

1 **Neural correlates of approach and avoidance tendencies toward physical**
2 **activity and sedentary stimuli: An fMRI study**

3
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47

Abstract

48 Automatic tendencies toward physical activity and sedentary stimuli are involved in the
49 regulation of physical activity behavior. However, the brain regions underlying these automatic
50 tendencies remain largely unknown. Here, we used an approach-avoidance task and magnetic
51 resonance imaging (MRI) in 42 healthy young adults to investigate whether cortical and
52 subcortical brain regions underpinning reward processing and executive function are associated
53 with these tendencies. At the behavioral level, results showed more errors in avoidance behavior
54 following sedentary stimuli than physical activity stimuli. At the brain level, avoidance
55 behavior following sedentary stimuli was associated with more activation of the motor control
56 network (dorsolateral-prefrontal cortex, primary and secondary motor cortices, somatosensory
57 cortex). In addition, increased activation of the bilateral parahippocampal gyrus — and
58 structural deformation of the right hippocampus - were associated with a tendency toward
59 approaching sedentary stimuli. Together, these results suggest that avoiding sedentary stimuli
60 requires higher levels of behavioral control than avoiding physical activity stimuli.

61

62 **Keywords:** Automatic responses, executive function, physical activity, fMRI, reward system,
63 action inhibition.

64

Introduction

65 Exercise is one of the most popular New Year's resolutions. Unfortunately, this pledge
66 often fails by the month of February (Luciani, 2015), which illustrates the difficulty to engage
67 in physical activity. There is an urgent need to address this inability to be physically active in
68 order to slow the global increase of inactivity (Strain et al., 2024) and achieve the goal of
69 reducing physical inactivity by 15% by 2030 (WHO, 2019). Meanwhile, physical inactivity
70 costs 67.5 billion international dollars each year (Ding et al., 2016) and is responsible for
71 approximately one death every six seconds worldwide (WHO, 2020).

72 Recent theoretical work has suggested that automatic responses to physical activity and
73 sedentary cues are essential in explaining the gap between intentions to be physically active
74 and actual engagement in physical activity (Brand & Ekkekakis, 2018; Cheval & Boisgontier,
75 2021; Cheval, Radel, et al., 2018; Cheval et al., 2024; Conroy & Berry, 2017; Maltagliati,
76 Raichlen, et al., 2024). In particular, within the dual-process account of human behavior (Strack
77 & Deutsch, 2004), the Theory of Effort Minimization in Physical Activity (TEMPA) argues
78 that people have an automatic attraction to effort minimization, which may lead individuals to
79 be automatically attracted to sedentary opportunities that arise in their environment (Cheval &
80 Boisgontier, 2021). TEMPA posits that (1) sedentary behaviors are rewarding, and (2) avoiding
81 sedentary behaviors requires more executive control than approaching sedentary behaviors or
82 avoiding physical activity (Cheval & Boisgontier, 2021; Cheval, Radel, et al., 2018).

83 According to TEMPA's first postulate, sedentary behavior should be intrinsically
84 rewarding and provide motivational drive to favor that behavior. This drive may be
85 characterized by activation of specific brain regions. However, current neural evidence for the
86 rewarding or motivational value of sedentary behavior is unclear. Some studies support this
87 first postulate (Jackson et al., 2014; Prévost et al., 2010). For example, obese women showed a
88 reduced activation of reward brain areas than lean women when viewing pictures of physical

89 activity, suggesting that higher effort is associated with lower reward (Jackson et al., 2014). In
90 addition, the prospect of energetic expenses was associated with activation in the anterior
91 cingulate cortex and anterior insula, which was interpreted as signaling higher perceived costs
92 (Prévost et al., 2010). However, other studies challenge this first postulate. For example,
93 Crémers et al. (2012) showed that brain areas associated with reward (e.g., insula, pallidum,
94 caudate) and motor control (e.g., dorsolateral prefrontal cortex [DLPFC]) were activated during
95 the mental imagery of brisk walking (compared to lying and standing conditions). Using a
96 go/no-go task toward stimuli depicting physical activity and inactivity, no evidence of
97 activation was shown in brain areas associated with reward processing (Kullmann et al., 2014).
98 Finally, in studies using electroencephalography (EEG), reward-related brain activity showed
99 no evidence supporting that sedentary behavior was rewarding (Cheval, Boisgontier, et al.,
100 2019; Parma et al., 2023). In summary, the neural evidence regarding the rewarding or
101 motivating value of sedentary behavior is inconsistent.

