

RESEARCH ARTICLE | *Control of Movement*

# Interference between competing motor memories developed through learning with different limbs

Neeraj Kumar,<sup>1</sup> Adarsh Kumar,<sup>2</sup> Bhoomika Sonane,<sup>1</sup> and Pratik K. Mutha<sup>1,3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Centre for Cognitive Science, Indian Institute of Technology Gandhinagar, Gujarat, India; <sup>2</sup>Department of Mechanical Engineering, Indian Institute of Technology Gandhinagar, Gujarat, India; and <sup>3</sup>Department of Biological Engineering, Indian Institute of Technology Gandhinagar, Gujarat, India

Submitted 19 December 2017; accepted in final form 11 May 2018

**Kumar N, Kumar A, Sonane B, Mutha PK.** Interference between competing motor memories developed through learning with different limbs. *J Neurophysiol* 120: 1061–1073, 2018. First published May 23, 2018; doi:10.1152/jn.00905.2017.—Learning from motor errors that occur across different limbs is essential for effective tool use, sports training, and rehabilitation. To probe the neural organization of error-driven learning across limbs, we asked whether learning opposing visuomotor mappings with the two arms would interfere. Young right-handers first adapted to opposite visuomotor *rotations A* and *B* with different arms and were then reexposed to *A* 24 h later. We observed that relearning of *A* was never faster nor were initial errors smaller than prior *A* learning, which would be expected if there was no interference from *B*. Rather, errors were greater than or similar to, and learning rate was slower than or comparable to, previous *A* learning depending on the order in which the arms learned. This indicated robust interference between the motor memories of *A* and *B* when they were learned with different arms in close succession. We then proceeded to uncover that the order-dependent asymmetry in performance upon reexposure resulted from asymmetric transfer of learning from the left arm to the right but not vice versa and that the observed interference was retrograde in nature. Such retrograde interference likely occurs because the two arms require the same neural resources for learning, a suggestion consistent with that of our past work showing impaired learning following left inferior parietal damage regardless of the arm used. These results thus point to a common neural basis for formation of new motor memories with different limbs and hold significant implications for how newly formed motor memories interact.

**NEW & NOTEWORTHY** In a series of experiments, we demonstrate robust retrograde interference between competing motor memories developed through error-based learning with different arms. These results provide evidence for shared neural resources for the acquisition of motor memories across different limbs and also suggest that practice with two effectors in close succession may not be a sound approach in either sports or rehabilitation. Such training may not allow newly acquired motor memories to be stabilized.

generalization; interlimb transfer; motor learning; retrograde interference; visuomotor adaptation

## INTRODUCTION

Understanding the mechanisms and neural organization of motor learning has been a long-standing pursuit in motor neuroscience, particularly because it is thought to have implications for movement rehabilitation following neurological injury. Motor learning has been studied largely in the context of motor adaptation, which requires learning to adjust motor output to compensate for the effects of novel but predictable visuomotor or dynamic perturbations. Studies on adaptation have revealed that it is driven by a variety of processes, including development of a new internal model or representation of the relationship between movement and its sensory consequences (Gandolfo et al. 1996; Imamizu et al. 1995; Sainburg et al. 1999; Shadmehr and Mussa-Ivaldi 1994; Wang and Sainburg 2005), explicit learning strategies (Heuer and Hegele 2008; 2011; Taylor et al. 2014), and operant mechanisms (Classen et al. 1998; Diedrichsen et al. 2010; Huang et al. 2011; Verstynen and Sabes 2011).

Further insight about these mechanisms that mediate learning and the nature of the resulting motor memories can be obtained by examining how learning generalizes to unpracticed conditions, a principle that in fact applies to multiple learning systems such as the declarative (Alvarez and Squire 1994) and perceptual (Yotsumoto et al. 2009) systems. Some studies on motor memory generalization have revealed that the memories developed via motor adaptation comprise of both effector-dependent and effector-independent components (Wang and Lei 2015; Wang et al. 2015). Effector independence has been surmised from the finding that learning with one effector often generalizes or “transfers” to another, untrained effector. However, there is tremendous heterogeneity in findings of transfer: it depends on a variety of factors including, but not limited to, handedness, movement kinematics, and the perceived source of errors (Lefumat et al. 2015). Furthermore, transfer is often variable in magnitude (Joiner et al. 2013; Wang et al. 2015), is asymmetric (Crisicimagna-Hemmingner et al. 2003; Wang and Sainburg 2004a), may be influenced by coordinate frames in which learning occurs (Carroll et al. 2014; Poh et al. 2016), and may not even occur at all (Bock et al. 2005). Such diversity in findings on inter-effector transfer makes clear interpretations about the effector independence of the motor memories quite challenging.

Address for reprint requests and other correspondence: P. Mutha, Block 5, Rm. 316A, Indian Institute of Technology Gandhinagar, Palaj, Gandhinagar 382355, Gujarat, India (e-mail: pm@iitgn.ac.in).

An alternative approach to understand effector independence of motor memories may be to examine whether and how motor memories developed through learning with different limbs interfere. Interference occurs when two opposing visuomotor mappings or force perturbations (say *A* and *B*) are learned in close succession (Brashers-Krug et al. 1996; Goedert and Willingham 2002; Krakauer et al. 1999; Miall et al. 2004). The memory for *A* is generally examined 24 h after it is initially learned. If upon reexposure, errors during the initial trials are smaller and/or *A* is relearned faster than naïve *A* learning, it is thought that the intervening learning of *B* did not interfere with the memory of *A*. In contrast, similar or greater errors on reexposure, or relearning at a slower or even comparable rate, are indicators that the learning of *B* interfered with the memory of *A*. Interference presumably occurs because *A* and *B* compete for the same neural resources during learning, which is actually not surprising because *A* and *B* are often of the same type and the same arm is used to learn both (Wigmore et al. 2002). It has been proposed that to prevent interference, *A* and *B* must be associated with distinct movement contexts, which presumably sets different neural states during learning and allows *A* and *B* to be learned and remembered simultaneously (Cothros et al. 2009; Hirashima and Nozaki 2012; Howard et al. 2013; Nozaki et al. 2006; Sheahan et al. 2016).

The interference paradigm, although very attractive, has surprisingly not been fully exploited to understand learning across different effectors and interlimb interactions following such learning. The few studies that have examined whether opposing perturbations can be learned if they are associated with different limbs have largely shown no interference between the memories developed as a consequence of learning (Bock et al. 2005; Galea and Miall 2006). This may be because use of the two limbs involves distinct sensorimotor transformations, which may be mediated by activation in distinct neuronal populations. As stated earlier, these differences in activity patterns could provide distinct contextual cues during learning, thereby allowing opposing perturbations to be learned. However, if motor memories developed through such learning comprise of effector-independent components as suggested by studies on transfer, interference should be evident. Here we attempted to reconcile these contradictory positions and investigated whether competing motor memories developed through adaptation to two opposing visuomotor mappings with different arms would interfere. In a series of experiments, we found robust interference between these newly formed motor memories. We also noted that this interference is retrograde in nature and likely occurs because a new memory developed through learning with one arm erases a prior memory developed with the other. Such interference holds significant implications for how newly formed motor memories interact.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### Subjects

A total of 48 young, healthy, right-handed individuals (39 men, 9 women, age range: 20–30 yr) participated in the study. Handedness was assessed using the Edinburgh handedness inventory (Oldfield 1971). Subjects did not report any neurological disorders, cognitive impairment, or orthopedic injuries. All subjects provided written informed consent before participation and were paid for their time.

The study was approved by the Institute Ethics Committee of the Indian Institute of Technology Gandhinagar.

### Apparatus

The experimental setup comprised of a virtual reality system in which subjects sat facing a large, horizontally placed digitizing tablet (Calcomp) and used a stylus to make planar movements on it (Fig. 1A). The position of the hand (stylus) was represented as a cursor on a horizontally mounted high-definition television placed above the tablet. A circular start position and circular targets were also displayed. A mirror was placed between the television screen and the arms to reflect the projected display and to block vision of the arm itself. The position of the cursor could either be veridical or distorted relative to the motion of the hand.

### Task Procedure

After familiarization with the setup and a few practice movements, subjects performed 13-cm long reaching movements from a central start circle (1.5-cm diameter) to eight radially arranged targets (2.5-cm diameter), spaced 45° apart from each other. To initiate a trial, subjects first brought the cursor into the start circle and stayed in it for 500 ms to get one of the eight targets along with an audiovisual “go” cue. The order of target presentation was decided pseudorandomly before the experiment such that each target appeared only once over eight consecutive trials (1 cycle) and there was no sequential presentation of the set of eight targets. This order was then kept the same for all subjects and experimental conditions. Thus all subjects made movements to the same target on any “*i*th” trial. Subjects were instructed to make fast and accurate movements to a displayed target. Numerical points were given based on movement accuracy. If the movement ended within the target, 10 points were given; if it ended outside the target but within 2.5 cm from the edge of the target, 5 points were given; no points were given if the end point of the movement was beyond this distance. Points did not influence the payment the subject received at the end of the experiment. Points were also not analyzed.

*Experiment 1.* In our first experiment, subjects were required to adapt their movements to a new mapping (visuomotor rotation) between hand motion and its visual feedback (on-screen cursor). Subjects were divided into four groups. Subjects in *group 1* ( $n = 8$ , Fig. 1B, *top left*) first adapted a 30° clockwise rotation by performing 256 trials with their right arm ( $CW_{R,1}$ ), followed by adaptation to a 30° counterclockwise rotation with the left arm (256 trials,  $CCW_{L,1}$ ). The same start position and targets were used for both arms, subjects made 32 movements to each target, and the rotation was applied on all 256 trials. Subjects were then reexposed to the clockwise rotation 24 h later and were required to adapt to it using their right arm ( $CW_{R,2}$ ). Subjects again performed 256 trials. The signature of interference in *group 1* would be either greater or even similar errors initially and/or a slower or similar learning rate during  $CW_{R,2}$  compared with  $CW_{R,1}$ . However, this comparison alone is not enough, since it must also be shown that initial  $CW_{R,2}$  errors are smaller or learning is faster than  $CW_{R,1}$  learning in a group that does not learn the intervening  $CCW_{L,1}$ . We therefore included a control group ( $n = 8$ , *group 2*, Fig. 1B, *top right*) that performed the same task but did not undergo left arm adaptation. Thus they learned  $CW_{R,1}$  and were directly exposed to  $CW_{R,2}$  24 h later (256 trials in each session). A separate group of subjects ( $n = 8$ , *group 3*, Fig. 1B, *middle left*) did the task in the reverse order. These subjects first adapted over 256 trials to the 30° clockwise rotation with the left arm ( $CW_{L,1}$ ), followed by adaptation to a 30° counterclockwise rotation with the right arm ( $CCW_{R,1}$ ) thereafter (256 trials). They were then reexposed with their left arm (256 trials) to the clockwise rotation 24 h later ( $CW_{L,2}$ ), and their performance was compared with another control group ( $n = 8$ , *group 4*, *middle right*) that simply practiced  $CW_{L,1}$  and was reexposed to the



that the time duration between  $CW_{R,1}$  and the subsequent  $N_{L,1}$   $CCW_{L,1}$  blocks of trials was increased to 24 h. As in *experiment 2*, subjects ( $n = 8$ , *group 6*) were retested on the  $N_{R,2}CW_{R,2}$  trials 24 h after their  $CCW_{L,1}$  learning (Fig. 1B, *bottom right*). Thus we still followed a  $N_{R,1}CW_{R,1}-N_{L,1}CCW_{L,1}-N_{R,2}CW_{R,2}$  paradigm but with a 24 h gap between the initial adaptation episodes (i.e., between  $CW_{R,1}$  and  $CCW_{L,1}$ ). We expected that if the interference between these memories is indeed retrograde, increasing the time duration between their initial learning experiences would lead to a reduction in interference, a classic signature of a retrograde process.

