

**Title:**

Exploring the internal forward model: Action-effect prediction and attention in  
sensorimotor processing

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### **Abstract**

An observed reduction in the neurophysiological response to self- versus externally-generated stimuli (i.e., sensory attenuation) is often attributed to prediction-based internal forward models. Despite common focus on the auditory N1 in studies of sensory attenuation, there is limited evidence regarding its sensitivity to action-effect contingency (i.e., the probability of action eliciting a stimulus). Research is also needed to compare the use of prediction in sensorimotor processes relating to stimulus-driven and volitional movement. In this study ( $N = 64$ ), we explored the influence of action-effect contingency on event-related potentials associated with visually-cued and uncued movement, as well as resultant stimuli. Our findings demonstrate that, despite an apparent role in motor preparation (i.e., indicated in readiness potential amplitude), action-effect contingency does not influence the primary cortical response to sound (i.e., N1 amplitude). Instead, we highlight evidence and explore electrophysiological markers suggesting that sensory attenuation involves suppressive attentional mechanisms.

## Introduction

The term ‘sensory attenuation’ has been used to describe an observed reduction in the neurophysiological response and subjective intensity of sensations resulting from self-generated stimuli (e.g., Blakemore et al., 1998; Schafer & Marcus, 1973). This phenomenon is believed to reflect the activity of internal forward models (IFMs; Miall & Wolpert, 1996), in which duplicates of motor commands (i.e. ‘efference copies’; von Holst & Mittelstaedt, 1950) are transmitted to sensory cortices and generate representations of the anticipated consequences of movement (i.e., ‘corollary discharge’; Sperry, 1950). According to the IFM account, information arriving from sensory organs is compared with these predictions, allowing removal from one’s perceptual experience those sensations that may be predicted on the basis of motor activity alone (Miall & Wolpert, 1996). In this way, IFMs are believed to shape our perceptual experience to prioritise unanticipated stimuli and thereby remain vigilant to potentially important changes in our environment.

Beyond their influence on sensations resulting from self-generated stimuli, action-effect predictions are believed to play an integral role in the generation of movement. Ideomotor theory (James, 1890), which proposes that action is initiated through the internal activation of its anticipated sensory consequences, remains influential within the motor literature (see review by Shin et al., 2010). By integrating action and perception within a shared representational system (Hommel et al., 2001; Prinz, 1990; Prinz, 1997), the IFM is believed to facilitate both the prediction of future behavioural states and sensory consequences, as well as the selection of motor commands (Wolpert et al., 1995). Within this framework, one may select and initiate a motor action based on predictions regarding its sensory effects, then respond to observed discrepancies in resulting sensations to guide movement accordingly.

Despite an extensive corpus of research examining processes of sensorimotor integration, the role of action-effect prediction remains poorly understood. Reviews of the sensory attenuation literature have identified this limitation, for example, highlighting an absence of evidence to substantiate the central tenet that suppression of self-generated sensation depends on use of motor commands to predict stimuli (Horváth, 2015; Hughes et al., 2013b). Surprisingly few studies have directly investigated the influence of action-effect contingency on sensory response, particularly given the central role afforded to this form of prediction in the aforementioned theories of motor preparation and perception. Research into the effect of identity prediction (i.e., the ability to predict the precise nature of a stimulus; e.g., tone frequency in the case of sound) is particularly limited, and existing evidence is conflicted. While some data suggest that identity prediction may be associated with a reduced neurophysiological response to self-generated stimuli (Bäß et al., 2008; Darriba et al., 2021), other investigations have not always found this to be the case (Hughes et al., 2013a). For this reason, carefully-controlled research is needed to examine the effects of predictability on processes involved in sensorimotor integration.

With respect to the role of prediction in the generation of movement, an informative distinction has been made between motor actions involving stimulus-response and action-effect associations (e.g., Neumann, 1984). Evidence suggests that identical overt action may be guided by either form of learned association, depending on whether the action is stimulus-driven (i.e., responding to external stimuli) or volitional (i.e., selecting action based on its intended sensory effects; Herwig et al., 2007). It has been postulated that action-effect prediction may play a more central role in the production of volitional action (Herwig et al., 2007; Pfister et al., 2011), while stimulus-driven movement may be initiated as a form of prepared reflex in response to activating events (Hommel, 2000). Different mechanisms for the initiation of stimulus-driven and volitional action may be consistent with evidence that

these forms of motor activity involve recruitment of differing neuroanatomical structures (see Fried et al., 2017). In addition, increased corticospinal excitability has been observed in response to cues that have previously been paired with action induced through transcranial magnetic stimulation (Tran et al., 2019). This has been found to occur irrespective of whether subsequent action is expected (Tran et al., 2020), providing further indications that action-effect contingency may be differentially recruited in the generation of stimulus-driven and volitional movement. Taken together, these findings highlight the need for research comparing the use of action-effect prediction in stimulus-driven and volitional movement.

In this investigation, we aimed to delineate the influence of action-effect contingency on motor preparation for stimulus-driven and volitional action, as well as the processing of resultant stimuli. To this end, we compared the pre- and post-stimulus event-related potentials (ERPs) of visually-cued (i.e., stimulus-driven) and uncued (i.e., volitional) movement, as well as effects associated with change in the likelihood of action eliciting auditory stimuli (see Fig. 1 for protocol schematic and visual stimuli). Pre-stimulus analyses focused on the readiness potential and lateralised readiness potential, as indices of motor preparation that have previously been investigated in research examining the role of action-effect contingency (Reznik et al., 2018; Vercillo et al., 2018; Wen et al., 2018). Post-stimulus analyses focused on the auditory N1, given the focus on this component in sensory attenuation research (e.g., Han et al., 2021; Han et al., 2022; Schafer & Marcus, 1973; Schröger et al., 2015). Interestingly, recent research has demonstrated reduced N1 amplitude to stimuli resulting from stimulus-driven action compared with those arising in response to volitional action (Harrison et al., 2021). Given theorised differences in the neural mechanisms of each form of action, and the role of identity prediction in the operation of IFMs, the sensitivity of this phenomenon to change in action-effect contingency was also considered a priority for

investigation. We provide further detail regarding the functional properties of the RP, LRP and auditory N1 in the following section, as well as the specific hypotheses relating to each.

The readiness potential (RP) is a slow negative component that builds over motor areas in the lead-up to self-initiated movement (Kornhuber & Deecke, 1965) and is generally believed to represent the final stages of motor preparation (Shibasaki & Hallett, 2006). A diffuse variety of neural sources have been identified for the RP, including the primary motor, premotor and somatosensory cortices, the supplementary motor area (SMA) and pre-SMA, as well as the rostral and caudal cingulate motor areas (Jahanshahi & Hallett, 2003). Interestingly, RP amplitude has recently been found to be influenced by action-effect contingency, with larger potentials observed prior to actions associated with a higher probability of eliciting stimuli (Reznik et al., 2018; Vercillo et al., 2018; Wen et al., 2018). While findings provide evidence that action-effect prediction is involved in motor preparation, the precise mechanisms remain to be investigated, as well as potential differences with respect to the initiation of volitional and stimulus-driven movement. Given that preparation for volitional movement is believed to rely on the prediction of resulting sensations to a larger extent (Hommel, 2000), action-effect contingency was hypothesised to influence RP amplitude for this form of movement to a larger extent than for stimulus-driven action.

Unilateral hand movement is preceded by relative negativity over the contralateral hemisphere (Deecke et al., 1976). This activity, known as the lateralised readiness potential (LRP), can also be observed in moments following presentation of a cueing stimulus (Kutas & Donchin, 1980). The LRP is believed to derive largely from the primary motor cortex (de Jong et al., 1988) and is considered a subcomponent of the RP that indexes hand-specific response activation (Smulders et al., 2012). Through a subtraction method involving trials with movement of effector muscles on both the left and right side, the LRP may be

dissociated from lateralised potential relating to other structural and functional asymmetries (Gratton et al., 1988). Evidence suggests that the LRP is influenced by the complexity of planned movement (Hackley & Miller, 1995), though not its forcefulness (Sommer et al., 1994). Unlike the centralised RP, the LRP has not been found to be influenced by action-effect contingency (Reznik et al., 2018; Vercillo et al., 2018). To our knowledge, the LRP has not previously been examined in research contrasting activity associated with volitional and stimulus-driven action. Research has, however, demonstrated recruitment of the supplementary motor area (SMA) during volitional movement and not stimulus-driven action (Debaere et al., 2003). Given that the SMA is involved in preparation for more complex movement (see Goldberg, 1985), for which LRP amplitudes have also been found to be larger (Hackley & Miller, 1995), it was hypothesised that volitional movement would be associated with larger LRP amplitudes than stimulus-driven action.

The N1 is a large negative component that is commonly studied in sensory attenuation research (e.g., Klaffehn et al., 2019; Lange, 2011; Whitford et al., 2017). It is believed to comprise at least three subcomponents, originating in the supratemporal plane, superior temporal gyrus, and regions within the motor cortex and/or cingulate gyrus (Giard et al., 1994; Näätänen & Picton, 1987). One subcomponent, described as N1b (McCallum & Curry, 1980; Woods, 1995), is mostly reflected within the largest, frontocentral peak of the N1 wave and occurs approximately 70 to 150 ms following the onset of auditory stimuli (Sanmiguel et al., 2013). As a reliable indicator of both sound intensity (Mulert et al., 2005) and neurophysiological response within the primary auditory cortex (Zouridakis et al., 1998), the N1b (described henceforth simply as the N1) is commonly used in studies of acoustic perception. Significantly, the amplitude of the N1 produced by self-generated sounds has recently been found to be smaller when the eliciting action is stimulus-driven than volitional (Harrison et al., 2021). These differences were observed in a paradigm that involved

predictable self-generated sound stimuli. To our knowledge, the impact of action-effect contingency on N1 amplitude has not been compared for volitional and stimulus-driven movement. Notably, Harrison et al. (2021) observed that N1 amplitudes elicited by sound stimuli produced through volitional action did not differ from those externally-generated stimuli when these were made predictable in time. This may suggest that the phenomenon of sensory attenuation is specific to reafferent signal associated with stimulus-driven action. In accordance with the IFM account, it was therefore hypothesised that action-effect contingency would have a larger suppressive effect on N1 amplitudes resulting from sound produced by stimulus-driven action compared with that of volitional movement.