102 Building on TEMPAs second postulate, it can be suggested that active avoidance (i.e.,
103 moving away from sedentary behavior) requires executive control, involving activation of
104 associated brain areas. In contrast, passive avoidance (i.e., refraining from moving toward
105 sedentary behavior) may specifically depend on inhibitory control. Studies consistently support
106 this second postulate, indirectly validated by large-scale epidemiological studies showing the
107 importance of cognitive function in facilitating and sustaining engagement in physical activity
108 (Cheval, Boisgontier, et al., 2022; Cheval, Orsholits, et al., 2020; Cheval, Rebar, et al., 2019;
109 Cheval et al., 2023; Csajbók et al., 2022; Daly et al., 2015; Sabia et al., 2017). EEG studies
110 provide a more direct support for this postulate (Cheval et al., 2021; Cheval, Daou, et al., 2020;
111 Cheval, Tipura, et al., 2018). For example, avoiding sedentary stimuli, compared to avoiding
112 physical activity stimuli, was associated with larger evoked-related potentials in the frontal
113 cortical areas (Cheval, Tipura, et al., 2018). Similarly, a study using a go/no-go task showed

114 that passively avoiding stimuli representing sedentary behaviors, compared to physical activity,
115 was associated with larger evoked-related potentials in the frontocentral cortex (Cheval et al.,
116 2021; Cheval, Daou, et al., 2020). However, the limited spatial resolution of EEG prevents
117 these studies from precisely identifying the neural networks underlying these automatic
118 responses.

119 To the best of our knowledge, only one fMRI study has been conducted to investigate
120 brain areas potentially underlying executive control in the processing of physical activity and
121 sedentary stimuli (Kullmann et al., 2014). The results of this study suggest that passively
122 avoiding stimuli related to physical activity is associated with an increased demand on the
123 inhibitory control system (e.g., prefrontal cortex) in patients with anorexia nervosa (Kullmann
124 et al., 2014). However, this association may be explained by the fact that patients with anorexia
125 nervosa often report excessive levels of physical activity (Davis et al., 1997), limiting the
126 generalization of the results to the general population, where a reverse pattern can be expected
127 (Cheval et al., 2021; Cheval, Daou, et al., 2020). Therefore, using MRI to investigate the brain
128 regions underlying executive control in the processing of physical activity and sedentary stimuli
129 in healthy adults is warranted.

130 **The present study**

131 The aim of the present study was to investigate whether brain regions involved in reward
132 processing and executive control are associated with the processing of stimuli depicting
133 physical activity and sedentary behavior using MRI. Specifically, based on the postulates of
134 TEMPA and previous work, this study focused on brain regions associated with reward
135 processing, such as orbitofrontal cortex, amygdala, and ventral striatum (Corbit & Balleine,
136 2011; Gottfried et al., 2003; Knutson et al., 2001; Prévost et al., 2012; Roesch & Olson, 2004;
137 Schultz et al., 2000), or with executive control, such as DLPFC, inferior frontal cortex,
138 presupplementary motor area, and basal ganglia (striatum and subthalamic nucleus) (Aron et

139 al., 2007; Aron et al., 2014; Zandbelt & Vink, 2010). To this end, healthy young participants
140 performed an 'implicit' approach-avoidance task using stimuli depicting avatars running,
141 standing, and sitting during fMRI. In addition, analysis of subcortical structures shapes were
142 associated with the tendency to avoid physical activity of approach sedentary behavior.