### Data Analysis

Kinematic data were filtered using a low-pass Butterworth filter with a cutoff frequency of 10 Hz. Position data were differentiated to provide velocity values. Adaptation to the rotation was quantified as a reduction in movement direction error across trials; these errors were calculated as the angle between the line connecting the start position and the target, and the line connecting the start position and hand position at peak tangential velocity. The rate of adaptation was quantified by robust fitting a single-rate exponential function of the form

$$y = C \times \exp^{-\beta \times x} \quad (1)$$

to the direction error data, where  $y$  represents the error,  $C$  is a constant,  $x$  represents trial number, and  $\beta$  is the learning rate. Both, the constant  $C$  and the learning rate were estimated separately for each subject in each condition. The details of the statistical tests used for comparing the different groups are provided along with the corresponding results. Effect sizes are reported as Cohen's  $d_z$  or Cohen's  $d_x$  for paired and unpaired comparisons respectively (Lakens 2013). The significance threshold for all comparisons was set at 0.05.

## RESULTS

### Experiment 1: Opposing Motor Memories Developed with the Two Limbs Interfere

In *experiment 1*, subjects in *group 1* adapted in a  $CW_{R,1}-CCW_{L,1}-CW_{R,2}$  order. All these subjects showed canonical learning patterns for the  $CW_{R,1}$  block: their movement trajectories were curved upon initial exposure to the rotation (Fig. 2A, thick red) and gradually became straighter (Fig. 2B, thin red), which was also reflected as a reduction in initial direction errors with practice (Fig. 2E, red).  $CCW_{L,1}$  learning appeared similar to  $CW_{R,1}$  learning with curved trajectories initially (Fig. 2C), straightening of these trajectories over time (Fig. 2D) and a gradual reduction of motor errors with practice (Fig. 2E, green). Learning rates (Table 1) were not significantly

different for the two arms [paired  $t$ -test,  $t_{(7)} = 0.46$ ,  $P = 0.66$ , 95% confidence interval (CI) =  $(-0.017, 0.026)$ , Cohen's  $d_z = 0.162$ ; Fig. 2F].

When *group 1* subjects were reexposed to the clockwise rotation 24 h later, their early  $CW_{R,2}$  trajectories were more deviated (Fig. 2A, thick blue) and they showed larger errors on the first trial (Table 2) compared with  $CW_{R,1}$  learning. In contrast, control subjects (*group 2*) who did not undergo any left arm  $CCW_{L,1}$  training between  $CW_{R,1}$  and  $CW_{R,2}$  showed substantial retention of the  $CW_{R,1}$  memory. These subjects showed less deviated trajectories during the early  $CW_{R,2}$  trials (Fig. 2G, compare thick blue to thick red), which then also quickly straightened (Fig. 2H, thin blue). Averaging across subjects in *group 2*, the  $CW_{R,2}$  errors appeared smaller on the initial trials (Table 2 and Fig. 2I, blue vs. red profiles).

Statistical confirmation of these results was obtained via a two-way ANOVA with group (*group 1* and *group 2*) and learning block ( $CW_{R,1}$  and  $CW_{R,2}$ ) as factors. The ANOVA revealed a significant interaction effect for the direction error on the first trial [ $F_{(1,14)} = 17.05$ ,  $P = 0.0010$ ]. Tukey's post hoc tests confirmed that while the errors in the  $CW_{R,1}$  block were not different between the groups ( $P = 0.6344$ , Table 2), errors in the  $CW_{R,2}$  block were far greater for *group 1* (the group that also practiced  $CCW_{L,1}$ ) than *group 2* ( $P = 0.0019$ , Table 2). Importantly,  $CW_{R,2}$  errors for subjects in *group 1* were also greater than their own  $CW_{R,1}$  errors ( $P = 0.04$ , Table 2). There was also main effect of group [ $F_{(1,14)} = 6.97$ ,  $P = 0.02$ ], but the main effect of learning block was not significant [ $F_{(1,14)} = 0.0001$ ,  $P = 0.99$ ]. Subjects in *group 1* also adapted more slowly during the  $CW_{R,2}$  block than  $CW_{R,1}$  learning [paired  $t$ -test,  $t_{(7)} = 2.53$ ,  $P = 0.039$ , 95%CI =  $(0.001, 0.02)$ , Cohen's  $d_z = 0.9$ ; Fig. 2C, Table 1]. Such a decrement in  $CW_{R,2}$  learning in *group 1* reflected interference between the  $CW_{R,1}$  and  $CCW_{L,1}$  memories developed through learning with the two arms.

Interference was also evident for subjects in *group 3*, who used the two arms in the reverse order ( $CW_{L,1}-CCW_{R,1}-CW_{L,2}$ ). In this group, left arm  $CW_{L,1}$  trajectories were curved upon initial exposure to the rotation (Fig. 3A, thick red) but became straighter with practice (Fig. 3B, thin red). Direction errors also decreased over time as expected (Fig. 3E, red). When the right arm was subsequently exposed to the counter-clockwise rotation ( $CCW_{R,1}$ ), errors on the first trial were significantly greater than  $30^\circ$  [ $t_{(7)} = 7.05$ ,  $P < 0.001$ , 95%CI =  $(42.42, 54.944)$ ; Table 2 and Fig. 3C] but became close to zero

Fig. 1. A: experimental setup comprising of a pseudo virtual reality system that restricted movements to the horizontal plane. Subjects performed arm-reaching movements on a digitizing tablet while looking into a mirror placed between the tablet and a horizontally mounted high-definition television (HDTV). Feedback about hand position was displayed via the HDTV onto the mirror by means of a cursor. B: trial structure across the different subject groups. Subjects in *group 1* (*top left*) first adapted to a  $30^\circ$  clockwise rotation with their right arm ( $CW_{R,1}$ , red) followed by adaptation to a counterclockwise rotation with their left arm ( $CCW_{L,1}$ , green). They were then required to readapt to the clockwise rotation 24 h later with their right arm ( $CW_{R,2}$ , blue). Subjects in *group 2* (*top right*) first adapted to the same clockwise rotation with their right arm ( $CW_{R,1}$ , red) and were then directly reexposed to the same rotation 24 h later ( $CW_{R,2}$ , blue). This group thus did not use their left arm at all. Subjects in *group 3* (*middle left*) adapted to the rotations in the reverse arm order. These subjects were first exposed to the clockwise rotation with their left arm ( $CW_{L,1}$ , red) and then adapted to a counterclockwise rotation with their right arm ( $CCW_{R,1}$ , green). They were then required to readapt to the original clockwise rotation, again with their left arm, 24 h later ( $CW_{L,2}$ , blue). In contrast, subjects in *group 4* (*middle right*) adapted to the clockwise rotation with their left arm ( $CW_{L,1}$ , red) and readapted to the same rotation 24 h later with the same arm ( $CW_{L,2}$ , blue). This group thus did not undergo any adaptation with their right arm. In *experiment 2*, subjects in *group 5* (*bottom left*) first performed a set of null trials with their right arm ( $N_{R,1}$ , red) and were then exposed to the clockwise rotation with the same arm ( $CW_{R,1}$ , red). After right arm adaptation, these subjects performed a set of null trials with their left arm ( $N_{L,1}$ , green), which was followed by adaptation to the counterclockwise rotation with the left arm ( $CCW_{L,1}$ , green). Twenty-four hours later, these subjects were reexposed to null trials with their right arm ( $N_{R,2}$ , blue) followed by reexposure to the original clockwise rotation also with the right arm ( $CW_{R,2}$ , blue). Subjects in *group 6* (*experiment 3, bottom right*) followed the exact same paradigm as subjects in *group 5*, except that the gap between the  $N_{R,1}CW_{R,1}$  and the  $N_{L,1}CCW_{L,1}$  trial sets was increased to 24 h. All learning blocks comprised of 256 trials while all null blocks had 64 trials.