## **Method**

### **Participants**

The final sample included 64 healthy participants (45 female, 18 male and 1 other), aged between 17 and 36 years ( $M = 20.09$ ,  $Mdn = 19.16$ ,  $SD = 3.01$ ). Participants volunteered in exchange for course credit towards an undergraduate psychology unit at the University of New South Wales. Data from an additional three participants were collected but excluded from analyses due to self-reported diagnosis of a psychotic disorder, uncorrected hearing impairment, and recreational substance use in the preceding 24 hours (i.e., one participant each).

### **Materials and Design**

Participants were seated in front of a BenQ XL2420T monitor (24-inch, 1920 x 1080 resolution screen), at a distance of approximately 60 centimetres. They were fitted with Sennheiser HD201 headphones and an EEG cap containing 64 Ag/AgCl active electrodes connected to a BioSemi ActiveTwo system. These were positioned according to the extended 10:20 layout. A vertical electro-oculogram (EOG) was developed based on recordings at Fp1



and an electrode positioned below the left eye. A horizontal EOG was produced using recordings from electrodes placed adjacent to the outer canthus of each eye. Electrodes were also placed on the tip of participants' noses, as well as their left and right mastoids. Sampling was conducted at a rate of 2048 Hz, during which time CMS and DRL electrodes were used to provide grounding.

Participants were instructed to place their left and right index fingers on the 'd' and 'k' keys of a keyboard, respectively, and to maintain their gaze on a small white arrow at the centre of the screen. On each trial, the arrow would point either left or right to indicate which key participants were required to press. A vertical red (fixation) line, which had a width of 1 pixel, extended approximately 25mm above and below the arrow (i.e., for a total visual angle of approximately 5.4°).

In two *uncued* block types (i.e., *motor-stimulus* and *motor*), a sequence of white line fragments appeared on the right side of the computer screen and moved leftward at a pace of approximately 3°/s (see Fig. 1b). The line fragments were of equal length and dispersed across four rows, spanning the height of the fixation line. While the outer two rows were adjacent, a gap that was equal in height to the arrow and each line fragment separated the inner two rows. They were one pixel wide and randomly distributed with a density that corresponded to approximately four fragments (i.e., one per row) every three seconds. Participants were asked to press the keyboard button indicated by the arrow at a time of their choosing, with a minimum of two seconds and a maximum of four seconds between each button press. They were asked to vary the interval between each press in an unpredictable manner. After each button press, the cueing arrow was removed following a delay of 600 ms and replaced with an arrow for the subsequent trial at 650 ms post-stimulus (i.e., removal and replacement was separated by a gap lasting 50 ms). In the event that participants pressed the

wrong key for any given trial, a small red cross was displayed from 400 ms to 600 ms following the button press and the trial was excluded from analyses.

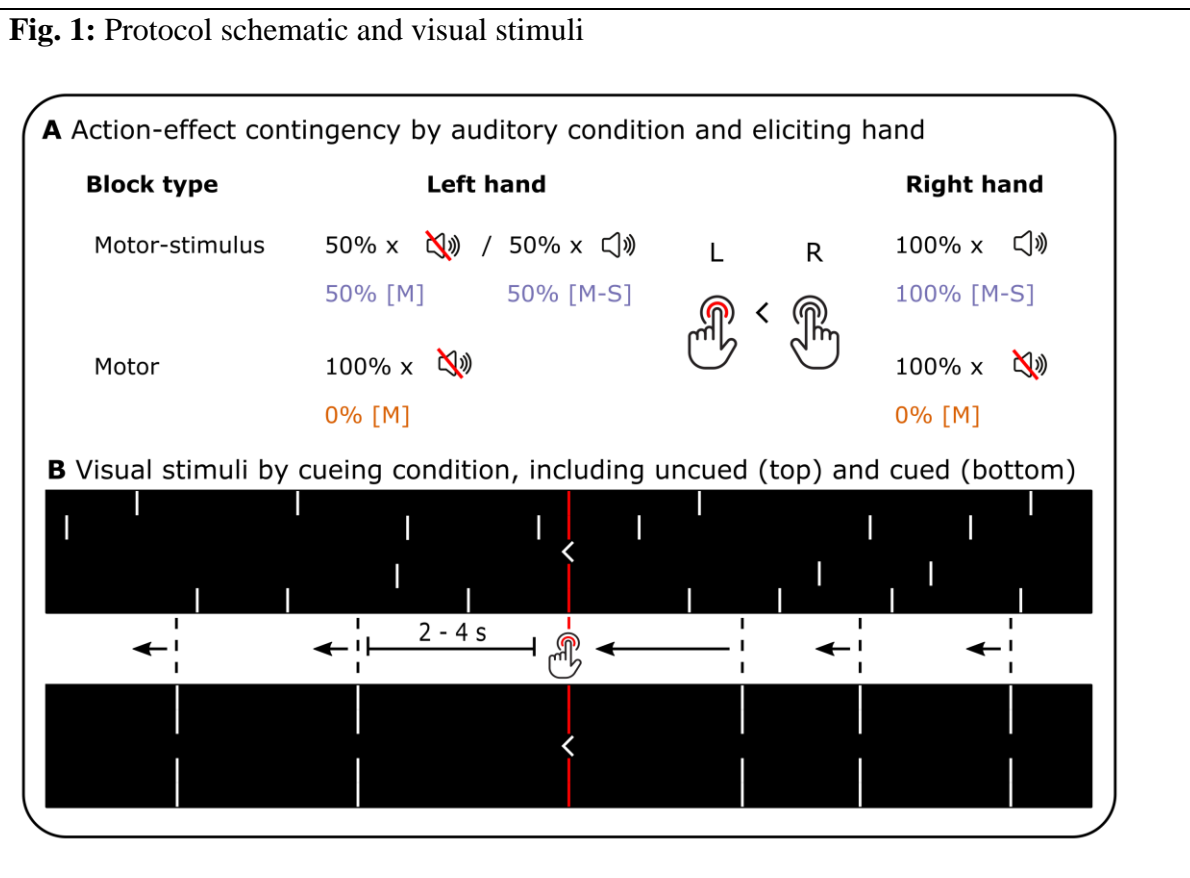
In *motor-stimulus* blocks, 100% of button presses with one hand elicited a tone via participant headphones. In contrast, tones were elicited by 50% of button presses with the other hand, while silent audio tracks were triggered to mark events on trials without sound. Two tone frequencies were used, including 85 dB SPL (A-weighted) pure tones (10 ms ramp, 100 ms duration) with frequencies of 1000 Hz (high pitch) and 500 Hz (low pitch). Tones and silent audio tracks were preloaded to an AudioFile Stimulus Processor (Cambridge Research Systems). Combinations of tone frequency (i.e., high and low), probability (i.e., 100% and 50%) and hand (i.e., left and right) were counterbalanced across participants. Each block involved 20 trials with 100% probability (i.e., for 20 tone presentations) and 40 trials with 50% probability (i.e., for 20 tone presentations and 20 silent audio tracks) in randomised order. The *uncued motor* block was identical to the *uncued motor-stimulus* block, including the order of left- and right-hand trials, except that all trials involved presentation of silent audio tracks. Each trial in these blocks contributed to the *uncued motor 0%* condition. Participants were informed regarding the probabilities of eliciting tones with their left and right hands prior to each block (i.e., for both *motor-stimulus* and *motor* block types).

In two *cued* block types (i.e., *motor-stimulus* and *motor*), participants again fixed their gaze on a small arrow located within a gap at the centre of the fixation line. A series of white (stimulus) lines, also with a gap at their centre, moved from right to left at a rate of approximately 3°/s (see Fig. 1b). These lines were spaced according to the timing of participants' button presses in the preceding *uncued motor-stimulus* block. The order of arrows indicating use of their left and right hand was similarly matched. Participants were instructed to press the corresponding button at the precise moment that each stimulus line intersected with the fixation line, meaning that the interval between button presses for *uncued*

and *cued* conditions was made equal. As with the *uncued* conditions, button presses in the *cued motor-stimulus* block elicited a tone in 100% of trials for one hand and 50% of trials for the other. The probability and frequency of tones allocated to each participant's left- and right-hand button presses was the same for all *motor-stimulus* conditions in the experiment. The *cued motor* block was again identical, except that each button press triggered the presentation of a silent audio track.

The two *motor-stimulus* block types (i.e., *cued* and *uncued*) were repeated six times each, while the *motor* block types (i.e., *cued* and *uncued*) were repeated twice. As such, there was a total of 16 blocks supporting collection of 120 trials for each of the eight experimental condition types (i.e., *uncued* and *cued* variants of the *motor-stimulus* 100%, *motor-stimulus* 50%, *motor* 50%, and *motor* 0% conditions).