143 **Hypotheses**

144 At the behavioral level, we hypothesized shorter reaction times and/or fewer errors when
145 approaching sedentary stimuli than when approaching physical activity stimuli (HB1). In
146 contrast, we hypothesized longer reaction times and/or more errors when avoiding sedentary
147 stimuli than when avoiding physical activity stimuli (HB2).

148 At the brain level, we hypothesized increased activity in brain areas associated with
149 reward when approaching compared to avoiding sedentary stimuli (HN1) (contrast: approach
150 sedentary > avoid sedentary). In addition, we hypothesized increased activity in brain areas
151 involved in executive control when avoiding compared to approaching sedentary stimuli (HN2)
152 (contrast: avoid sedentary > approach sedentary) and when avoiding sedentary stimuli
153 compared to avoiding physical activity stimuli (HN3) (contrast: avoid sedentary > avoid
154 physical activity). We also hypothesized that brain activity differences observed in HN3 would
155 not be observed with stimuli depicting very light physical activity (i.e., standing) (contrast:
156 avoid sedentary > avoid neutral) (HN4). Finally, we expected the shape of subcortical brain
157 structures associated with reward processing (i.e. nucleus accumbens, pallidum) and generation
158 of habitual responding (i.e. caudate, putamen) would be associated with the tendency to avoid
159 physical activity and approach sedentary behavior. Other subcortical areas were part of an
160 exploratory analysis.

161 **Materials and Methods**

162 **Participants**

163 To estimate the sample size required for adequate power (90%) with an alpha level set
164 at 5%, we conducted an a priori power analysis using G*Power 3.1 (Faul et al., 2009). We
165 performed a power analysis for a repeated-measures ANOVA with a small to medium effect
166 size (Cohen's $d = 0.40$). We set groups to one, measures to six (action, stimuli), correlations
167 between repeated measures to 0.5, and non-sphericity to one. The power calculation estimated
168 a required N of 36, but we aimed to recruit 45 to account for potential data loss due to collection
169 issues.

170 Exclusion criteria included a history of psychiatric, neurological, or severe mental
171 disorders; use of psychotropic medications, alcohol, or illicit drugs at the time of the study; and
172 any MRI contraindications. In addition, participants were screened to include only those who
173 were right-handed (Oldfield, 1971), could understand French, were >18 years of age, and were
174 free of any medical conditions that would prohibit physical activity without supervision.
175 Smokers were abstinent from tobacco for at least 1.5 hours prior to scanning to reduce the
176 effects of nicotine on the blood oxygen dependent level (BOLD) signal (Jacobsen et al., 2002).
177 Participants read and completed a written informed consent form. The study was approved by
178 the Ethics Committee of the Canton of Geneva, Switzerland (CCER-2019-00065). Participants
179 were compensated with 100 Swiss francs for their participation.

180 Forty-seven healthy volunteers were recruited. Data from 5 participants were excluded
181 due to the inability to enter the MRI scanner (e.g., presence of piercings, tattoos, or copper
182 intrauterine device). The final sample consisted of 42 participants (31 women, 23.0 ± 3.5 years;
183 body mass index = 21.4 ± 3.0 kg.m⁻²).

184 **Experimental paradigm**

185 At least two days prior to the experimental session, participants completed an online
186 questionnaire measuring their laterality (Edinburgh Handedness Inventory) (Oldfield, 1971),
187 usual level of physical activity and sedentary behavior (International Physical Activity

188 Questionnaire) (Craig et al., 2003), motivation for physical activity (i.e., attitudes, intentions,
189 and motivation), exercise dependence (Griffiths et al., 2005), approach-avoidance temperament
190 (Elliot & Thrash, 2010), and demographics (age, sex, height, and weight). Prior to entering the
191 MRI scanner, participants completed a checklist to ensure that they met the requirements to
192 perform a task in the MRI scanner and a questionnaire to assess potential confounding variables
193 (e.g., caffeine, alcohol, and cigarette consumption). An MRI assistant then equipped the
194 participants with the physiological measurements (i.e., respiratory rate, galvanic response,
195 cardiac rhythm) and positioned them in the scanner. Participants were instructed on how to
196 behave during the experiment (e. g., move as little as possible, especially the head). Both foam
197 padding and a strap across the participant's forehead were used to minimize head movement.