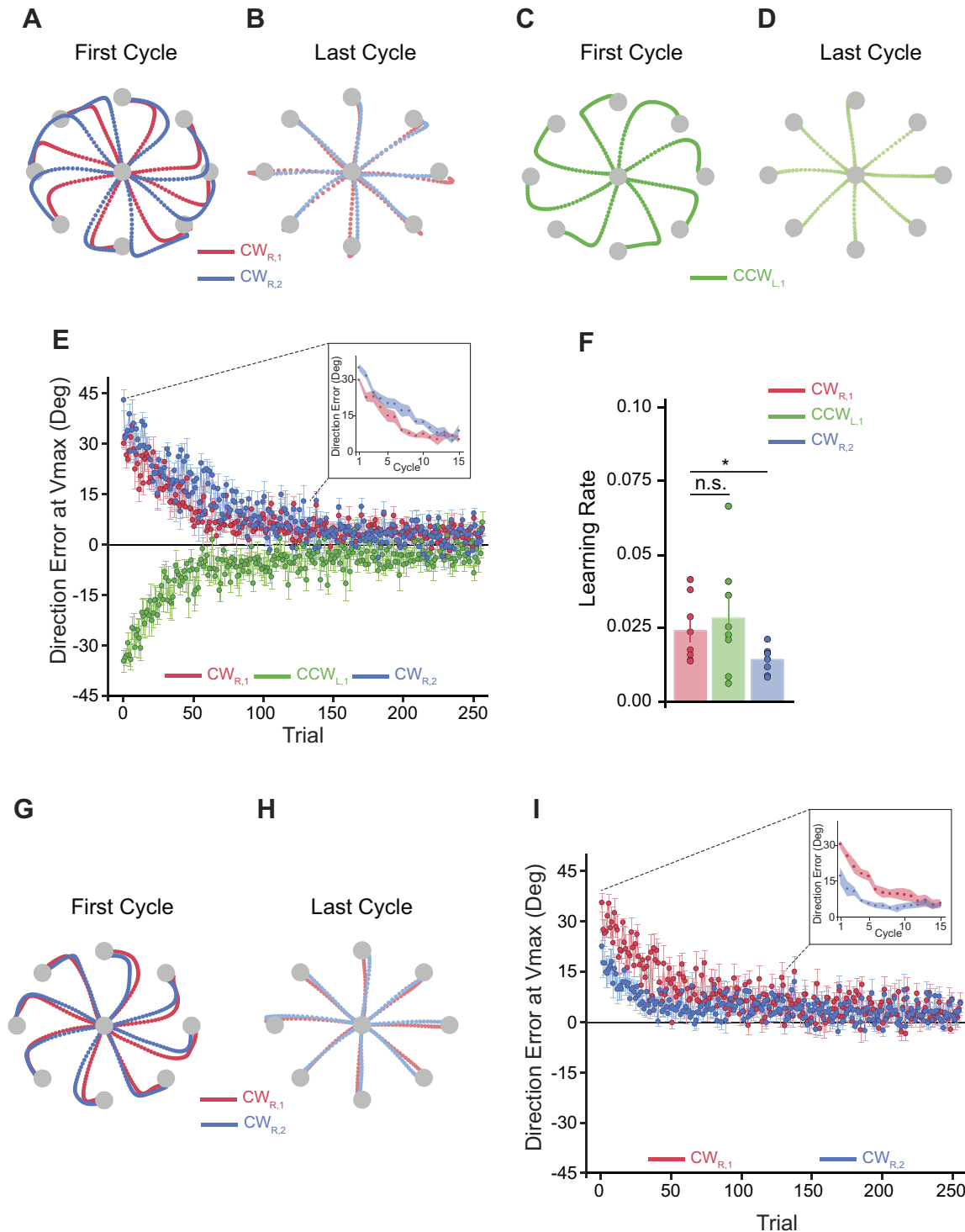


Fig. 2. Interference occurs when the 2 arms adapt to opposing rotations in close succession. *A*: cursor trajectories on the 1st cycle of movements to the 8 targets during the right arm clockwise [ $CW_{R,1}$  (thick red) and  $CW_{R,2}$  (thick blue)] rotation learning blocks for subjects in *group 1*. *B*: cursor trajectories on the last cycle of movements of the left arm counterclockwise [ $CCW_{L,1}$  (thick green) and  $CW_{R,2}$  (thin blue) blocks. *C* and *D*: cursor trajectories on the 1st cycle of movements of the left arm counterclockwise [ $CCW_{L,1}$  (thick green); *C*] rotation learning block and the last cycle of the  $CCW_{L,1}$  block (thin green; *D*). Note that the order of the blocks was  $CW_{R,1}$ - $CCW_{L,1}$ - $CW_{R,2}$  but the  $CW_{R,1}$  and  $CW_{R,2}$  trajectories are overlaid to clearly show the difference between them on the 1st and last cycles of movements. *E*: change in mean direction error across trials for subjects in *group 1*. Error bars represent SE across subjects. The red, green, and blue profiles represent the  $CW_{R,1}$ ,  $CCW_{L,1}$ , and the  $CW_{R,2}$  learning blocks, respectively. *Inset*: errors across cycles (mean of 8 movements) for the 1st 15 cycles. Shaded area in the *inset* represents SE. Note that the errors in  $CW_{R,2}$  were greater initially compared with  $CW_{R,1}$  errors. *F*: values are means  $\pm$  SE learning rate for the  $CW_{R,1}$  (red),  $CCW_{L,1}$  (green), and  $CW_{R,2}$  (blue) blocks for *group 1*. Dots represent the learning rate for individual subjects. *G*: cursor trajectories on the 1st cycle of movements for subjects in *group 2* during the  $CW_{R,1}$  (red) and  $CW_{R,2}$  (blue) learning blocks. These subjects did not undergo any adaptation with their left arm between these 2 right arm adaptation blocks. *H*: cursor trajectories on the last cycle for these subjects. *I*: change in mean direction error across trials for subjects in *group 2*. Error bars represent SE across subjects. The red and blue profiles represent the  $CW_{R,1}$  and  $CW_{R,2}$  blocks, respectively. *Inset*: errors across cycles for the 1st 15 cycles. Shaded area in the *inset* represents SE. Note that the errors in  $CW_{R,2}$  were smaller initially compared with  $CW_{R,1}$  errors in these subjects. \*Statistically significant differences,  $P < 0.05$ .

Table 1. Experimental condition, movement duration, learning rate, and  $R^2$  of fit

Experiment/Group/ Learning Block	Movement Duration, ms	Learning Rate	$R^2$ of Fit
<i>Experiment 1</i>			
<i>Group 1</i>			
CW <sub>R,1</sub>	905 ± 106	0.024 ± 0.004	0.89 ± 0.06
CCW <sub>L,1</sub>	960 ± 103	0.028 ± 0.007	0.80 ± 0.08
CW <sub>R,2</sub>	948 ± 111	0.014 ± 0.002	0.86 ± 0.07
<i>Group 3</i>			
CW <sub>L,1</sub>	665 ± 111	0.018 ± 0.002	0.73 ± 0.05
CCW <sub>R,1</sub>	787 ± 13	0.011 ± 0.001	0.87 ± 0.06
CW <sub>L,2</sub>	863 ± 47	0.019 ± 0.001	0.76 ± 0.07
<i>Experiment 2</i>			
<i>Group 5</i>			
CW <sub>R,1</sub>	915 ± 103	0.018 ± 0.002	0.81 ± 0.07
CCW <sub>L,1</sub>	975 ± 113	0.02 ± 0.003	0.89 ± 0.07
CW <sub>R,2</sub>	923 ± 108	0.019 ± 0.004	0.87 ± 0.08
<i>Experiment 3</i>			
<i>Group 6</i>			
CW <sub>R,1</sub>	761 ± 11	0.022 ± 0.002	0.84 ± 0.06
CCW <sub>L,1</sub>	716 ± 19	0.021 ± 0.001	0.86 ± 0.06
CW <sub>R,2</sub>	648 ± 5	0.078 ± 0.012	0.78 ± 0.09

Values are means ± SE. CW, clockwise; CCW, counterclockwise; R, right; L, left; 1 and 2, sessions 1 and 2.

over time (Fig. 3, D and E, green). This reduction in error was slower compared with prior CW<sub>L,1</sub> learning [paired *t*-test,  $t_{(7)} = 3.48$ ,  $P = 0.01$ , 95%CI = (0.002,0.012), Cohen's  $d_z = 1.23$ ; Table 1 and Fig. 3F] as well as naïve CW<sub>R,1</sub> learning of *group 1* [unpaired *t*-test,  $t_{(14)} = -3.39$ ,  $P = 0.004$ , 95%CI = (-0.022,-0.005), Cohen's  $d_s = 1.3$ ]. When the left arm was reexposed to the clockwise rotation 24 h later (CW<sub>L,2</sub>), we found that subjects in *group 3* did not show larger errors on the initial trials as was the case for CW<sub>R,2</sub> learning of *group 1* (see Table 2 for mean values). The overall learning pattern also did not appear to be very distinct from CW<sub>L,1</sub> learning. Left arm trajectories on the early and late rotation trials of the two sessions largely overlapped (compare red and blue trajectories of Fig. 3, A and B), as did the learning curves (compare red and blue profiles in Fig. 3E). This was in contrast to another control group (*group 4*), which did not learn CCW<sub>R,1</sub> between the CW<sub>L,1</sub> and CW<sub>L,2</sub> sessions. Like *group 2*, subjects in *group 4* showed retention of prior learning when they were reexposed to the rotation: their trajectories appeared less deviated (Fig. 3G, compared thick blue profiles to thick red trajectories) and became straight with continued exposure (Fig. 3H). These subjects had smaller errors on the initial trials during CW<sub>L,2</sub> learning compared with CW<sub>L,1</sub> (Table 2 and Fig. 3I).

These trends were statistically confirmed by means of an ANOVA that included group (*group 3* and *group 4*) and learning block (CW<sub>L,1</sub> and CW<sub>L,2</sub>) as factors. We observed significant main effects for both group [ $F_{(1,14)} = 6.13$ ,  $P = 0.03$ ] and learning block [ $F_{(1,14)} = 9.24$ ,  $P = 0.01$ ]. More importantly, however, there was also a significant group × learning block interaction [ $F_{(1,14)} = 6.85$ ,  $P = 0.0202$ ], with post hoc tests revealing that while errors on the first trial were smaller in CW<sub>L,2</sub> compared with CW<sub>L,1</sub> for *group 4* ( $P = 0.0063$ ; Table 2), there was no difference between the initial CW<sub>L,2</sub> and CW<sub>L,1</sub> errors for *group 3* ( $P = 0.9903$ ; Table 2). Furthermore, there was no significant difference in the learning rate during the CW<sub>L,1</sub> and CW<sub>L,2</sub> blocks for the subjects in

*group 3* [paired *t*-test,  $t_{(7)} = -0.65$ ,  $P = 0.53$ , 95%CI = (-0.008,0.005), Cohen's  $d_z = 0.23$ ; Fig. 3F]. Given the strong retention of the CW<sub>L,1</sub> memory in the group that did not practice CCW<sub>R,1</sub> (*group 4*), the overlap seen in *group 3* cannot be attributed to some default inability to retain left arm learning. Rather, this is a signature of interference from the prior CCW<sub>R,1</sub> memory. To summarize, in *experiment 1*, we noted that 1) the right arm always showed larger errors initially and learned more slowly when it followed left arm adaptation but not vice versa, and 2) the learning of opposing mappings with the two limbs in close succession led to substantial interference between the two motor memories.