**Fig. 1:** Protocol schematic and visual stimuli



**A.** Participants pressed a keyboard button with the index finger on either their left or right hand, based on the direction indicated by an arrow at their point of fixation. In *motor-stimulus* blocks (i.e., trial types indicated in violet text on the top row), each press with one hand elicited a tone with 100% probability. Each press with the other hand had a 50% chance of eliciting a different tone and a 50% chance of triggering a silent audio track to mark the event. In *motor* blocks (i.e., trial types indicated in orange text on the bottom row), button presses with each hand elicited the silent audio track. Motor and motor-stimulus trial types are denoted ‘M’ and ‘M-S’ respectively, and will be referred to in this manner henceforth. **B.** In *uncued* blocks, participants were presented with a series of white line fragments across four rows. While the outer two rows were adjacent, a gap that was equal in height to the arrow and each line fragment separated the inner two rows. These fragments moved from right to left at a constant rate and were randomly distributed with a density that corresponded to four fragments (i.e., one per row) every three seconds. Participants fixed their gaze on an arrow at the centre of the screen, which was positioned within a small gap in a vertical red (fixation) line. They were instructed to press the required button every two to four seconds, at will and with unpredictable timing. In *cued* conditions, participants were presented with a series of white (stimulus) lines that moved from right to left at a constant rate. The spacing of these lines was based on the interval between participants’ button presses in the preceding *uncued motor-stimulus* block. Participants were instructed to press using the hand indicated at the precise moment that each stimulus line intersected with the fixation line. Uncued and cued blocks were matched in terms of the order of button presses, as well as whether each trial elicited a tone or silent audio track.

## EEG Processing and Analysis

Data were referenced offline to the average of the mastoid electrodes and processed using BrainVision Analyzer. A phase-shift free half-amplitude Butterworth band-pass filter (0.1 Hz to 30 Hz) with 12 dB/Oct slope was applied, as well as a notch filter (50 Hz). Data were segmented into epochs beginning 1500 ms prior to each event and ending 1500 ms post-onset (i.e., 3000 ms segments). Eye movement artefacts were corrected using the method described by Miller et al. (1988), based on the approach developed by Gratton et al. (1983). With regard to artifact rejection, channel epochs were excluded if they were found to contain peak-to-peak amplitudes in excess of 200  $\mu$ V between -1500 ms and 500 ms. Trials in which participants pressed the wrong key or pressed with an inter-trial interval (ITI) of less than 1800 ms were removed from analyses. Cued condition trials were also removed if participants failed to press the required key within 200 ms of the moment in which the stimulus and fixation lines intersected. Descriptive statistics relating to ITIs are provided in Table S1 (see Supplementary Online Material).

Because each motor-stimulus block necessarily contained twice the number of trials involving 50% contingency, compared with 100% contingency, each 50% trial was twice as likely to be preceded by a button press with the same hand. As a result, lateralized activity in the baseline correction period risked systematically biasing results in analyses that considered all trials. To mitigate this outcome, lateralized analyses were based on a subset of trials in which each condition type had an equal probability of being preceded by a button press with the same hand. This was achieved by only including trials that were preceded by a motor-stimulus trial (i.e., one in which a tone had been presented), of which there was an equal number of trials involving 50% and 100% contingencies.

Consistent with previous research (e.g., Pinheiro et al., 2020; Wohlert, 1993), baseline correction was applied for pre-stimulus analyses (i.e., RP and LRP) using the average voltage between -1500 ms and -1000 ms. Exploration of the data revealed lateralized activity in parieto-occipital regions commencing shortly before enactment (see Fig. 2d), which was subsequently investigated using a baseline correction period between -500 ms and -250 ms. Investigation of these particular effects, and therefore the selection of this window, were without precedent. However, the length of the correction window and stable voltage meant that observed effects were unlikely to be sensitive to the specific timeframe used. For N1 analyses, baseline correction was applied using the average voltage in the 200 ms prior to stimulus onset, in a manner consistent with similar studies (e.g., Harrison et al., 2021).

Summary statistics of the number of presented trials, behavioural exclusions and completed trials are presented by condition, including for both non-lateralized and lateralized analyses, in Table S2 (see Supplementary Online Material). It is noteworthy that, for both non-lateralized and lateralized analyses, marginally fewer trials were completed for cued conditions ( $M = 114.72$ ,  $SD = 6.80$ ) than for uncued conditions ( $M = 117.21$ ,  $SD = 7.79$ ). This was due to the exclusion of cued trials in which participants had failed to press the key to synchronise with passing stimulus lines.

Averaged waveforms were calculated based on a minimum of 41 useable trials, including for each of the eight experimental conditions in non-lateralized analyses ( $M = 115.75$ ,  $Mdn = 118.00$ ,  $SD = 7.45$ ,  $min = 41$ ) and subset of six experimental conditions in lateralized analyses ( $M = 75.93$ ,  $Mdn = 76.00$ ,  $SD = 6.75$ ,  $min = 41$ ). A 2 x 4 repeated measures ANOVA was conducted to compare the number of averaged trials included in *cued* versus *uncued* conditions and across *contingency* conditions (i.e., 100% [M-S], 50% [M-S], 50% [M] and 0% [M]) in the full set. The results revealed a statistically significant difference in the number of trials by *cueing* condition,  $F(1, 63) = 24.41$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .279$ ,  $BF_{10} =$

6.37E+7. In particular, the average number of trials contained in *cued* condition waveforms ( $M = 114.51$ ,  $SD = 6.86$ ) was significantly small than in the *uncued* conditions ( $M = 117.00$ ,  $SD = 7.80$ ). Despite this, artefact rejection rates were similar for cued trials ( $M = 0.21\%$ ,  $SD = 0.85\%$ ) and uncued trials ( $M = 0.21\%$ ,  $SD = 0.74\%$ ), suggesting that this difference was due to the behavioural exclusions discussed above. Mauchly's test (Mauchly, 1940) indicated that the assumption of sphericity was violated with respect to the *contingency* conditions, necessitating correction using the Greenhouse-Geisser method (Geisser & Greenhouse, 1958). Following correction, the average number of trials was not found to differ significantly by *contingency* condition,  $F(2.34, 147.43) = 0.28$ ,  $p = .793$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .000$ ,  $BF_{10} = 8.00E-03$ . Similarly, the interaction between *cueing* and *contingency* was not found to be statistically significant,  $F(1.25, 78.45) = 1.152$ ,  $p = .299$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .018$ ,  $BF_{10} = 2.00E-03$ .

### ***Readiness Potential***

RP analyses were based on amplitude recordings at Cz, reflecting the central topography of the readiness potential. Two windows were examined, including from -1000 ms to -500 ms (early RP) and from -500 ms to 0 ms (late RP). These two windows have been differentiated in previous research as they are believed to involve discrete neural sources (e.g., Pinheiro et al., 2020; Vercillo et al., 2018; Wen et al., 2018). In particular, the early RP component is believed to involve bilateral activation of the Supplementary Motor Area (SMA), while the late RP is believed to reflect the activity of the primary motor cortex that is predominant over the hemisphere that is contralateral to effector muscles (Oken & Phillips, 2009).

### ***Lateralized Readiness Potentials***

LRPs were examined using the method described by Coles (1989), which involves subtraction of amplitudes observed over the motor cortex on the side ipsilateral to effector

muscles from those on the contralateral side (i.e., represented by electrodes C3 and C4). It is important to note that, because the allocation of probability conditions to each hand lasted the duration of the experiment, resulting LRPs represented only one direction of lateralisation for each participant. However, the direction of lateralisation was counterbalanced across participants, such that an equal number ( $n = 32$ ) were lateralized in each direction (i.e., C3 and C4 were as frequently contralateral to effector muscles as they were ipsilateral for each condition). As with the N1 component, a 20 ms analysis window for the LRP was centred on the peak amplitude identified in a collapsed localiser waveform containing all conditions (Luck & Gaspelin, 2017). This was taken as the most negative local minimum between -200 and 0, which was found to have occurred at -70 ms.

### ***Lateralized Enactment and Post-enactment Potentials***

Two distinct maxima were also observed within the LRP collapsed localiser waveform (see Fig. 2d). The peaks of these lateralized effects were found to have occurred 1 ms and 107 ms post-stimulus, when taken as the most positive local maxima from -50 ms to 50 ms and 50 ms to 200 ms respectively. Examination of the topography of these effects, which we describe as the lateralized enactment potential (LEP) and lateralized post-enactment potential (LPP), suggested that they were substantially influenced by activity in parieto-occipital regions (see Fig. 2f). We utilised the same subtraction method as described for LRP analyses to isolate lateralized activity, with amplitude recordings at ipsilateral electrodes subtracted from those at equivalent contralateral locations. Counterbalancing across participants ensured that lateralized effects involving visual stimuli, for example, were distributed equally to contralateral and ipsilateral electrodes for all conditions. The LEP was found to be maximal when taken as the contrast between P5 and P6 electrodes, while the LPP demonstrated maximum amplitude at PO7 and PO8. Subsequent analyses therefore focussed on these electrodes.



### ***Auditory N1***

N1 component amplitudes were analysed using pooled recordings at electrode sites Fz, FCz and Cz, as has been done previously in recognition of the maximal N1 signal at these locations (Harrison et al., 2021; Näätänen & Picton, 1987; Whitford et al., 2017; Woods, 1995). To support comparison of these conditions in a manner that controlled for motor activity, *uncued [M-S]* and *cued [M-S]* conditions (i.e., both 50% and 100%) were corrected by subtracting the equivalent *0% [M]* conditions. Analyses were based on average recordings within a 20 ms window centred on the N1 component latency identified within a collapsed localiser waveform (i.e., averaging across all participants and conditions; Luck & Gaspelin, 2017). In particular, this was identified as the most negative local minimum between 25 ms and 175 ms post-stimulus in a collapsed waveform containing motor-corrected conditions – consistent with other similar studies of the auditory N1 component (Elijah et al., 2016, 2018; Harrison et al., 2021). The N1 peak was found to have occurred 94 ms after stimulus onset using this method, meaning that analyses involved average voltage recordings between 84 ms and 104 ms.