198 To assess approach-avoidance tendencies and the associated neural activations,
199 participants completed the Visual-Approach/Avoidance-by-the-Self-Task (VAAST) (Rougier
200 et al., 2018) during fMRI. The task was presented using E-Prime (beta 5.0 version) software
201 (Psychology Software Tools Inc.). The MRI sequences included a T1-weighted scan (5 min), a
202 resting state (8 min), the first two functional runs of the VAAST (8 min each), a T2-weighted
203 scan (5 min), the last two functional runs (8 min each), and a reward localizer task (13
204 min). Finally, participants were paid and debriefed. The entire session lasted approximately 100
205 minutes.

206 **Stimuli.** Using Unity software, we created stimuli depicting avatars in three distinct postures:
207 active (i.e., running), inactive (i.e., sitting in a cubicle), and an intermediate position (i.e.,
208 standing), which will be referred to as 'neutral' throughout the article. Images were created to
209 match for color, brightness and visual complexity. Specifically, a set of 195 images containing
210 14 avatars (50% woman) in active, inactive and neutral positions was tested in a pilot study in
211 which 105 participants were asked to rate a random set of 65 pictures. They were asked to rate
212 the extent to which they associated each stimulus with “movement and physically active

213 behavior” (versus “rest and physically inactive behavior”) using two Visual Analogue Scales
214 (VAS1: *Please indicate the extent to which you think this image is associated with a behavior*
215 *that requires: 0 = No physical exertion at all, 100 = A lot of physical exertion*”; VAS2: *Please*
216 *indicate how closely this image is associated with: 0 = Resting, sedentary behavior, 100 =*
217 *Moving, very active behavior*”). Participants also rated the credibility (“*How realistic do you*
218 *think this person’s behavior is? Realistic means that the pictures may resemble to a real-life*
219 *behavior*”; on a VAS from 0=*behavior not at all realistic*; 100 = *Behavior very realistic*) and
220 the likeability of each picture (“*How likeable/sympathetic do you find the person in this picture?*
221 *For example, would you like to talk to him/her*”; on a VAS from 0 = *Very*
222 *unpleasant/antipathetic*, 100 = *Very pleasant/sympathetic*).

223 The purpose of the pilot study was twofold. First, to ensure that the selected pictures
224 reflected the concept of interest (i.e., movement and physical activity vs rest and physical
225 inactivity). Second, to test whether the selected pictures were equivalent in terms of credibility
226 and pleasantness across categories (i.e., movement versus rest). Based on the results of the pilot
227 study, we selected a total of 84 pictures that included 12 avatars (50% woman) in seven
228 positions (three running positions, three sitting positions, and one standing position). Note that
229 each avatar was represented in the seven positions to ensure a strict equivalence between the
230 conditions (i.e., physically active, physically inactive, and standing).

231 The selected physical activity-related pictures were evaluated as associated with a
232 significantly higher level of physical effort (72.4 ± 2.52) compared to the sedentary-related
233 pictures (17.45 ± 2.98 , $p < 0.001$) and the neutral pictures (38.15 ± 2.01 , $p < 0.001$). Similarly,
234 the sedentary-related pictures were evaluated as being associated with a significant lower level
235 of physical effort compared to the neutral pictures ($p < 0.001$). In addition, on average, the
236 pictures were rated as credible (81.48 ± 3.10) and had a moderate level of pleasantness (55.72
237 ± 7.92). No difference in the level of credibility was observed between physical activity and