#### Experiment 2: Interference Persists Despite Removal of Anterograde Effects

We posited that these effects could arise due to a combination of factors: 1) intereffector transfer of learning: the decrement in performance with the right arm following left arm adaptation could occur because aftereffects of left arm training persist and transfer to the right arm (but not vice versa), 2) anterograde interference: the observed interference between the two motor memories could occur because a memory developed after learning with one arm blocks subsequent learning with a different arm giving rise to interference, and/or 3) retrograde interference: the interference could occur because a newly formed memory erases a prior memory developed with the other arm or blocks its retrieval. To distinguish between these, in a new experiment (*experiment 2*), we exposed a new set of subjects (*group 5*) to null

Table 2. Experimental condition and direction error on 1st trial

Experiment/Group/Learning Block	Direction Error on 1st Trial
<i>Experiment 1</i>	
<i>Group 1</i>	
CW <sub>R,1</sub>	31.17 ± 1.17
CCW <sub>L,1</sub>	-34.69 ± 3.26
CW <sub>R,2</sub>	43.12 ± 3.12
<i>Group 2</i>	
CW <sub>R,1</sub>	35.52 ± 2.79
CW <sub>R,2</sub>	22.50 ± 4.20
<i>Group 3</i>	
CW <sub>L,1</sub>	32.04 ± 0.72
CCW <sub>R,1</sub>	-48.68 ± 2.64
CW <sub>L,2</sub>	31.43 ± 1.58
<i>Group 4</i>	
CW <sub>L,1</sub>	29.47 ± 2.81
CW <sub>L,2</sub>	21.32 ± 2.51
<i>Experiment 2</i>	
<i>Group 5</i>	
N <sub>R,1</sub>	-4.72 ± 1.35
CW <sub>R,1</sub>	36.21 ± 1.57
N <sub>L,1</sub>	1.76 ± 2.53
CCW <sub>L,1</sub>	-25.85 ± 1.91
N <sub>R,2</sub>	19.49 ± 2.81
CW <sub>R,2</sub>	33.17 ± 1.86
<i>Experiment 3</i>	
<i>Group 6</i>	
N <sub>R,1</sub>	1.98 ± 0.78
CW <sub>R,1</sub>	34.35 ± 1.76
N <sub>L,1</sub>	0.89 ± 1.57
CCW <sub>L,1</sub>	-34.78 ± 3.74
N <sub>R,2</sub>	18.24 ± 1.66
CW <sub>R,2</sub>	31.61 ± 1.29

Values are means ± SE. CW, clockwise; CCW, counterclockwise; N, null trial; R, right; L, left; 1 and 2, sessions 1 and 2.

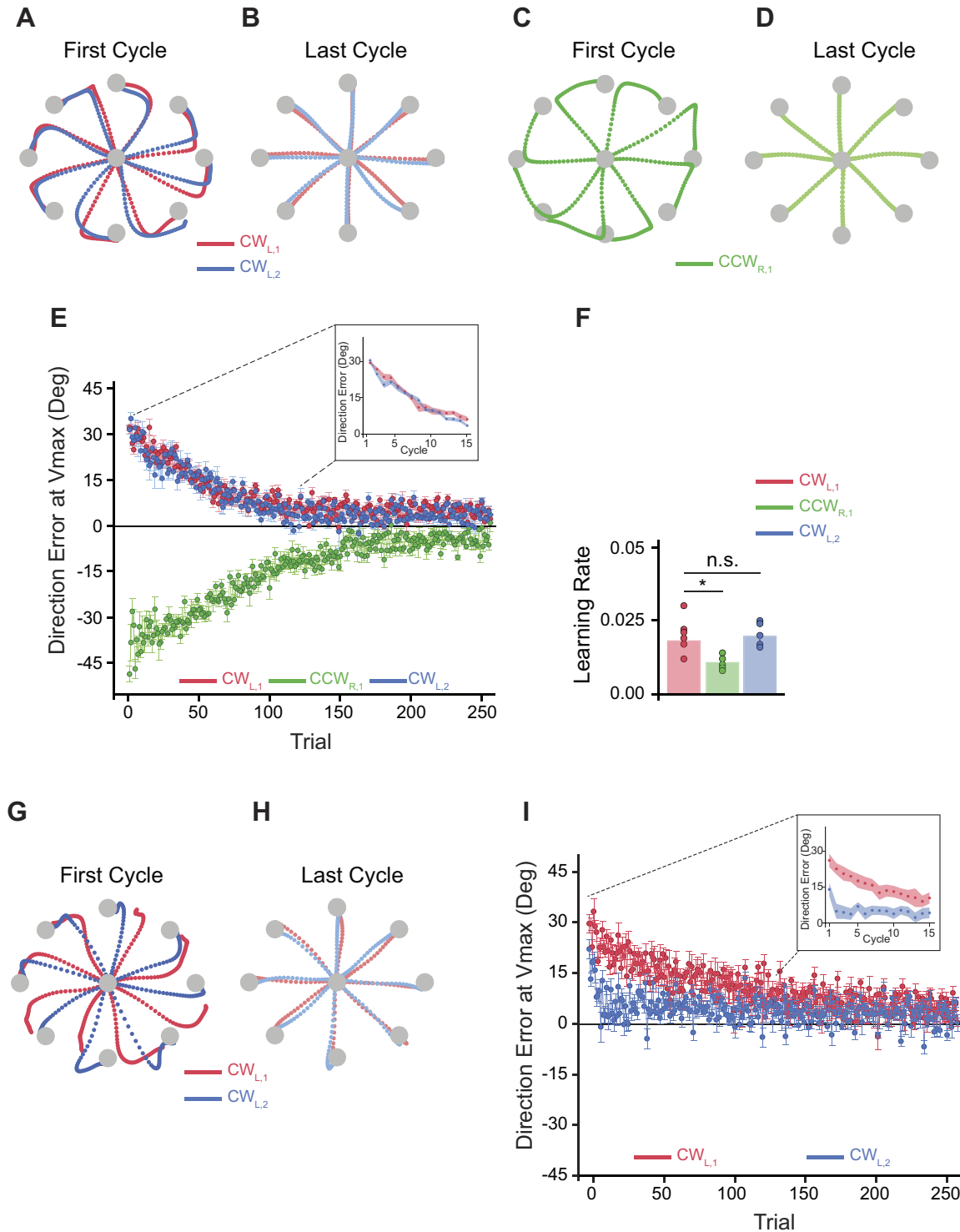


Fig. 3. Interference also occurs when the 2 arms are used in the reverse order *A*: cursor trajectories on the 1st cycle of movements to the 8 targets during the left arm clockwise [CW<sub>L1</sub> (thick red) and CW<sub>L2</sub> (thick blue)] rotation learning blocks for subjects in *group 3*. *B*: cursor trajectories on the last cycle of the CW<sub>L1</sub> (thin red) and CW<sub>L2</sub> (thin blue) blocks. *C*: Cursor trajectories on the 1st cycle of movements of the right arm counterclockwise [CCW<sub>R1</sub> (thick green)] rotation learning block and *D*: the last cycle of the CCW<sub>R1</sub> block (thin green). Note that the order of the blocks was CW<sub>L1</sub>-CCW<sub>R1</sub>-CW<sub>L2</sub> but the CW<sub>L1</sub> and CW<sub>L2</sub> trajectories are overlaid to clearly show the overlap between them on the 1st and last cycles of movements. *E*: change in mean direction error across trials for subjects in *group 3*. Error bars represent SE across subjects. The red, green, and blue profiles represent the CW<sub>L1</sub>, CCW<sub>R1</sub> and the CW<sub>L2</sub> learning blocks, respectively. *Inset*: errors across cycles for the 1st 15 cycles. Shaded area in the *inset* represents SE. Note that the errors in CW<sub>L2</sub> were similar to CW<sub>L1</sub> errors. *F*: data are means ± SE learning rate for the CW<sub>L1</sub> (red), CCW<sub>R1</sub> (green), and CW<sub>L2</sub> (blue) blocks for *group 3*. Dots represent the learning rate for individual subjects. *G*: cursor trajectories on the 1st cycle of movements to the 8 targets for subjects in *group 4* during the CW<sub>L1</sub> (red) and CW<sub>L2</sub> (blue) learning blocks. These subjects did not undergo any adaptation with their right arm between these 2 left arm adaptation blocks. *H*: cursor trajectories on the last cycle for these subjects. *I*: change in mean direction error across trials for subjects in *group 4*. Error bars represent SE across subjects. The red and blue profiles represent the CW<sub>L1</sub> and CW<sub>L2</sub> learning blocks respectively. *Inset*: errors across cycles for the 1st 15 cycles. Shaded area in the *inset* represents SE. Note that the errors in CW<sub>L2</sub> were smaller initially compared with CW<sub>L1</sub> errors in these subjects. \*Statistically significant differences, *P* < 0.05.

[no rotation (N)] trials before each learning episode. For simplicity, and also because we had established the directionality of the effects in *experiment 1*, we restricted this second experiment to only a right-left-right arm order ( $N_{R,1}CW_{R,1}-N_{L,1}CCW_{L,1}-N_{R,2}CW_{R,2}$  design; Fig. 1B, bottom left). We reasoned that the initial exposure to null trials in  $N_{R,2}$  would unmask any transfer of aftereffects from the left arm to the right and this would be evident as large errors on these trials despite the absence of a rotation. We further surmised that subsequent practice on these null trials

would washout anterograde effects and upon reexposure, allow the expression of any memory that was potentially still intact. If this were indeed the case,  $CW_{R,2}$  learning would be faster than that seen in the  $CW_{R,1}$  block. However, the same or slower learning rate during  $CW_{R,2}$  would indicate that interference still occurred between the two motor memories.