### **Statistical Analyses**

#### ***Readiness and Lateralized Potentials***

To mitigate the potential influence of differences within baseline correction periods, readiness potentials (i.e., RP and LRP) and lateralized effects (i.e., LEP and LPP) were analysed based on intermixed trial types contained in motor-stimulus blocks. This included *cued* and *uncued* variants of *motor-stimulus* trials (i.e., 100% and 50%) and *motor* trials (i.e., 50%). Component amplitudes were compared using a series of repeated measures analyses of variance (ANOVAs). These included main effects for *cueing* (i.e., cued vs uncued), as well as *contingency* (i.e., representing different motor and motor-stimulus variants). The contingency

factor contained two orthogonal contrasts, supporting comparison of the 100% and 50% probability conditions, as well as the motor and motor-stimulus variants of the 50% conditions (see Table 1). These contrasts are henceforth described as the effects of *probability* and *action-effect*. Bayes Factors were also produced for the effects contained within the ANOVAs, based on Cauchy priors with an r-scale of  $1/\sqrt{2}$  (Morey & Rouder, 2018). These Bayesian parameters have been recommended for use across a range of statistical procedures, including both regression (Gelman et al., 2008) and point null hypothesis testing (Jeffreys, 1998).

Table 1

Orthogonal contingency contrasts

Condition	Contrast	
	Probability	Action-effect
100% [M-S]	2	0
50% [M-S]	-1	1
50% [M]	-1	-1

*Note.* M-S denotes motor-stimulus conditions, while M denotes motor-only conditions.

### ***Motor-corrected Auditory N1***

A 2 x 2 repeated measures ANOVA was used to compare motor-corrected N1 component amplitudes (see *EEG Processing and Analysis*). In particular, this examined the main effects of *probability* (i.e., 50% vs. 100%) and *cueing* (i.e., cued vs. uncued), as well as their interaction. As with readiness and lateralized analyses, Bayes Factors were developed for the effects contained in this ANOVA based on Cauchy priors with an r-scale of  $1/\sqrt{2}$ .

## Results

### Readiness and Lateralized Potentials

To analyse effects within readiness and lateralized potentials (i.e., early RP, late RP, LRP, LEP and LPP), 2 x 3 repeated measures ANOVAs were conducted to assess the main effect of *cueing* (i.e., cued vs uncued) and *contingency* conditions (i.e., 100% [M-S], 50% [M-S] and 50% [M]). Planned comparisons involved two orthogonal contrasts of *contingency* conditions, which supported the investigation of *probability* ([2, -1, -1]) and *action-effect* ([0, 1, -1]). Descriptive statistics relating to readiness potential amplitudes and those of the LRP are presented in Tables A1 and A2, respectively. Results of the ANOVAs and contrasts are reported in full in Tables A4 and A5, respectively (see Appendix).

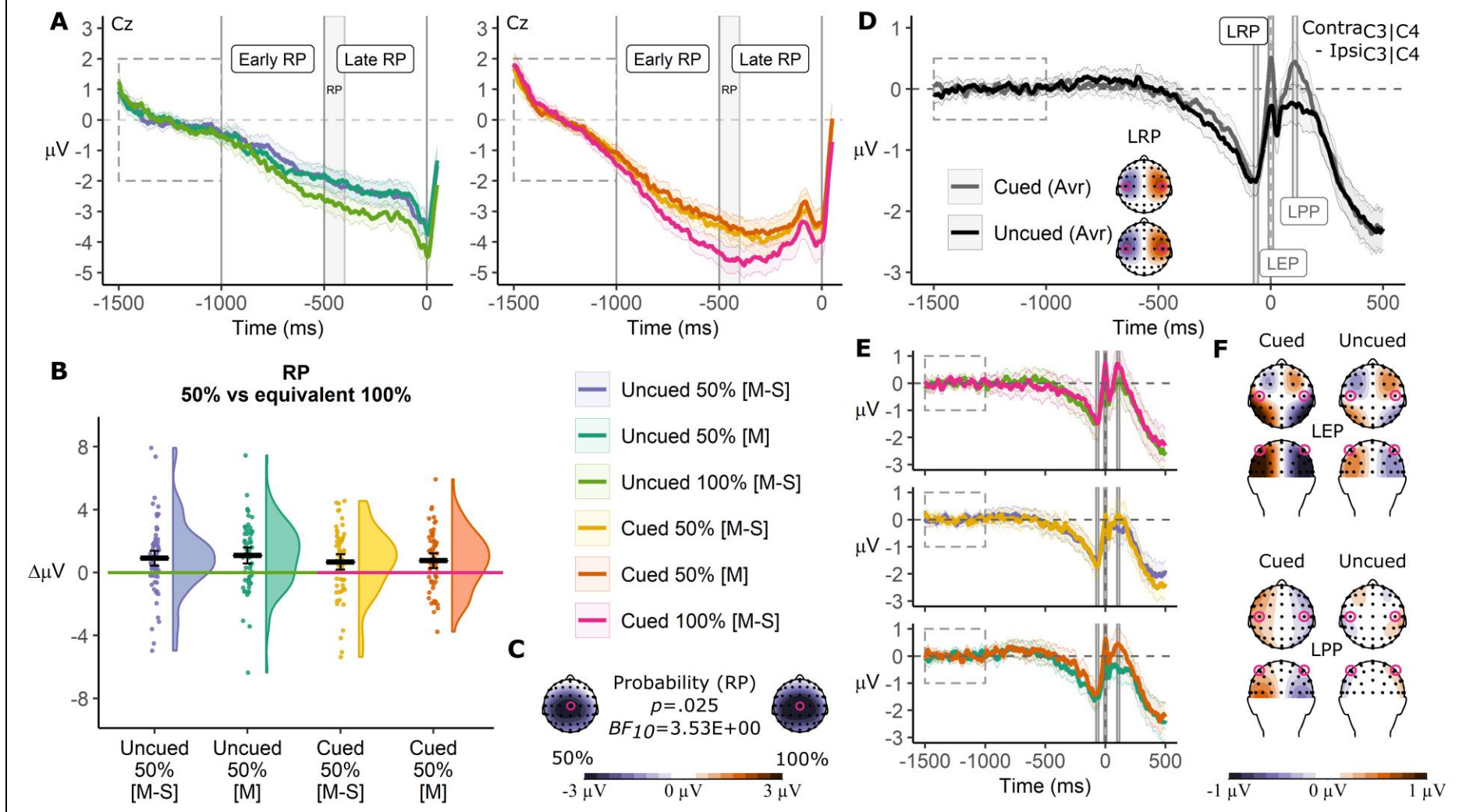
### Readiness Potential

The ANOVAs revealed a significant main effect of *cueing* in both the early RP,  $F(0.89, 56.06) = 31.34, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = 0.332, BF_{10} = 2.12E+15$ , and late RP,  $F(0.94, 59.38) = 7.47, p = .008, \eta_p^2 = 0.106, BF_{10} = 5.01E+03$  (see Fig. 2). For both early and late RPs, amplitude in the cued conditions were significantly more negative than for the uncued conditions. While the effect of *probability* was not found to be significant with respect to early RP amplitudes,  $t(126) = 1.84, p = .069, d = 0.327, BF_{10} = 1.75E+00$ , the mean amplitude of late RPs was found to be significantly larger (i.e., more negative) for the higher probability condition (i.e., 100%) compared to the lower probability (i.e., 50%) conditions,  $t(126) = 2.17, p = .032, d = 0.386, BF_{10} = 7.82E-01$ . Interactions between *cueing* and *probability* were not found to be statistically significant in relation to either the early RP,  $t(189) = 0.77, p = 0.440, d = 0.113, BF_{10} = 0.13$ , or late RP,  $t(189) = -0.03, p = 0.973, d = -0.005, BF_{10} = 0.113$ .

Late negative deflections were observed in RPs for both *uncued* and *cued* conditions (see Fig. 2a). These resembled the ‘motor potential’ subcomponent of the RP (Deecke et al., 1969), which commences approximately 80 ms prior to movement onset (Brunia et al., 2012). In *cued* conditions, this was preceded by a slow positive shift that may reflect ‘pre-motor positivity’ (PMP) or visual activity associated with approaching stimulus lines. Uncertainty regarding the precise nature of these effects motivated an additional analysis of RP amplitude using a window prior to their apparent commencement. A 2 x 3 repeated measures ANOVA on mean voltage recordings between -500 ms and -400 ms revealed a significant main effect of *cueing*,  $F(0.92, 57.89) = 20.05$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = 0.241$ ,  $BF_{10} = 1.67E+10$ . As with the late RP generally, the effect of *probability* was also significant in the narrowed window,  $t(126) = 2.27$ ,  $p = .025$ ,  $d = 0.405$ ,  $BF_{10} = 3.53E+00$ , with larger amplitude observed in the higher probability condition (i.e., 100%) compared with the lower probability conditions (i.e., 50%).

### ***Lateralized Readiness Potential***

With respect to LRP amplitude, the ANOVA did not reveal significant effects associated with *cueing*,  $F(0.82, 51.79) = 0.01$ ,  $p = .928$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = <.001$ ,  $BF_{10} = 1.16E-01$ , *contingency*,  $F(1.31, 82.58) = 0.19$ ,  $p = .829$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = 0.003$ ,  $BF_{10} = 3.72E-02$ , or their interaction,  $F(1.64, 103.59) = 0.39$ ,  $p = .677$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = 0.006$ ,  $BF_{10} = 6.62E-02$ . Planned contrasts were non-significant with respect to both *probability*,  $t(126) = -0.22$ ,  $p = .828$ ,  $d = -0.039$ ,  $BF_{10} = 1.19E-01$ , and *action-effect*,  $t(126) = -0.07$ ,  $p = .944$ ,  $d = 0.010$ ,  $BF_{10} = 1.31E-01$ .

