on experimental data



A. Inferred physiological parameters (*posteriors*)



B. Between-muscles & between-intensities comparisons



C. Influence of motor neuron size