We first noted that  $N_{R,1}$  and  $CW_{R,1}$  trajectories for subjects in *group 5* were as expected. Null movements were smooth and directed straight towards the target initially (Fig. 4A, thick red)

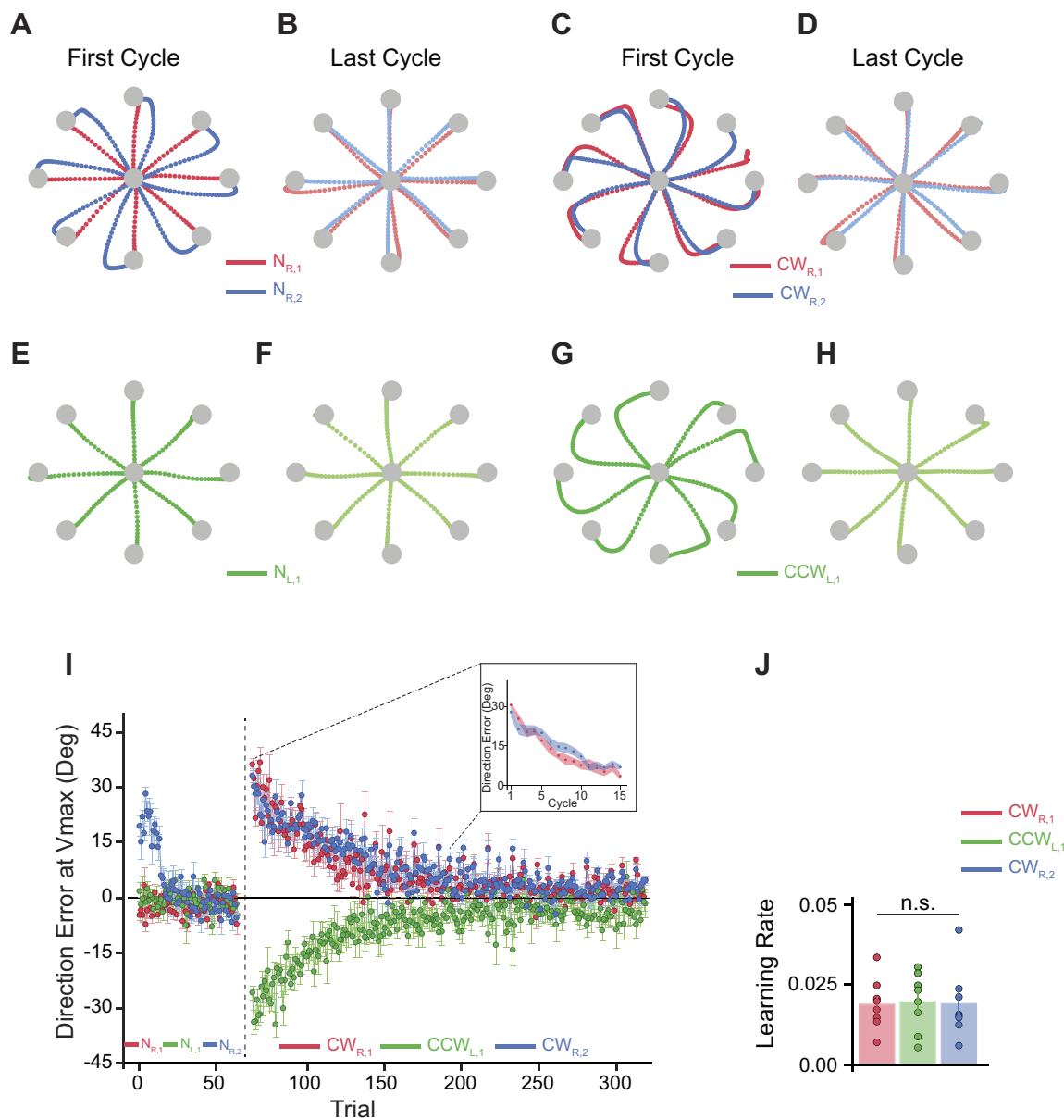


Fig. 4. Transfer of left arm learning to the right arm and persistence of interference despite washout in *group 5*. *A*: cursor trajectories on the 1st cycle of movements to the 8 targets during the  $N_{R,1}$  (thick red) and  $N_{R,2}$  (thick blue) blocks for subjects in *group 5*. *B*: cursor trajectories on the last cycle of the  $N_{R,1}$  (thin red) and  $N_{R,2}$  (thin blue) blocks. *C*: cursor trajectories on the 1st cycle of movements to the 8 targets during the  $CW_{R,1}$  (thick red) and  $CW_{R,2}$  (thick blue) learning blocks. *D*: cursor trajectories on the last cycle of movements of the  $N_{L,1}$  (thick green) block and *E*: the last cycle of the  $N_{L,1}$  (thin green) blocks. *F*: cursor trajectories on the 1st cycle of movements of the  $CCW_{L,1}$  (thick green) block and *G*: the last cycle of the  $CCW_{L,1}$  block (thin green). Note that the task was performed in the  $N_{R,1}CW_{R,1}-N_{L,1}CCW_{L,1}-N_{R,2}CCW_{R,2}$  order, but trajectories of the  $N_{R,1}$  and  $N_{R,2}$  blocks as well as the  $CW_{R,1}$  and  $CW_{R,2}$  blocks have been overlaid so that they can be compared easily. *I*: change in mean direction error across trials for subjects in *group 5*. Error bars represent SE across subjects. The  $N_{R,1}$  and  $CW_{R,1}$  trials are shown in red, the  $N_{L,1}$  and  $CCW_{L,1}$  trials are shown in green and the  $N_{R,2}$  and  $CW_{R,2}$  trials are shown in blue. *Inset*: errors across cycles for the first 15 cycles. Shaded area in the *inset* represents SE. Note that the errors are larger in  $N_{R,2}$  compared with  $N_{R,1}$ , and that the  $CW_{R,1}$  and  $CW_{R,2}$  learning curves overlap. *J*: data are means  $\pm$  SE learning rate for  $CW_{R,1}$  (red),  $CCW_{L,1}$  (green), and  $CW_{R,2}$  (blue) learning. Dots represent the learning rate for individual subjects. There was no statistically significant difference between the learning rates.



and continued to be as such towards the end of the null block (Fig. 4B, thin red).  $CW_{R,1}$  trials showed large curvature initially because of the rotation (Fig. 4C, thick red) but became straighter with practice (Fig. 4D, thin red). Direction errors on null trials were close to zero (Table 2), and subsequently, subjects showed the typical learning curve with errors starting close to  $30^\circ$  and decreasing with practice (Fig. 4I, red). Early  $N_{L,1}$  hand trajectories of subjects in this group were also straight (Fig. 4E), and errors were close to zero (Table 2). This continued to be the case even at the end of the  $N_{L,1}$  block (Fig. 4H). The  $CCW_{L,1}$  handpaths for these subjects (Fig. 4, G and H) and learning curve (Fig. 4I, green) did not appear to be different from those seen in *group 1* of *experiment 1*. In fact, a comparison of learning rates (Table 1) for  $CCW_{L,1}$  of *group 5* and  $CCW_{L,1}$  of *group 1* revealed no significant differences [unpaired *t*-test,  $t_{(14)} = 1.16$ ,  $P = 0.26$ ,  $95\%CI = (-0.007, 0.025)$ , Cohen's  $d_s = 0.57$ ].

Interestingly, in *group 5*,  $N_{R,2}$  performance 24 h later showed clear evidence of transfer of aftereffects from  $CCW_{L,1}$  learning. Right arm trajectories on the initial  $N_{R,2}$  trials were substantially curved even though no rotation was applied (Fig. 4A, thick blue), and notably, the curvature was in the direction of trained  $CCW_{L,1}$  movements. Errors on the first  $N_{R,2}$  trial were greater compared with  $N_{R,1}$  trials [paired *t*-test,  $t_{(7)} = 6.67$ ,  $P < 0.0003$ ,  $95\%CI = (15.626, 32.797)$ , Cohen's  $d_z = 2.35$ , Table 2], indicating robust transfer of aftereffects from the left arm to the right. Interestingly, the magnitude of these errors in *group 5* was not significantly different than the decrement (difference between errors on the first  $CW_{R,2}$  and  $CW_{R,1}$  trials) seen on the first trial for *group 1* in *experiment 1* [unpaired *t*-test,  $t_{(14)} = -1.54$ ,  $P = 0.147$ ,  $95\%CI = (-15.67, 2.58)$ , Cohen's  $d_s = 0.73$ ]. Subsequent  $N_{R,2}$  practice washed out the aftereffects for the *group 5* subjects, their handpaths became straight (Fig. 4B, thin blue), and the direction errors became close to zero towards the end of the  $N_{R,2}$  block. We then noted that the ensuing  $CW_{R,2}$  learning was not different from  $CW_{R,1}$ , the learning curves overlapped (compare red and blue learning curves in Fig. 4I), and neither the errors on the first learning trial [paired *t*-test,  $t_{(7)} = -1.15$ ,  $P = 0.287$ ,  $95\%CI = (-9.25, 3.19)$ , Cohen's  $d_z = 0.4$ ; Fig. 4I and Table 2] nor the learning rate [paired *t*-test,  $t_{(7)} = -0.04$ ,  $P = 0.967$ ,  $95\%CI = (-0.007, 0.006)$ , Cohen's  $d_z = 0.01$ ; Table 1 and Fig. 4J] was significantly different. This indicated that interference continued to occur in *group 5* despite the removal of aftereffects and washout of anterograde influences, and might therefore be retrograde in nature.

### Experiment 3: Interference Is Retrograde in Nature

If the interference is indeed retrograde, then increasing the time between the initial learning episodes should lead to a reduction in interference. We confirmed this in *experiment 3*, in which participants (*group 6*) learned  $CW_{R,1}$  and  $CCW_{L,1}$  24 h apart and were then tested on  $CW_{R,2}$  24 h after  $CCW_{L,1}$  learning. We first noted that null performance as well as  $CW_{R,1}$  and  $CCW_{L,1}$  learning in these subjects (*group 6*) appeared similar to *experiment 2* (Fig. 5, A–H). There was no difference in learning rate between *groups 5* and *6* for either  $CW_{R,1}$  [unpaired *t*-test,  $t_{(14)} = -1.10$ ,  $P = 0.29$ ,  $95\%CI = (-0.01, 0.003)$ , Cohen's  $d_s = 0.54$ ] or  $CCW_{L,1}$  learning [unpaired *t*-test,  $t_{(14)} = -0.41$ ,  $P = 0.69$ ,  $95\%CI = (-0.009, 0.006)$ , Cohen's  $d_s = 0.20$ ]. As was the case for *group 5*, we noted robust transfer of left arm aftereffects to the  $N_{R,2}$

trials in *group 6* as well. Early  $N_{R,2}$  trajectories were more curved (Fig. 5A, thick blue) and showed greater errors compared with early  $N_{R,1}$  performance [paired *t*-test,  $t_{(7)} = 12.32$ ,  $P < 0.0001$ ,  $95\%CI = (13.138, 19.382)$ , Cohen's  $d_z = 4.35$ ; Table 2 and Fig. 5I], but these errors became close to zero with subsequent null practice (Fig. 5B, thin blue). Most importantly, we noted that  $CW_{R,2}$  learning was now substantially faster than  $CW_{R,1}$  learning [paired *t*-test,  $t_{(7)} = -4.57$ ,  $95\%CI = (-0.083, -0.026)$ ,  $P = 0.0026$ , Cohen's  $d_z = 1.62$ ; Table 1 and Fig. 5J]. This indicated that increasing the duration between  $CW_{R,1}$  and  $CCW_{L,1}$  training to 24 h made the  $CW_{R,1}$  memory resistant to interference from the competing  $CCW_{L,1}$  memory and allowed faster recall the next day. Such a time-dependent pattern confirmed that interference between the memories developed by the two arms is indeed retrograde in nature.