**Fig. 2:** Readiness Potential and Lateralised Readiness Potential

**A.** Grand-averaged recordings at Cz, demonstrating mean amplitude and 95% CI by uncued condition (left) and cued condition (right). **B.** Within-subject differences in late RP amplitude between 50% and equivalent 100% conditions (i.e., cued or uncued), with mean differences and 95% CIs. **C.** Topographic voltage maps demonstrating mean amplitude recordings by 50% and 100% conditions, with *p*-value and Bayes Factor representing the contrast effect of probability. **D.** Difference in grand-averaged recordings at C3 and C4 (i.e., contralateral minus ipsilateral), 95% CIs and LRP topographic voltage maps by cued and uncued condition (i.e., collapsing across probabilities). Note that, for consistency, electrodes were inverted along the sagittal plane for selected conditions by counterbalancing group. This was done such that topographic maps demonstrate lateralized effects as if each trial had involved a button press with the right hand. To remove activity not lateralized relative to the effector hand, unadjusted grand-averages (i.e., from all participants) were subtracted from unadjusted averages for each counterbalancing group prior to collation in the manner described. This had the effect of removing non-lateralized components, as well as unrelated lateralized activity (e.g., activity associated with visual attention) from topographic maps. **E.** Difference in grand-averaged voltage recordings at C3 and C4 (i.e., contralateral minus ipsilateral) for cued and uncued variants by probability condition, including 100% [M-S] (top), 50% [M-S] (middle) and 50% [M] (bottom). **F.** Topographic voltage maps by cued and uncued condition, representing mean voltage recordings at latencies corresponding to LEP (top) and LPP (bottom). Note that the same adjustments were applied based on counterbalancing group as described for panel D.

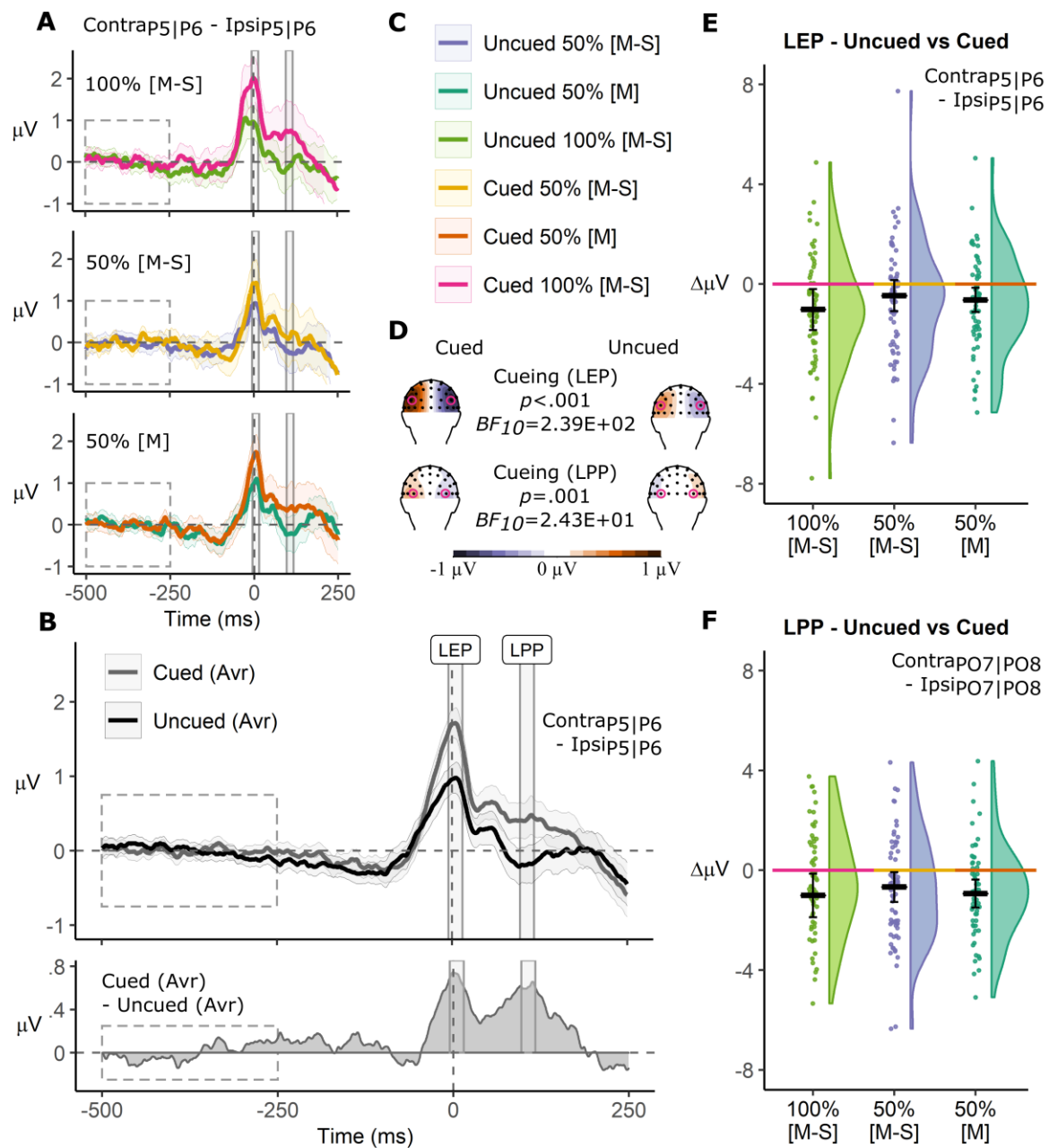
### ***Lateralized Enactment and Post-enactment Potential***

In the LRP waveforms, two distinct local maxima were observed at 1 ms and 107 ms post-action. Examination of topographic maps suggested that these were driven by lateralized potential with parieto-occipital positivity on the side contralateral to each trial's effector hand (see Fig. 2f). Subsequent analyses focussed on the locations at which these lateralized effects were maximal, averaging across participants and conditions. The peak of the first maximum, described henceforth as the lateralized enactment potential (LEP), was found to have occurred 4 ms post-action at P5/P6 (see Fig. 3b). Lateralized activity corresponding to the second observed peak (i.e., at C3/C4), described henceforth as the lateralized post-enactment potential (LPP), was found to be maximal at PO7/PO8. Because a distinct peak was not identified in the potential at these locations, analyses of this effect were based on the timing of the local maximum identified at C3/C4 (i.e., 107 ms post-action).

Another 2 x 3 repeated measures ANOVA was conducted to assess the main effects of *cueing* (i.e., cued vs uncued) and *contingency* (i.e., 100% [M-S], 50% [M-S] and 50% [M]) on the LEP. Orthogonal contrasts were again used to investigate the effects of *probability* and *action-effect*. Descriptive statistics relating to the lateralised potentials are presented in Table A2, while results of the ANOVAs and contrasts are reported in Tables A4 and A5 respectively (see Appendix). Results indicated a significant effect of *cueing* on LEP amplitude,  $F(0.73, 46.29) = 24.60, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = 0.281, BF_{10} = 3.96E+02$ , such that the LEP was larger (i.e., more positive) for *cued* conditions. In contrast, effects were non-significant with respect to *contingency*,  $F(1.43, 89.80) = 0.80, p = .450, \eta_p^2 = 0.013, BF_{10} = 6.09E-02$ , and the *cueing* x *contingency* interaction,  $F(1.47, 92.59) = 0.74, p = .479, \eta_p^2 = 0.012, BF_{10} = 1.14E-01$ . Planned contrasts were also found to be non-significant, including both *probability*,  $t(126) = 0.26, p = 0.799, d = 0.045, BF_{10} = 0.163$ , and *action-effect*,  $t(126) = -0.36, p = 0.722, d = -0.052, BF_{10} = 0.165$ .

Results from analyses of the LPP mirrored those of the LEP. While a significant main effect was observed for *cueing*,  $F(0.72, 45.27) = 10.49$ ,  $p = .002$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = 0.143$ ,  $BF_{10} = 4.64E+01$ , non-significant results were observed with respect to the effect of *contingency*,  $F(1.31, 82.62) = 2.36$ ,  $p = .099$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = 0.036$ ,  $BF_{10} = 2.87E-01$ , and the *cueing* x *contingency* interaction,  $F(1.44, 90.54) = 0.64$ ,  $p = .528$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = 0.01$ ,  $BF_{10} = 8.74E-02$ . Planned contrasts were not found to be significant, including both *probability*,  $t(126) = -0.95$ ,  $p = .343$ ,  $d = -0.17$ ,  $BF_{10} = 0.858$ , and *action-effect*,  $t(126) = 0.1$ ,  $p = .923$ ,  $d = 0.014$ ,  $BF_{10} = 1.28E-01$ .