238 sedentary pictures (81.63 ± 2.83 and 80.24 ± 2.86 for physical activity and sedentary stimuli,
239 respectively, $p = 0.089$), but neutral pictures were rated as slightly more credible (84.70 ± 2.12)
240 compared to physical activity ($p = 0.004$) or sedentary ($p < 0.001$) pictures. No significant
241 differences in the level of pleasantness were observed between the different types of pictures
242 (56.14 ± 7.53 , 55.15 ± 8.16 , and 56.20 ± 8.97 , for activity, sedentary, and neutral pictures, $p =$
243 0.850). These results demonstrated the validity of the stimuli in terms of their association with
244 the level of physical effort. It also confirms that that these stimuli were equivalent in terms of
245 pleasantness and credibility, except for the neutral pictures, which were rated slightly more
246 credible than the activity and sedentary pictures.

247 **The Visual-Approach/Avoidance-by-the-Self-Task (VAAST).** An adapted version of the
248 VAAST was used to measure automatic approach-avoidance tendencies toward physical
249 activity and sedentary behaviors (Rougier et al., 2018). Compared to other approach-avoidance
250 tasks such as the manikin task (Cheval et al., 2015; Cheval et al., 2014; Krieglmeier & Deutsch,
251 2010), the VAAST has been shown to produce large and replicable effects. During the task,
252 participants were asked to respond to the format (i.e., portrait vs. landscape format) of the
253 pictures depicting avatars in active (i.e., running position), inactive (i.e., sitting position), and
254 neither active nor inactive (i.e., standing or “neutral” position) positions by pressing the ‘move
255 forward’ or ‘move backward’ buttons three times on an MR-compatible response box (Current
256 Designs Inc., Philadelphia, PA, USA), which was placed beneath the participant’s fingers.
257 Participants were instructed to approach the picture when it appeared in a portrait format, and
258 to avoid it when it appeared in a landscape format (the rule was counterbalanced across
259 participants). Congruent with the participants’ approach or avoidance response, the entire visual
260 environment zoomed in to simulate an approach movement and zoomed out to simulate an
261 avoidance movement. A 30% change after the button press was used to give the impression of
262 walking forward or backward as a consequence of the responses.

263 The VAAST was administered in four runs. Each run consisted of 54 trials, for a total
264 of 216 trials. Each run included an equal number of trials (i.e., 9) for each of the six conditions
265 representing the interaction between the two main factors Type of action and Type of stimuli
266 (i.e., approach activity, approach neutral, approach sedentary, avoid activity, avoid neutral, and
267 avoid sedentary). The stimuli were pseudorandomized across the runs. To avoid expectancy
268 effects, we varied the duration of the fixation cross (interstimulus interval; 4–8 s) in each trial
269 (Figure 1).

270 **Behavioral analyses**

271 Statistical analyses of the behavioral data (i.e., reaction times and errors) were
272 performed using R (R Core Team, 2019). Specifically, mixed-effects models (Baayen et al.,
273 2008; Boisgontier & Cheval, 2016) were used via the lme4 and lmerTest packages (Bates et al.,
274 2014; Kuznetsova et al., 2015) to account for the cross-random structure of the current data
275 (i.e., a random sample of participants crossed with a random sample of stimuli) and thereby
276 correctly estimate the parameters.

277 To examine participants' reaction times, the linear mixed-effects models included as
278 fixed factors the type of stimuli (i.e., physical activity, sedentary behaviors, and neutral) and
279 the type of action (i.e., approach, avoidance), and an interaction between these two fixed
280 factors. Participants and stimuli (i.e., pictures) were specified as random factors, and the model
281 also included random effects of the type of action, the type of stimuli, and of their interaction
282 at the participant level. These random parameters allowed the effects of the fixed factors (and
283 of their interaction) on the reaction times to vary across participants. For exploratory analyses,
284 additional models included three-way interactions between usual physical activity level,
285 sedentary craving state, and physical activity craving state with the type of stimulus and the
286 type of action (see Supplementary Material 1 for more details on this measure). These latter
287 models allowed us to examine the extent to which dispositional or situational factors might alter

288 participants' reaction times to approach (vs. avoid) physical activity, neutral, and sedentary
289 stimuli, as expected by TEMPAs (Maltagliati, Fessler, et al., 2024). The same models were
290 applied to errors, except that linear mixed-effects models were replaced by logistic mixed
291 effects models to predict the probability of making an error.