## DISCUSSION

The primary goal of this study was to investigate whether motor memories developed through learning with the two arms would interfere. We observed strong interference when the two arms adapted to opposing visuomotor rotations in close succession. We confirmed that this interference was retrograde in nature, since passage of time between the learning episodes with the two arms substantially reduced interference. These results enhance our understanding of the neural organization of motor learning and also suggest that successive motor practice with two different limbs may prevent stabilization of newly acquired motor memories.

Few studies in the past have examined interference between competing motor memories developed through learning with different limbs. Moreover, these studies have often failed to reveal interference (Bock et al. 2005; Galea and Miall 2006). An important constraint in these studies, however, was that the arms were used in an alternating fashion on either every other trial or over a short set of trials. Thus there was no opportunity for complete adaptation with one limb before learning with the other limb ensued, which may be essential for interference to be seen. In line with this thought, Stockinger et al. (2017) very recently demonstrated interference when the left arm was exposed to a *force field B* following substantial adaptation of the right arm to an opposite *force field A*. We also noted significant interference once subjects had undergone complete adaptation to the rotation, suggesting that substantial learning with the two arms may be essential to reveal interference.

While our results appear similar to those of Stockinger et al. (2017), important differences between the findings exist. Most crucial among these is the finding of Stockinger et al. (2017) that the learning of *B* produced a deterioration of ~68% of the prior memory of *A*, while a control group that did not learn *B* showed a decrement of only ~15%. This difference was taken as evidence that *B* learning interfered with *A*. It may be argued, however, that while interference was present, it was not complete since ~32% of the memory of *A* was still intact, bringing into question the strength of the effect. In contrast, we observed complete interference; performance during the early trials of reexposure to *A* ( $CW_{R,2}$  for *group 1* and  $CW_{L,2}$  for *group 3*) was never biased toward prior *A* learning ( $CW_{R,1}$  for *group 1* or  $CW_{L,1}$  for *group 3*) and was in fact biased away from the prior learning in *group 1*. The reason for this difference between the studies could include previously described differ-

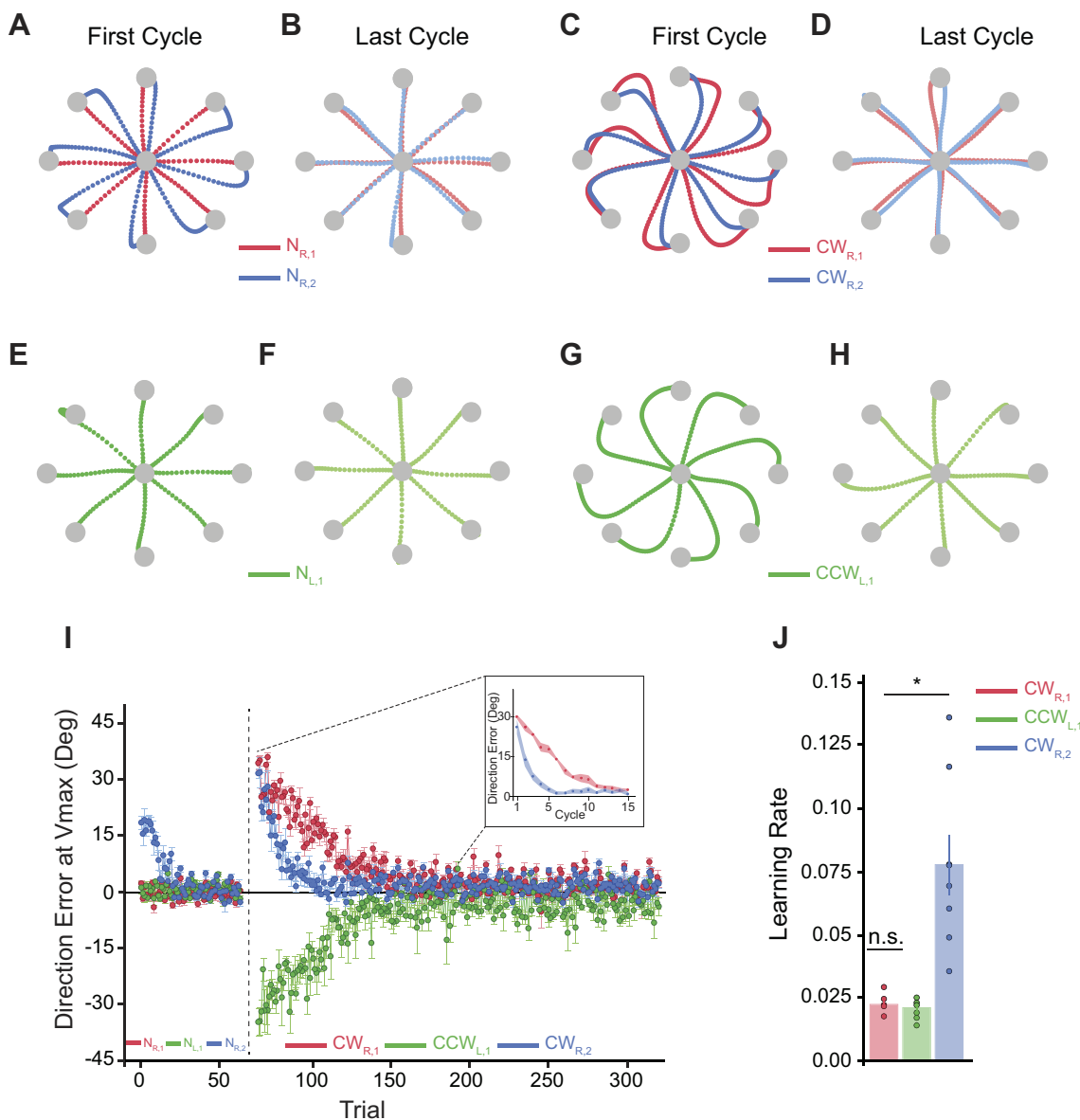


Fig. 5. Reduced interference in *group 6* when 24 h separate right arm clockwise ( $CW_{R,1}$ ) and left arm counterclockwise ( $CCW_{L,1}$ ) learning. *A*: cursor trajectories on the 1st cycle of movements to the 8 targets during the  $N_{R,1}$  (thick red) and  $N_{R,2}$  (thick blue) blocks for subjects in *group 6*. *B*: cursor trajectories on the last cycle of the  $N_{R,1}$  (thin red) and  $N_{R,2}$  (thin blue) blocks. *C*: cursor trajectories on the 1st cycle of movements to the 8 targets during the  $CW_{R,1}$  (thick red) and  $CW_{R,2}$  (thick blue) learning blocks. *D*: cursor trajectories on the last cycle of movements of the  $CW_{R,1}$  (thin red) and  $CW_{R,2}$  (thin blue) blocks. *E*: cursor trajectories on the 1st cycle of movements during the  $N_{L,1}$  (thick green) block and *F*: the last cycle of the  $N_{L,1}$  (thin green) blocks. *G* and *H*: cursor trajectories on the 1st cycle of movements of the  $CCW_{L,1}$  (thick green; *G*) block and the last cycle of the  $CCW_{L,1}$  block (thin green; *H*). Note that the task was performed in the  $N_{R,1}CW_{R,1}-N_{L,1}CCW_{L,1}-N_{R,2}CCW_{R,2}$  order, but the trajectories of the  $N_{R,1}$  and  $N_{R,2}$  blocks, as well as the  $CW_{R,1}$  and  $CW_{R,2}$  blocks, have been overlaid so that they can be compared easily. *I*: change in mean direction error across trials for subjects in *group 6*. Error bars represent SE across subjects. The  $N_{R,1}$  and  $CW_{R,1}$  trials are shown in red, the  $N_{L,1}$  and  $CCW_{L,1}$  trials are shown in green, and the  $N_{R,2}$  and  $CW_{R,2}$  trials are shown in blue. *Inset*: errors across cycles for the 1st 15 cycles. Shaded area in the *inset* represents SE. Note that the errors are larger in  $N_{R,1}$  compared with  $N_{R,2}$  and that  $CW_{R,2}$  learning is faster than  $CW_{R,1}$  learning. *J*: data are means  $\pm$  SE learning rate for  $CW_{R,1}$  (red),  $CCW_{L,1}$  (green), and  $CW_{R,2}$  (blue) learning. Dots represent the learning rate for individual subjects. Statistical analysis confirmed faster learning during  $CW_{R,2}$ . \*Statistically significant differences,  $P < 0.05$ .

ences in force field vs. visuomotor adaptation (Krakauer et al. 1999; Rabe et al. 2009; Wang and Sainburg 2004b), differences in orientation of the visual display and availability of visual feedback of the limb, differences in when interference was assessed [24-h gap in our study vs. immediately after *B* learning in Stockinger et al. (2017)], and/or substantial but still incomplete adaptation to both *A* and *B* in their work. Nonetheless, both sets of results support the idea that interference can indeed occur when one arm adapts to a perturbation after the

other arm has undergone substantial adaptation to an opposing perturbation. However, our current work goes further to newly reveal that interference occurs regardless of the order in which the arms learn and that the interference is retrograde in nature; these represent novel contributions of our study.

#### Mechanisms Underlying Retrograde Effects

There are two potential reasons that might give rise to retrograde interference between motor memories developed

with the two limbs. First, learning of *rotation B* may block the retrieval of the memory of *rotation A* learned earlier. In other words, the memory of *A* is intact, but motor memories may be subjected to recency effects where subjects simply retrieve the last memory developed in that learning context (i.e., the memory of *B*), leading to a suppression in the recall of *A* during reexposure. It has been suggested that to prevent such effects and allow the expression of the (saved) memory, both *A* and *B* must be associated with distinct contextual cues during learning. Numerous studies have shown that such a contextual separation reduces interference, allowing the originally learned memory to be successfully recalled later (Cothros et al. 2009; Hirashima and Nozaki 2012; Howard et al. 2013; Nozaki et al. 2006; Sheahan et al. 2016). It has also been proposed that intrinsic cues that entail different sensorimotor transformations (for example, different body postures when learning *A* and *B*) work better than extrinsic ones (say different target colors for *A* and *B*). In line with this notion, Krakauer et al. (2006) have shown that learning two opposite rotations with different effectors within a limb (for example, wrist vs. arm) produces no interference between the two competing memories developed in close succession. In the current study, associating the two perturbations with different limbs altogether should have therefore provided clearly distinct contextual cues and allowed the memory of *A* to be expressed upon reexposure if it was still present. However, this was not the case, and it therefore appears unlikely that the observed interference was because *B* learning blocked retrieval of an intact memory of *A*.