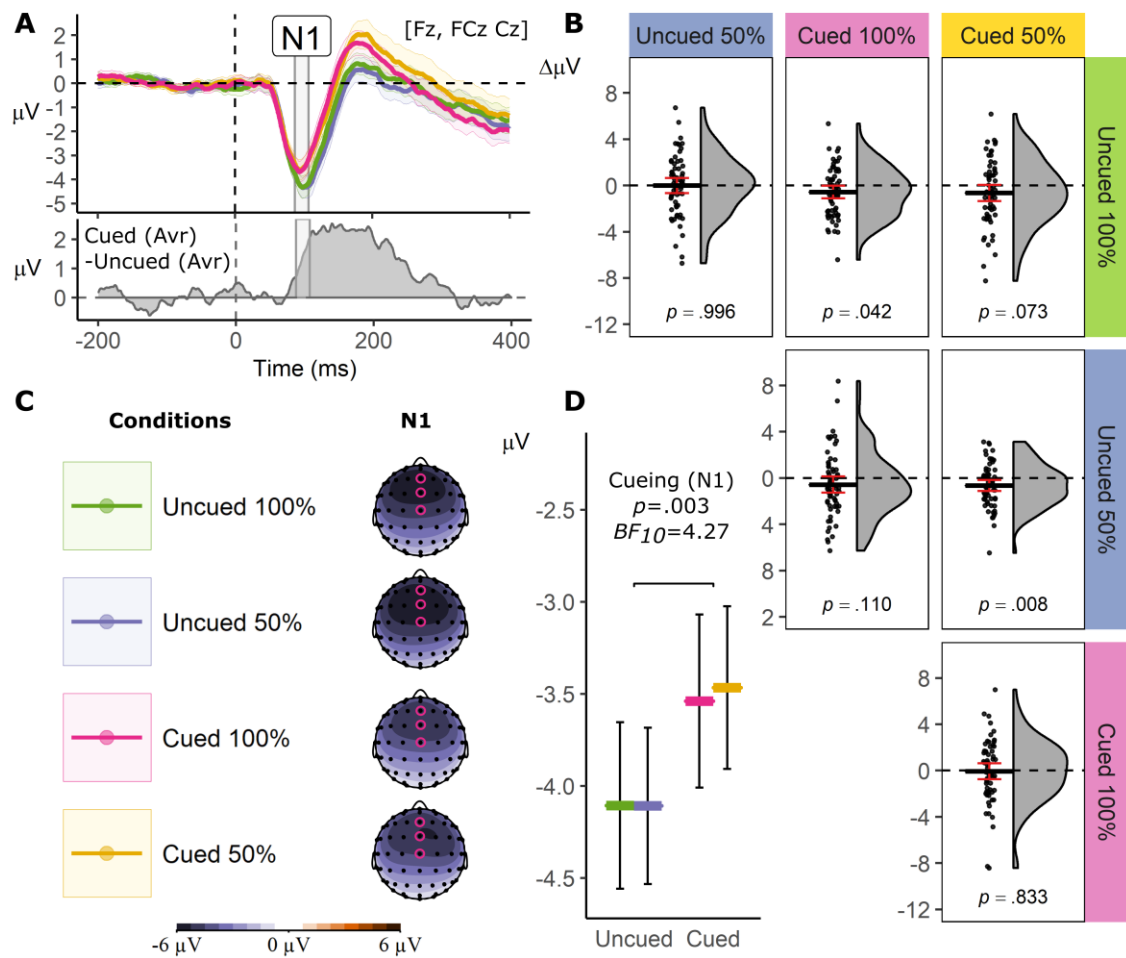
**Fig. 3:** Lateralised enactment and post-enactment potential analyses

**A.** Difference in grand-averaged voltage recordings at P5 and P6 (i.e., contralateral minus ipsilateral) for cued and uncued variants by probability condition, including 100% [M-S] (top), 50% [M-S] (middle) and 50% [M] (bottom). **B.** Difference in grand-averaged voltage recordings at P5 and P6 (i.e., contralateral minus ipsilateral) and 95% CIs by cued and uncued condition (i.e., collapsing across probabilities; top). Difference between collapsed *cued* and *uncued* conditions (bottom). **C.** Legend for panels A, E and F. **D.** Topographic voltage maps

representing mean amplitude recordings by cued and uncued condition, with  $p$ -values and Bayes Factors representing the main effect of cueing at latencies and electrodes corresponding to LEP (top) and LPP (bottom). Note that these were adjusted in the same manner as described for Fig. 2d. **E.** Within-subject differences in LEP amplitude between cued and uncued condition, with mean difference and 95% CIs. **F.** Within-subject differences in LPP amplitude between cued and uncued condition, with mean difference and 95% CIs.

### Auditory N1

A 2 x 2 repeated measures ANOVA was conducted to assess the main effects of *cueing* (i.e., cued vs. uncued) and *probability* (i.e., 50% vs. 100%), as well as their interaction, on auditory N1 amplitudes in the motor-corrected waveforms (i.e., *motor-stimulus* minus equivalent *motor* conditions). Descriptive statistics relating to the motor-corrected N1 component amplitudes are presented in Table A3, while results of the ANOVA are reported in Table A6 (see Appendix). The ANOVA revealed a statistically significant main effect for *cueing*,  $F(1, 63) = 9.671$ ,  $p = .003$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .133$ ,  $BF_{10} = 4.27E+00$  (see Fig. 4). In particular, N1 amplitudes in the *cued* conditions ( $M = -3.50$ ,  $SD = 2.38$ ) were found to be smaller (i.e., less negative) than those in the *uncued* conditions ( $M = -4.11$ ,  $SD = 2.22$ ). In contrast, the main effect of *probability* was not found to be statistically significant,  $F(1, 63) = 0.01$ ,  $p = .904$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .000$ ,  $BF_{10} = 1.38E-01$ . That is, N1 amplitudes in the 100% probability conditions ( $M = -3.82$ ,  $SD = 2.43$ ) did not differ significantly from those in the 50% probability conditions ( $M = -3.79$ ,  $SD = 2.21$ ). Similarly, the interaction between *cueing* and *probability* was not statistically significant,  $F(1, 63) = 0.05$ ,  $p = .821$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .000$ ,  $BF_{10} = 1.90E-01$ .

**Fig. 4: Motor-corrected N1 analyses**

**A.** Motor-corrected auditory evoked potentials (top), representing pooled mean amplitudes at Fz, FCz and Cz by condition, as well as 95% CIs. Difference between collapsed cued and uncued conditions (bottom), demonstrating sustained attenuation of cued conditions between approximately 100 ms and 200 ms post-stimulus.

**B.** Within-subject contrasts of N1 amplitude with mean difference and 95% CIs, as well as  $p$ -values representing the results of paired samples Student's  $t$ -tests.

**C.** Topographic voltage maps for N1 components with corresponding condition labels and legend for panels A, B and D.

**D.** Mean voltages and 95% CIs for N1 amplitudes by condition, as well as results reflecting the main effect of cueing on N1 amplitude.

## Power Analyses

Post hoc power analyses explored the power ( $1 - \beta$ ) of the sample ( $N = 64$ ) to assess small, medium and large effect sizes, according to standardised reporting conventions (Cohen, 1988). The sample was found to be sufficient to detect small ( $\eta_p^2 = .01$ ), medium ( $\eta_p^2 = .06$ ) and large ( $\eta_p^2 = .14$ ) two-level repeated measures main effects with powers of .354, .978, and  $< .999$ , respectively.

## Discussion

This investigation explored the influence of action-effect contingency on motor preparation for stimulus-driven and volitional action, as well as the processing of resultant stimuli. In addition to replicating several recent findings, we observed novel sensorimotor effects relating to both the generation of movement and stimulus processing. While our findings reflect involvement of action-effect contingency in motor preparation (i.e., reflected in RP amplitude), no such influence was apparent with respect to primary cortical response (i.e., as indicated by N1 amplitude). Contrary to our hypotheses, the influence of action-effect contingency was not found to differ between stimulus-driven and volitional action for either RP or N1 amplitudes. However, significant differences were observed in lateralised parieto-occipital activity that was observed at the time of enactment and shortly afterwards. In the following, we present a summary of these findings and synthesis with existing literature that serves to highlight the potential role of attention in distinct sensorimotor processes associated with volitional and stimulus-driven movement.

With respect to motor preparation, the amplitude of the late RP was found to be significantly larger when the probability of eliciting a tone was higher (i.e., 100% compared with 50%). This was consistent with recent evidence demonstrating that RP amplitude is influenced by action-effect contingency (Reznik et al., 2018; Vercillo et al., 2018; Wen et al.,

2018) and with theoretical frameworks emphasising the role of prediction in motor preparation (James, 1890; Wolpert et al., 1995). Although larger amplitudes were also observed for late RPs in stimulus-driven action (i.e., *cued* compared with *uncued*), caution is advised with respect to the interpretation of this effect. This is because separation of *cued* and *uncued* trials into different blocks meant that differences in the ERP associated with each form of action (i.e., post-stimulus) may have had differing effects on the baseline correction of subsequent trials (see Fig. A1). Findings demonstrated no significant influence of action-effect contingency on LRP amplitude. An interaction was also not observed between *cueing* and *probability* for either RP or LRP amplitude, with the associated Bayes Factors indicating substantial evidence in favour of a null effect. Contrary to hypotheses, these findings suggest that action-effect contingency may influence motor preparation for stimulus-driven and volitional action to similar degrees.

Exploratory analyses revealed lateralised activity in parieto-occipital regions at the moment of enactment (i.e., LEP) and shortly following (i.e., LPP), with relative positivity observed contralateral to the effector. To our knowledge, this is the first time that these components have been described and further investigation is needed to examine their specific functional properties. A tentative interpretation is nevertheless supported, based on experimental factors and shared characteristics with more established components. The N2pc is one such component that, like the LEP and LPP, involves lateralised potential over parieto-occipital regions. The N2pc, which was first described by Luck and Hillyard (1994), is observed over the hemisphere contralateral to subjects of covert visual attention. Evidence suggests that it reflects selective attentional mechanisms relating to the focus of one's spatial attention (Kiss et al., 2008). The Pd is another lateralised component that is maximal at similar scalp locations to the N2pc (Hickey et al., 2009). In contrast to the N2pc, which involves contralateral negativity reflecting enhancement of visual attention, the Pd involves

contralateral *positivity* reflecting the *suppression* of visual attention (Hickey et al., 2009).