292 To reduce convergence problems, each model was optimized using the default
293 BOBYQA optimizer (Powell, 2009), the Nelder-Mead optimizer (Nelder & Mead, 1965), the
294 nlimb optimizer from the optimx package (Nash & Varadhan, 2011), and the L-BFGS-B
295 optimizer (see Cheval, Bacelar, et al., 2020; Cheval et al., 2021; Cheval, Maltagliati, et al.,
296 2022; Frossard & Renaud, 2019, for similar procedure). *P* values for the global effect of the
297 factors and of their interaction were reported using likelihood ratio tests comparing models with
298 and without the fixed factors included in the models. Statistical assumptions associated with
299 mixed-effects models (i.e., normality of the residuals, linearity, multicollinearity, and undue
300 influence) were met.

301 **fMRI data acquisition**

302 Structural and functional imaging was performed at the Brain and Behavior Laboratory
303 (BBL) of the University of Geneva. High-resolution imaging data were acquired on a 3-Tesla
304 whole-body MRI system (Magnetom Tim Trio, Siemens, Erlangen, Germany) equipped with a
305 12-channel head coil. We used multislice echo planar imaging sequences. For each participant
306 and for each run of the experimental task, 79 functional 2D T2*-weighted echo planar image
307 volumes (EPIs; voxel size = 2.5×2.5×2.5 mm, 48 slices, TR = 600 ms, TE = 32 ms, matrix =
308 84×84, FoV = 210×210 mm, in-plane resolution = 64×64, FA = 52 degrees) were acquired.
309 Thus, an average of 900 volumes of 48 slices were acquired for each participant. The 192 high-
310 resolution 3D T1-weighted structural images (1mm³ isotropic voxels, TR = 1900 ms, TE = 2.27
311 ms, FA = 9 degrees, FoV = 256×256 mm) were also acquired using a magnetization-prepared
312 rapid acquisition gradient echo sequence.

313 **fMRI data preprocessing**

314 Functional images were analyzed using Statistical Parametric Mapping software
315 (SPM12, Wellcome Trust Centre for Neuroimaging, London, UK). Preprocessing steps
316 included realignment to the first volume of the time series, normalization to the Montreal
317 Neurological Institute (MNI) space (Collins et al., 1994) and spatial smoothing with an isotropic
318 Gaussian filter of 8 mm full width at half maximum. To remove low-frequency components,
319 we used a high-pass filter with a cutoff frequency of 1/128Hz.

320 **fMRI data analysis**

321 Data were analyzed using general linear modeling (GLM) as implemented in SPM12
322 (<https://www.fil.ion.ucl.ac.uk/spm/>). For the first-level analyses of the experimental task,
323 correctly scored trials of our conditions of interest (design matrix conditions: 1. approach
324 physical activity stimulus; 2. avoid physical activity stimulus; 3. approach sedentary stimulus;
325 4. avoid sedentary stimulus; 5. approach neutral stimulus; 6. avoid neutral stimulus) and trial-
326 level reaction times were modeled by fitting a boxcar function at the onset of the feedback
327 screen convolved with the canonical hemodynamic response function for 3 sec (duration of the
328 feedback screen). An additional column was added to the design matrix, containing error trials
329 (wrong response trials) and trials for which response times were outside the bounds of
330 percentiles 2 and 98 to remove trials in which participants either pressed too quickly to see the
331 image or did not respond at all. These types of trials were concatenated into a single column
332 per run and only contained on average 2 trials per run. The design matrix therefore included
333 our 6 columns of interest with the corresponding 6 columns of reaction times and the ‘error’
334 trials and the 6 realignment parameters to account for movement in the data, for a total of 19
335 columns per run per participant. The four runs were modelled in a single first-level design
336 matrix with runs separated as four different sessions of one participant. Contrasts were

337 computed with the main effect of each of the 6 conditions of interest (value of ‘1’) inversely
338 correlating with reaction times for each condition (value of ‘-1’).