The second, and perhaps more likely explanation for retrograde effects in our case, is that the learning of *B* actually erased the prior memory of *A* because it required the same neural resources for adaptation. Past studies showing interference when *A* and *B* are learned with the same limb (Brashers-Krug et al. 1996; Krakauer et al. 2005; Overduin et al. 2006) have made a similar suggestion. Our current results lead us to submit that the same may be true even if adaptation occurs with different limbs. This idea is consistent with previous work that has demonstrated that a disruption in neural activity in a single brain region, for instance, due to stroke, produces deficits in visuomotor rotation learning regardless of the effector used to learn. In particular, parietal damage in the left, but not the right brain hemisphere impairs visuomotor adaptation not just when the contralesional, right arm is used (Mutha et al. 2011b) but also when the ipsilesional, left arm is used to learn (Mutha et al. 2011a). Similar deficits have been found in patients with ideomotor apraxia, in whom maximum lesion overlap is in parietal cortex, and in fact, the extent of the learning deficit correlates with the volume of damage in inferior parietal regions (Mutha et al. 2017). These findings suggest a common neural substrate for learning with the two arms, and the interference observed in the current study is a pragmatic prediction of this kind of neural organization for visuomotor learning. Such a shared, lateralized substrate for the development of motor memories, as for other forms of memory (Tulving et al. 1994), may have evolved to optimize the use of existing neural resources. Interestingly, while this neural resource may be recruited for learning, the current findings also suggest that allowing time to pass consolidates a newly formed memory and frees up this resource for new learning with another effector. It is plausible therefore that learning and longer term retention of the memory may be dependent on

different neural substrates, a thought echoed in the episodic memory literature as well (Eldridge et al. 2005; Gabrieli et al. 1997; Roy et al. 2017).

### *Obligatory, Asymmetric Interlimb Transfer of Learning*

Although we did not explicitly set out to do so, we observed robust interlimb transfer of learning in the current study. This transfer was asymmetric and occurred only from the left to the right arm. In *groups 1* and *3*, the right arm always showed larger errors initially when it followed left arm learning but not vice versa, while in *groups 5* and *6*, only the early  $N_{R,2}$  but not the early  $N_{L,1}$  trials showed aftereffects in the direction of the previously trained arm movements; both sets of results provide evidence for asymmetric transfer. While addressing the mechanisms underlying the asymmetry, or even transfer itself, is not our goal here, a couple of relevant points must be mentioned. First, the asymmetry is broadly in line with prior work of Wang and Sainburg (2004b; 2003), who have consistently demonstrated transfer of visuomotor adaptation only from the left to the right arm in right-handers particularly when the two arms share workspaces, as was the case here. Second, unlike this past work, we noted that transfer was unavoidable and was evident even on the first trial of right arm rotation exposure following left arm training. Wang and Sainburg (2004b) suggest that transfer on the first trial is not obligatory because the nervous system may use the first trial to probe whether prior learning would actually be useful in the new context and then decide whether to use that memory or not (“context” here refers to the condition where the right arm experiences either the same or opposite rotation following left arm adaptation): if prior learning is deemed helpful (for instance when the rotations are the same), transfer occurs, but if the learning is not useful (e.g., when the rotations are opposite), no transfer should occur. In the work of Wang and Sainburg (2004b), under conditions of opposite rotations, transfer was indeed negligible on the first trial, but it surprisingly did occur on subsequent trials to other targets, resulting in greater errors than naïve on those trials. In fact, in their work, errors of the right arm continued to remain greater for movements made to those targets for almost the entire learning block, but performance for the target used in the first trial was similar to naïve throughout. Thus it appears that transfer did not occur only to the target used on the first trial, which is quite puzzling. This apparent lack of transfer could be due to movement direction dependent effects on initial direction errors (Gordon et al. 1994), and whether choice of a different target (or movement direction) on the first trial could have revealed the transfer more clearly remains an open question. Indeed, movement direction dependent modulation of transfer has recently been shown by Carroll et al. (2014). Thus the systematic transfer seen on movements made to most targets in the work of Wang and Sainburg, combined with our current results, leads us to suggest that transfer from the left to the right arm is indeed obligatory.

### *Contributions of Different Learning Mechanisms to Interference*

Prior work has emphasized that learning to adapt to perturbations such as visuomotor rotations used in the current study occurs via an error-driven update of an internal representation

or model of the properties of the body, the environment, and the interaction between the two (Gandolfo et al. 1996; Imamizu et al. 1995; Sainburg et al. 1999; Shadmehr and Mussa-Ivaldi 1994; Wang and Sainburg 2005). Newer studies have however argued that such adaptation may be driven by multiple processes that operate on top of the model-based learning mechanism, including explicit strategies and operant processes (Classen et al. 1998; Diedrichsen et al. 2010; Huang et al. 2011; Taylor et al. 2014). Even within a purely model-based learning framework, it has been posited that more than one error-sensitive process could be operational. In particular, “fast” and “slow” learning processes with different attributes, but both driven by error, have been proposed (Lee and Schweighofer 2009; Smith et al. 2006). Importantly, in most cases, these additional mechanisms have been invoked to explain savings, or faster relearning of an arm when it is reexposed to the same perturbing environment as original learning. At this stage, it is unclear, and we remain decidedly ambivalent, as to whether it is any of these mechanisms linked to savings that are shared and give rise to transfer or interference effects across different effectors. We take this position primarily for two reasons. First, delineating exactly which mechanisms contribute to savings itself has been controversial given that it can be explained by model-based (Herzfeld et al. 2014; Smith et al. 2006) as well as non-model-based (Haith et al. 2015; Morehead et al. 2015) processes. Second, it is plausible that savings and transfer/interference are mediated by distinct neural processes (Leow et al. 2013). For instance, it has recently been postulated that transfer could be dependent on the slow learning process (Block and Celnik 2013), while savings could occur via a fast acting cognitive process linked to better action selection (Morehead et al. 2015). We therefore take a more parsimonious position and avoid extensive speculation about which particular learning mechanism might underlie the transfer/interference effects. We instead suggest that further dissection of the contributions of different learning mechanisms to these effects should be a topic of exciting future research.

### Conclusions

To conclude, we provide clear evidence that learning opposing visuomotor rotations with different limbs leads to substantial interference between the newly developed motor memories. This interference is retrograde and likely occurs because the two limbs compete for the same neural resources during learning. This suggestion of a common neural basis for motor learning across different limbs is in line with our prior findings that have implicated inferior parietal regions of the left hemisphere as crucial for visuomotor learning regardless of the effector used to learn.

### ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank IIT Gandhinagar for laboratory facilities and Manasi Wali for assistance with data collection.

### GRANTS

This work was supported by the Wellcome Trust-DBT India Alliance Early Career Fellowship (IA/E/14/1/501806; to N. Kumar) and the Ramanujan Fellowship and grants from the Health Sciences Committee and the Cognitive

Science Research Initiative of the Department of Science and Technology (all of the Government of India; to P. K. Mutha).

### DISCLOSURES

No conflicts of interest, financial or otherwise, are declared by the authors.

### AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

N.K. and P.K.M. conceived and designed research; N.K. performed experiments; N.K., A.K., B.S., and P.K.M. analyzed data; N.K., A.K., B.S., and P.K.M. interpreted results of experiments; N.K., A.K., B.S., and P.K.M. prepared figures; N.K., A.K., B.S., and P.K.M. drafted manuscript; N.K., A.K., B.S., and P.K.M. edited and revised manuscript; N.K., A.K., B.S., and P.K.M. approved final version of manuscript.

### REFERENCES

- Alvarez P, Squire LR. Memory consolidation and the medial temporal lobe: a simple network model. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 91: 7041–7045, 1994. doi:10.1073/pnas.91.15.7041.
- Block H, Celnik P. Stimulating the cerebellum affects visuomotor adaptation but not intermanual transfer of learning. *Cerebellum* 12: 781–793, 2013. doi:10.1007/s12311-013-0486-7.
- Bock O, Worringham C, Thomas M. Concurrent adaptations of left and right arms to opposite visual distortions. *Exp Brain Res* 162: 513–519, 2005. doi:10.1007/s00221-005-2222-0.
- Brashers-Krug T, Shadmehr R, Bizzi E. Consolidation in human motor memory. *Nature* 382: 252–255, 1996. doi:10.1038/382252a0.
- Carroll TJ, Poh E, de Rugy A. New visuomotor maps are immediately available to the opposite limb. *J Neurophysiol* 111: 2232–2243, 2014. doi:10.1152/jn.00042.2014.
- Classen J, Liepert J, Wise SP, Hallett M, Cohen LG. Rapid plasticity of human cortical movement representation induced by practice. *J Neurophysiol* 79: 1117–1123, 1998. doi:10.1152/jn.1998.79.2.1117.
- Cothros N, Wong J, Gribble PL. Visual cues signaling object grasp reduce interference in motor learning. *J Neurophysiol* 102: 2112–2120, 2009. doi:10.1152/jn.00493.2009.
- Crisicimagna-Hemming SE, Donchin O, Gazzaniga MS, Shadmehr R. Learned dynamics of reaching movements generalize from dominant to nondominant arm. *J Neurophysiol* 89: 168–176, 2003. doi:10.1152/jn.00622.2002.
- Diedrichsen J, White O, Newman D, Lally N. Use-dependent and error-based learning of motor behaviors. *J Neurosci* 30: 5159–5166, 2010. doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.5406-09.2010.
- Eldridge LL, Engel SA, Zeineh MM, Bookheimer SY, Knowlton BJ. A dissociation of encoding and retrieval processes in the human hippocampus. *J Neurosci* 25: 3280–3286, 2005. doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.3420-04.2005.
- Gabrieli JD, Brewer JB, Desmond JE, Glover GH. Separate neural bases of two fundamental memory processes in the human medial temporal lobe. *Science* 276: 264–266, 1997. doi:10.1126/science.276.5310.264.
- Galea JM, Miall RC. Concurrent adaptation to opposing visual displacements during an alternating movement. *Exp Brain Res* 175: 676–688, 2006. doi:10.1007/s00221-006-0585-5.
- Gandolfo F, Mussa-Ivaldi FA, Bizzi E. Motor learning by field approximation. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 93: 3843–3846, 1996. doi:10.1073/pnas.93.9.3843.
- Goedert KM, Willingham DB. Patterns of interference in sequence learning and prism adaptation inconsistent with the consolidation hypothesis. *Learn Mem* 9: 279–292, 2002. doi:10.1101/lm.50102.
- Gordon J, Ghilardi MF, Ghez C. Accuracy of planar reaching movements. I. Independence of direction and extent variability. *Exp Brain Res* 99: 97–111, 1994. doi:10.1007/BF00241415.
- Haith AM, Huberdeau DM, Krakauer JW. The influence of movement preparation time on the expression of visuomotor learning and savings. *J Neurosci* 35: 5109–5117, 2015. doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.3869-14.2015.
- Herzfeld DJ, Vaswani PA, Marko MK, Shadmehr R. A memory of errors in sensorimotor learning. *Science* 345: 1349–1353, 2014. doi:10.1126/science.1253138.
- Heuer H, Hegele M. Adaptation to visuomotor rotations in younger and older adults. *Psychol Aging* 23: 190–202, 2008. doi:10.1037/0882-7974.23.1.190.
- Heuer H, Hegele M. Generalization of implicit and explicit adjustments to visuomotor rotations across the workspace in younger and older adults. *J Neurophysiol* 106: 2078–2085, 2011. doi:10.1152/jn.00043.2011.