Interestingly, a tactile equivalent to the visual N2pc has recently been described. This component, the N2cc, occurs at sites that are anterior to those used to examine the N2pc and has received growing support as an electrophysiological correlate to selective tactile attention since its discovery by Katus et al. (2014). If the N2cc has an analogous contralateral positivity that reflects suppression of tactile attention, as the Pd is to the N2pc, its topography may resemble that observed for the LEP.

Several lines of evidence indicate that the LEP may represent attentional processes that are directly involved in motor control. Significantly, the Pd has been found to reflect mechanisms that facilitate the termination of selective visuospatial attention (Sawaki et al., 2012). If the LEP is supported as an equivalent tactile component, it may therefore represent the withdrawal of tactile pre-motor attention involved in the generation of movement. That LEP amplitude was larger for stimulus-driven (i.e., *cued*) than volitional (i.e., *uncued*) action may reflect heightened motor attention during the cued task, which required that participants time their button press to coincide with passing stimulus lines. Such heightened motor attention during stimulus-driven action is consistent with evidence of increased corticospinal excitability in response to cues that have previously been paired with motor action (Tran et al., 2019).

At a theoretical level, our findings are consistent with the pre-motor account by Rizzolatti et al. (1987), which postulates that covert spatial orienting occurs prior to movement through activation of cortical circuits involved in motor preparation. This account has been supported by evidence that the speed of a saccade to a target stimulus is impaired following preparation of an alternate saccade, and that the level of inhibition increases as a function of distance between primed and target locations (Rizzolatti et al., 1987). It is proposed that this delay reflects the time taken to countervail prior orienting of attention

before replacement with alternative oculomotor programmes. Research has also demonstrated that motor preparation enhances processing of stimulus features and spatial dimensions that are relevant to planned action (Craighero et al., 1999; Fagioli et al., 2007), providing further evidence that action planning influences attentional processes. In accordance with these findings, the LEP may instantiate termination of this selective attention at the moment of enactment. However, future research is needed to distinguish the apparent role of attention from other factors influencing motor coordination, such as associations between external stimuli that occur in synchrony with action (see Moeller & Pfister, 2022).

While further investigation is needed, there are several indications that the LPP may also represent mechanisms involved in attentional suppression. Foremost, the topography of the LPP closely resembled that of the Pd (i.e., maximal effect when taken as the difference between PO7 and PO8). Research has demonstrated that the Pd may be elicited in response to the involuntary capture of attention (Sawaki & Luck, 2013). The timing of the LPP, which approximated that of the N1, may therefore reflect a role in the suppression of spatial attention to sensory outcomes of movement that have occurred during completion of each trial. In light of the fact that LPP amplitude was significantly larger for *cued* than *uncued* action, with no apparent lateralised activity in *uncued* conditions, this notion is also consistent with results pertaining to the auditory N1. That is, findings from the present investigation replicated recent research (Harrison et al., 2021) demonstrating a suppressed sensory response to stimulus-driven action (i.e., *cued* versus *uncued*). Significantly, a consistent level of suppression was observed between peaks of the N1 and P2 components in a manner reminiscent of the Nd wave generated by selective attention (see Hillyard et al., 1973). Taken together, these findings may therefore reflect multimodal attentional suppression of self-generated sensations for stimulus-driven action compared with volitional movement.

Within the active inference literature, it has been proposed that attention is used to weight sensory information in proportion to its assumed precision, serving as a form of gain control to prioritise among competing information channels (Feldman & Friston, 2010; Friston, 2009). Through this mechanism, attention may be diverted to rich sources of information and scaled according to the level of detail one intends to extract from a subject. According to this account, the allocation of attention during motor activity represents the optimal weighting of prediction error on proprioceptive channels associated with intended movement (Brown et al., 2011). In accordance with this interpretation, research suggests that corticospinal excitability during motor preparation is specific to effector muscle tracts (Mars et al., 2007) and shaped by contextual factors (Bestmann et al., 2008). With regard to present findings, attention to the sensory consequences of volitional action may be suppressed less than that of stimulus-driven action to support intention-based error monitoring (i.e., deviation between the intended and observed consequences of movement). Phenomenologically, these mechanisms may also contribute to increased conscious awareness and sense of agency over volitional action compared with that of stimulus-driven movement.

Results from the present investigation also hold significance for understanding mechanisms involved in sensory attenuation. This includes the potential role of attention, which previous literature has highlighted as a potential confound in research exploring the phenomenon (Hughes et al., 2013b). In addition to aforementioned evidence that attention is implicated in the execution of motor activity, it has long been known to influence the magnitude of neurophysiological responses to stimuli. For example, increased cortical activation has been observed when attention is focused on the ear to which sound stimuli are presented (Hillyard et al., 1973) and in response to target tone frequencies compared with distractors (Okamoto et al., 2007). Attention-mediated enhancement of cortical responsivity is believed to optimise sensory processing based on task-relevance (Näätänen & Michie,



1979), reflecting the allocation of attention to prioritised informational sources (Treisman & Gormican, 1988). For this reason, it has been posited that the phenomenon of sensory attenuation may reflect diversion of attention to effector muscles and away from resulting sensations (e.g., Horváth et al., 2012).

Crucially, action-effect contingency was not found to affect N1 amplitude and the associated Bayes Factor indicated substantial evidence in favour of a null effect. This finding suggests that one's neurophysiological response to self-generated stimuli is not affected by action-effect prediction. Significantly, this result is in contrast to the theorised operation of IFMs and other models positing suppression of anticipated sensations within primary sensory cortices. In a similar design to the present study, Harrison et al. (2021) demonstrated that the N1 amplitude elicited by self-generated tones resulting from volitional (i.e., *uncued*) action did not differ from that of externally-generated tones when these were made predictable in time. Evidence of a reduced neurophysiological response to tones that are produced by *cued* action might suggest that the phenomenon of sensory attenuation is specific to stimulus-driven movement. Findings from the present investigation may therefore suggest that sensory attenuation reflects attentional factors involved in the generation of movement and processing of subsequent sensations, rather than action-effect predictions within the internal forward model. Taken together, our results may support an account of sensory attenuation that emphasises the role of suppressive attentional mechanisms and specificity to sensations resulting from stimulus-driven action.

## Conclusions

Findings from the present investigation suggest that, despite an apparent role in motor preparation, action-effect contingency does not influence primary cortical response to resultant stimuli. Larger RP amplitudes were observed prior to action that was associated

with greater likelihood of eliciting a stimulus, including for both stimulus-driven (i.e., *cued*) and volitional (i.e., *uncued*) action. In contrast, the probability of a resulting stimulus was not found to influence the amplitude of the auditory N1 component. This is contrary to the central tenets of IFM-based models of sensory attenuation, which propose that motor commands are used to suppress self-generated sensations based on action-effect predictions.

Findings of an exploratory analysis revealed lateralised parieto-occipital activity at the time of enactment and shortly following (i.e., the LEP and LPP), which was larger for stimulus-driven than volitional action. Although further research is needed, we propose that the LEP may represent the termination of motor attention and the LPP reflects the suppression of attentional capture by resultant stimuli. Both components were found to be larger for stimulus-driven action compared with volitional action. The proposed suppressive attentional effect of the LPP is therefore consistent with reduced N1 amplitudes to sounds produced through stimulus-driven action, compared with those resulting from volitional movement.

Overall, our results suggest that sensory processing may be influenced by the nature of motor activity that has generated a stimulus though not the likelihood of resulting sensations. These findings may warrant a review of theoretical frameworks used to account for the phenomenon of sensory attenuation. We propose that the effect of sensory attenuation may differ with respect to volitional and stimulus-driven action, and is supported, at least in part, by differences in selective attention.

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## Appendix

Table A1

Readiness potential amplitudes by condition

	Early RP		Late RP		RP	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Uncued 50% [M-S]	-1.13	1.46	-2.46	2.16	-2.06	1.97
Uncued 50% [M]	-1.30	1.47	-2.38	2.86	-1.98	2.36
Uncued 100% [M-S]	-1.60	1.59	-3.16	2.44	-2.73	2.24
Cued 50% [M-S]	-2.55	2.03	-3.61	3.51	-3.62	2.95
Cued 50% [M]	-2.38	2.01	-3.45	4.16	-3.45	3.46
Cued 100% [M-S]	-3.09	2.31	-4.25	4.30	-4.54	3.66

Table A2

Lateralised component amplitudes by condition

	LRP		LEP		LPP	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Uncued 50% [M-S]	-1.51	2.12	0.90	1.34	-0.44	2.38
Uncued 50% [M]	-1.53	2.11	1.01	1.43	-0.49	2.75
Uncued 100% [M-S]	-1.45	2.51	0.89	1.51	-0.06	1.66
Cued 50% [M-S]	-1.71	2.00	1.37	2.29	0.14	2.86
Cued 50% [M]	-1.37	2.07	1.65	1.78	0.56	2.99
Cued 100% [M-S]	-1.45	2.55	1.91	1.81	1.23	3.93

Table A3

Motor-corrected N1 component amplitude by condition

	M	SD
Uncued 50% [M-S]	-4.11	2.05
Uncued 100% [M-S]	-4.11	2.39
Cued 50% [M-S]	-3.47	2.32
Cued 100% [M-S]	-3.54	2.44