339 Whole brain group-level statistics were then performed using a 252-lines flexible
340 factorial analysis, in which the first-level simple effects were implemented (42 participants * 6
341 conditions = 252 files/lines). The model therefore included the factors Participants, Type of
342 action (i.e., approach, avoidance) and Type of stimuli (i.e., physical activity, sedentary
343 behaviors, and neutral). Their interaction was also tested. Independence was set to ‘true’ for the
344 Participants factor and to ‘false’ for the remaining within-factors. Variance estimation was set
345 to ‘unequal’ for all factors because homoscedasticity criteria cannot usually be met for fMRI
346 data (default setting in SPM12). Group-level results of our final contrasts of interest—see
347 hypotheses section – were then corrected for multiple comparisons using a voxel-wise threshold
348 of $p < .05$ with false discovery rate correction (FDR) and an arbitrary cluster extent of $k > 10$
349 voxels to remove extremely small clusters of activation. For all analyses, regions were labeled
350 using the latest version of the Automated Anatomical Labelling Atlas (‘AAL3’) (Rolls et al.,
351 2020) and rendered on semi-inflated brains from the CONN toolbox
352 (<http://www.nitrc.org/projects/conn>).

353 **Vertex analysis**

354 A partial exploratory analysis was performed to determine presence of an association
355 between the shape of subcortical structures (i.e., nucleus accumbens, amygdala, caudate,
356 hippocampus, pallidum, putamen, and thalamus) and a behavioral bias towards approaching
357 sedentary behavior, and between the shape of these structures and a behavioral bias towards
358 avoiding physical activity. Tendency towards sedentary behavior is represented by the
359 difference between responses (speed and accuracy) representing approaching sedentary
360 behavior and avoiding sedentary behavior (i.e. sedentary approach – sedentary avoidance).
361 Tendency towards avoiding physical activity is represented by the difference between responses

386 Table 1 shows the characteristics of the participants and reports the reaction times to
387 approach and avoid stimuli depicting physical activity, neutral, and sedentary stimuli, as well
388 as the approach bias scores (i.e., reaction times to avoid - reaction times to approach) for each
389 type of stimulus. On average, reaction times within each condition were < 700 ms, and strongly
390 correlated with each other (Pearson's Rs between .83 and .95, $ps < .001$). Error rates were on
391 average about 5% ($\pm 6\%$) for avoiding physical activity, 6% ($\pm 9\%$) for approaching neutral
392 stimuli, and about 7% for the other conditions (standard deviations ranged from 6% to 9%).

393 **Reaction Times and Error Rates in the Approach-Avoidance Task**

394 *Reaction times.* The results of the linear mixed-effects models showed no main effect
395 either of stimulus type (p -value for global effect = 0.164) or action type (p -value for global
396 effect = 0.160). Also, the two-way interaction between stimulus type and action type was also
397 not significant (p -value for global effect = 0.965). Simple effects tests further confirmed that
398 reaction times to approach (vs. avoid) physically active stimuli were not statistically different
399 from reaction times to approach (vs. avoid) sedentary stimuli ($p = .851$) (Table 2). Similarly,
400 reaction times to approach (vs. avoid) neutral stimuli were not statistically different from the
401 reaction times to approach (vs. avoid) sedentary stimuli ($p = .802$) or physically active stimuli
402 ($p = .661$).