- Hirashima M, Nozaki D.** Distinct motor plans form and retrieve distinct motor memories for physically identical movements. *Curr Biol* 22: 432–436, 2012. doi:10.1016/j.cub.2012.01.042.
- Howard IS, Wolpert DM, Franklin DW.** The effect of contextual cues on the encoding of motor memories. *J Neurophysiol* 109: 2632–2644, 2013. doi:10.1152/jn.00773.2012.
- Huang VS, Haith A, Mazzoni P, Krakauer JW.** Rethinking motor learning and savings in adaptation paradigms: model-free memory for successful actions combines with internal models. *Neuron* 70: 787–801, 2011. doi:10.1016/j.neuron.2011.04.012.
- Imamizu H, Uno Y, Kawato M.** Internal representations of the motor apparatus: implications from generalization in visuomotor learning. *J Exp Psychol Hum Percept Perform* 21: 1174–1198, 1995. doi:10.1037/0096-1523.21.5.1174.
- Joiner WM, Braynov JB, Smith MA.** The training schedule affects the stability, not the magnitude, of the interlimb transfer of learned dynamics. *J Neurophysiol* 110: 984–998, 2013. doi:10.1152/jn.01072.2012.
- Krakauer JW, Ghez C, Ghilardi MF.** Adaptation to visuomotor transformations: consolidation, interference, and forgetting. *J Neurosci* 25: 473–478, 2005. doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.4218-04.2005.
- Krakauer JW, Ghilardi MF, Ghez C.** Independent learning of internal models for kinematic and dynamic control of reaching. *Nat Neurosci* 2: 1026–1031, 1999. doi:10.1038/14826.
- Krakauer JW, Mazzoni P, Ghazizadeh A, Ravindran R, Shadmehr R.** Generalization of motor learning depends on the history of prior action. *PLoS Biol* 4: e316, 2006. doi:10.1371/journal.pbio.0040316.
- Lakens D.** Calculating and reporting effect sizes to facilitate cumulative science: a practical primer for t-tests and ANOVAs. *Front Psychol* 4: 863, 2013. doi:10.3389/fpsyg.2013.00863.
- Lee JY, Schweighofer N.** Dual adaptation supports a parallel architecture of motor memory. *J Neurosci* 29: 10396–10404, 2009. doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.1294-09.2009.
- Lefumat HZ, Vercher JL, Miall RC, Cole J, Buloup F, Bringoux L, Bourdin C, Sarlegna FR.** To transfer or not to transfer? Kinematics and laterality quotient predict interlimb transfer of motor learning. *J Neurophysiol* 114: 2764–2774, 2015. doi:10.1152/jn.00749.2015.
- Leow LA, de Rugy A, Loftus AM, Hammond G.** Different mechanisms contributing to savings and anterograde interference are impaired in Parkinson's disease. *Front Hum Neurosci* 7: 55, 2013. doi:10.3389/fnhum.2013.00055.
- Miall RC, Jenkinson N, Kulkarni K.** Adaptation to rotated visual feedback: a re-examination of motor interference. *Exp Brain Res* 154: 201–210, 2004. doi:10.1007/s00221-003-1630-2.
- Morehead JR, Qasim SE, Crossley MJ, Ivry R.** Savings upon re-aiming in visuomotor adaptation. *J Neurosci* 35: 14386–14396, 2015. doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.1046-15.2015.
- Mutha PK, Sainburg RL, Haaland KY.** Critical neural substrates for correcting unexpected trajectory errors and learning from them. *Brain* 134: 3647–3661, 2011a. doi:10.1093/brain/awr275.
- Mutha PK, Sainburg RL, Haaland KY.** Left parietal regions are critical for adaptive visuomotor control. *J Neurosci* 31: 6972–6981, 2011b. doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.6432-10.2011.
- Mutha PK, Stapp LH, Sainburg RL, Haaland KY.** Motor adaptation deficits in ideomotor apraxia. *J Int Neuropsychol Soc* 23: 139–149, 2017. doi:10.1017/S135561771600120X.
- Nozaki D, Kurtzer I, Scott SH.** Limited transfer of learning between unimanual and bimanual skills within the same limb. *Nat Neurosci* 9: 1364–1366, 2006. doi:10.1038/nn1785.
- Oldfield RC.** The assessment and analysis of handedness: the Edinburgh inventory. *Neuropsychologia* 9: 97–113, 1971. doi:10.1016/0028-3932(71)90067-4.
- Overduin SA, Richardson AG, Lane CE, Bizzi E, Press DZ.** Intermittent practice facilitates stable motor memories. *J Neurosci* 26: 11888–11892, 2006. doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.1320-06.2006.
- Poh E, Carroll TJ, Taylor JA.** Effect of coordinate frame compatibility on the transfer of implicit and explicit learning across limbs. *J Neurophysiol* 116: 1239–1249, 2016. doi:10.1152/jn.00410.2016.
- Rabe K, Livne O, Gizewski ER, Aurich V, Beck A, Timmann D, Donchin O.** Adaptation to visuomotor rotation and force field perturbation is correlated to different brain areas in patients with cerebellar degeneration. *J Neurophysiol* 101: 1961–1971, 2009. doi:10.1152/jn.91069.2008.
- Roy DS, Kitamura T, Okuyama T, Ogawa SK, Sun C, Obata Y, Yoshiki A, Tonegawa S.** Distinct neural circuits for the formation and retrieval of episodic memories. *Cell* 170: 1000–1012.e1019, 2017. doi:10.1016/j.cell.2017.07.013.
- Sainburg RL, Ghez C, Kalakianis D.** Intersegmental dynamics are controlled by sequential anticipatory, error correction, and postural mechanisms. *J Neurophysiol* 81: 1045–1056, 1999. doi:10.1152/jn.1999.81.3.1045.
- Shadmehr R, Mussa-Ivaldi FA.** Adaptive representation of dynamics during learning of a motor task. *J Neurosci* 14: 3208–3224, 1994. doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.14-05-03208.1994.
- Sheahan HR, Franklin DW, Wolpert DM.** Motor planning, not execution, separates motor memories. *Neuron* 92: 773–779, 2016. doi:10.1016/j.neuron.2016.10.017.
- Smith MA, Ghazizadeh A, Shadmehr R.** Interacting adaptive processes with different timescales underlie short-term motor learning. *PLoS Biol* 4: e179, 2006. doi:10.1371/journal.pbio.0040179.
- Stockinger C, Thürer B, Stein T.** Consecutive learning of opposing unimanual motor tasks using the right arm followed by the left arm causes intermanual interference. *PLoS One* 12: e0176594, 2017. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0176594.
- Taylor JA, Krakauer JW, Ivry RB.** Explicit and implicit contributions to learning in a sensorimotor adaptation task. *J Neurosci* 34: 3023–3032, 2014. doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.3619-13.2014.
- Tulving E, Kapur S, Craik FI, Moscovitch M, Houle S.** Hemispheric encoding/retrieval asymmetry in episodic memory: positron emission tomography findings. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 91: 2016–2020, 1994. doi:10.1073/pnas.91.6.2016.
- Verstynen T, Sabes PN.** How each movement changes the next: an experimental and theoretical study of fast adaptive priors in reaching. *J Neurosci* 31: 10050–10059, 2011. doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.6525-10.2011.
- Wang J, Lei Y.** Direct-effects and after-effects of visuomotor adaptation with one arm on subsequent performance with the other arm. *J Neurophysiol* 114: 468–473, 2015. doi:10.1152/jn.00298.2015.
- Wang J, Lei Y, Binder JR.** Performing a reaching task with one arm while adapting to a visuomotor rotation with the other can lead to complete transfer of motor learning across the arms. *J Neurophysiol* 113: 2302–2308, 2015. doi:10.1152/jn.00974.2014.
- Wang J, Sainburg RL.** Mechanisms underlying interlimb transfer of visuomotor rotations. *Exp Brain Res* 149: 520–526, 2003. doi:10.1007/s00221-003-1392-x.
- Wang J, Sainburg RL.** Interlimb transfer of novel inertial dynamics is asymmetrical. *J Neurophysiol* 92: 349–360, 2004a. doi:10.1152/jn.00960.2003.
- Wang J, Sainburg RL.** Limitations in interlimb transfer of visuomotor rotations. *Exp Brain Res* 155: 1–8, 2004b. doi:10.1007/s00221-003-1691-2.
- Wang J, Sainburg RL.** Adaptation to visuomotor rotations remaps movement vectors, not final positions. *J Neurosci* 25: 4024–4030, 2005. doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.5000-04.2005.
- Wigmore V, Tong C, Flanagan JR.** Visuomotor rotations of varying size and direction compete for a single internal model in motor working memory. *J Exp Psychol Hum Percept Perform* 28: 447–457, 2002. doi:10.1037/0096-1523.28.2.447.
- Yotsumoto Y, Chang LH, Watanabe T, Sasaki Y.** Interference and feature specificity in visual perceptual learning. *Vision Res* 49: 2611–2623, 2009. doi:10.1016/j.visres.2009.08.001.