Table A4

Readiness and lateralized potential ANOVA results

		$df_{num}$	$df_{den}$	$SS_{num}$	$SS_{den}$	$F$	$p$	$\eta_p^2$	$BF_{10}$
Early RP	Intercept	0.98	61.94	1,548.97	675.20	144.53	<.001	0.696	1.00E+00
	Cueing	0.89	56.06	169.60	340.96	31.34	<.001	0.332	2.12E+15
	Contingency	1.97	123.88	21.65	132.36	10.30	<.001	0.141	1.76E+00
	Cueing x Contingency	1.78	112.12	2.99	126.68	1.48	.231	0.023	8.88E-02
Late RP	Intercept	0.91	57.26	3,980.01	2,650.64	94.60	<.001	0.600	1.00E+00
	Cueing	0.94	59.38	115.79	976.91	7.47	.008	0.106	5.01E+03
	Contingency	1.82	114.52	46.65	336.19	8.74	<.001	0.122	1.65E+00
	Cueing x Contingency	1.88	118.75	0.12	253.61	0.03	.971	<.001	5.34E-02
RP	Intercept	0.93	58.86	3,602.86	1,734.47	130.86	<.001	0.675	1.00E+00
	Cueing	0.92	57.89	250.41	786.92	20.05	<.001	0.241	1.67E+10
	Contingency	1.87	117.72	63.39	294.49	13.56	<.001	0.177	1.01E-02
	Cueing x Contingency	1.84	115.78	1.85	243.27	0.48	0.620	0.008	6.21E-02
LRP	Intercept	0.66	41.29	867.72	672.97	81.23	<.001	0.563	1.00E+00
	Cueing	0.82	51.79	0.02	163.50	0.01	.928	<.001	1.16E-01
	Contingency	1.31	82.58	2.13	712.84	0.19	.829	0.003	3.72E-02
	Cueing x Contingency	1.64	103.59	2.13	342.25	0.39	.677	0.006	6.62E-02
LEP	Intercept	0.71	44.90	636.84	188.34	213.03	<.001	0.772	1.00E+00
	Cueing	0.73	46.29	47.76	122.32	24.60	<.001	0.281	3.96E+02
	Contingency	1.43	89.80	4.77	373.65	0.80	.450	0.013	6.09E-02
	Cueing x Contingency	1.47	92.59	5.12	435.49	0.74	.479	0.012	1.14E-01
LPP	Intercept	0.66	41.31	9.54	700.28	0.86	0.358	0.013	1.00E+00
	Cueing	0.72	45.27	91.72	550.88	10.49	0.002	0.143	4.64E+01
	Contingency	1.31	82.62	37.18	992.72	2.36	0.099	0.036	2.87E-01
	Cueing x Contingency	1.44	90.54	8.34	818.96	0.64	0.528	0.010	8.74E-02



Table A5

Readiness and lateralized potential contrasts and interactions

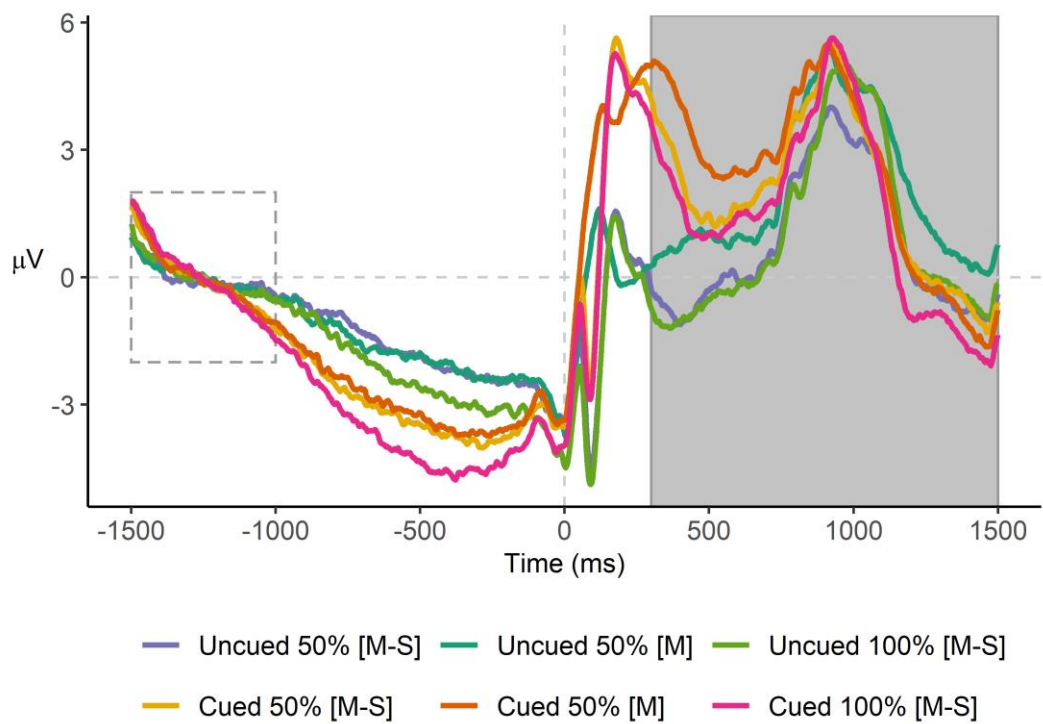
		Estimate	SE	95% CI		df	t	p	d	BF <sub>10</sub>
				Lower	Upper					
Early RP	Probability	0.13	0.07	-0.01	0.27	126	1.84	.069	0.327	1.75E+00
	Action-effect	0.08	0.12	-0.16	0.32	126	0.68	.495	0.100	1.13E-01
	Cueing	-1.33	0.14	-1.60	-1.05	189	-9.44	<.001	-1.373	9.04E+08
	Probability x Cueing	0.08	0.10	-0.12	0.27	189	0.77	.440	0.113	1.30E-01
	Action-effect x Cueing	-0.17	0.17	-0.51	0.17	189	-0.98	.327	-0.175	1.42E-01
Late RP	Probability	0.25	0.11	0.02	0.47	126	2.17	0.032	0.386	7.82E-01
	Action-effect	-0.04	0.20	-0.43	0.35	126	-0.20	0.843	-0.029	1.17E-01
	Cueing	-1.10	0.23	-1.54	-0.65	189	-4.82	<.001	-0.702	1.59E+01
	Probability x Cueing	-0.01	0.16	-0.32	0.31	189	-0.03	0.973	-0.005	1.13E-01
	Action-effect x Cueing	-0.04	0.28	-0.59	0.50	189	-0.15	0.881	-0.027	1.13E-01
RP	Probability	0.24	0.10	0.03	0.44	126	2.27	0.025	0.405	3.53E+00
	Action-effect	-0.04	0.18	-0.40	0.31	126	-0.23	0.820	-0.033	1.20E-01
	Cueing	-1.62	0.21	-2.02	-1.21	189	-7.72	<.001	-1.123	1.83E+05
	Probability x Cueing	0.09	0.15	-0.19	0.38	189	0.64	0.523	0.093	1.24E-01
	Action-effect x Cueing	-0.05	0.26	-0.55	0.46	189	-0.18	0.860	-0.031	1.14E-01
LRP	Probability	-0.02	0.10	-0.23	0.18	126	-0.22	0.828	-0.039	1.19E-01
	Action-effect	0.01	0.18	-0.34	0.37	126	0.07	0.944	0.010	1.31E-01
	Cueing	-0.01	0.17	-0.34	0.31	189	-0.09	0.929	-0.013	1.13E-01
	Probability x Cueing	-0.01	0.12	-0.24	0.22	189	-0.08	0.938	-0.011	1.13E-01
	Action-effect x Cueing	-0.18	0.20	-0.58	0.22	189	-0.89	0.376	-0.158	1.39E-01
LEP	Probability	0.02	0.09	-0.15	0.19	126	0.26	0.799	0.045	1.63E-01
	Action-effect	-0.05	0.15	-0.35	0.24	126	-0.36	0.722	-0.052	1.65E-01
	Cueing	0.71	0.18	0.36	1.05	189	4.02	<.001	0.585	2.39E+02

	Probability x Cueing	-0.16	0.12	-0.40	0.09	189	-1.26	0.211	-0.183	2.34E-01
	Action-effect x Cueing	-0.09	0.21	-0.51	0.33	189	-0.40	0.691	-0.071	1.21E-01
LPP	Probability	-0.13	0.14	-0.41	0.14	126	-0.95	0.343	-0.170	8.58E-01
	Action-effect	0.02	0.24	-0.45	0.50	126	0.10	0.923	0.014	1.28E-01
	Cueing	0.98	0.27	0.44	1.52	189	3.56	<.001	0.518	2.43E+01
	Probability x Cueing	-0.16	0.19	-0.54	0.22	189	-0.82	0.412	-0.120	1.50E-01
	Action-effect x Cueing	-0.23	0.34	-0.89	0.43	189	-0.69	0.492	-0.123	1.38E-01

Table A6

Motor-corrected N1 ANOVA results

	$df_{num}$	$df_{den}$	$SS_{num}$	$SS_{den}$	$F$	$p$	$\eta_p^2$	$BF_{10}$
Intercept	1	63	3,705.41	733.78	318.13	<.001	0.835	1.00E+00
Probability	1	63	0.08	345.44	0.01	.904	<.001	1.38E-01
Cueing	1	63	23.39	152.39	9.67	.003	0.133	4.27E+00
Cueing x Probability	1	63	0.09	109.34	0.05	.821	0.001	1.90E-01

**Fig. A1:** Uncued and cued motor-stimulus block full epochs

*Note.* Shading indicates portion of epochs that may have been captured in the baseline correction period of subsequent trials (i.e., -1500 ms to -1000 ms, with a minimum ITI of 1800 ms).