403 *Errors.* The results of the logistic mixed-effects models showed no main effect either of
404 stimulus type (p -value for global effect = 0.784) or action type (p -value for global effect =
405 0.995). However, although the main effect of the interaction between stimulus type and action
406 type was only marginal (p -value for global effect = 0.091), the results showed that the
407 probability of error when avoiding (vs. approaching) physical activity stimuli was statistically
408 different from the probability of error when avoiding (vs. approaching) sedentary stimuli (OR
409 = 1.64, 95%CI = 1.06 – 2.54, $p = .025$) – participants made more errors when instructed to
410 avoid stimuli depicting sedentary behaviors than when instructed to avoid stimuli depicting

411 physical activity. No difference was observed in the approach condition (Figure 2). The same
412 pattern of effect was found between neutral and physical activity stimuli (OR = 1.57, 95%CI =
413 1.01 – 2.43, $p = .044$).

414 **Physical activity engagement and craving for physical activity**

415 *Reaction times.* Results did not show that usual physical activity engagement or craving
416 for physical activity significantly moderated the effect of action, stimulus type, or the
417 interaction between these two factors (see Supplementary Material 2). However, the results
418 showed that reaction time differences between responses following physical activity and
419 sedentary stimuli were moderated by the state of craving for sedentary behaviors ($b = -22.0$,
420 95%CI = $-35.0 - -9.0$, $p < .001$) – participants responded faster to sedentary than to physical
421 activity stimuli when their craving for sedentary behaviors was high, but were slower when the
422 craving for sedentary behaviors was low.

423 *Error.* Results did not show that usual physical activity, craving for physical activity, or
424 craving for sedentary behaviors significantly moderated the effect of action, stimulus type, or
425 the interaction between these two factors (see Supplementary Material 3).

426 **Neural Activity Associated with the Avoidance of Sedentary Stimuli**

427 *Approach sedentary > Avoid Sedentary (HN1).* More activity was observed in the left
428 posterior middle temporal gyrus (Figure 3A), bilateral parahippocampal gyrus (Figure 3DEF),
429 primary and secondary visual cortex (Figure 3BCDFH) when participants approached
430 compared to avoid sedentary stimuli.

431 *Avoid Sedentary > Approach Sedentary (HN2).* More activity was observed in a
432 widespread network of bilateral brain areas, including the primary motor cortex (Figure 4ABC),
433 the supplementary motor area (Figure 4DF), the primary somatosensory cortex and the bilateral
434 dorsolateral prefrontal cortex (Figure 4ABCG), the bilateral insula (Figure 4AC), the inferior

435 frontal gyrus *pars triangularis* (Figure 4C) and the putamen (Figure 4E), when participants
436 avoided sedentary stimuli as compared to when participants approached sedentary stimuli.

437 *Avoid Sedentary > Avoid Physical Activity (HN3)*. More activity was observed in the
438 left primary motor cortex, insula, anterior superior temporal sulcus (STS), posterior middle
439 temporal gyrus (MTG; Figure 5AB), right posterior MTG, superior temporal gyrus, mid STS,
440 posterior cingulate cortex, and dorsolateral prefrontal cortex (MTG; Figure 5CFG). Subcortical
441 activations were also observed especially in the bilateral putamen and in the left thalamus
442 (MTG; Figure 5E), when participants avoided sedentary behavior than when the avoided
443 physical activity stimuli.

444 *Avoid Sedentary > Avoid Neutral (HN4)*. More activation was found in the left primary
445 visual cortex, associative visual cortex, temporo-occipital cortex and superior parietal lobule as
446 well as in the right hemisphere in the similar regions, when participants avoided sedentary
447 stimuli as compared to when participants avoided light physical activity stimuli (See
448 Supplementary Materials 4).

449 See also Supplementary Materials 5 2 for detailed coordinates of the clusters presented
450 in this section.

451 **Associations Between Subcortical Structure Shapes and Behavioral Bias**

452 The association between subcortical structures' shape and sedentary behavior tendency
453 was assessed by error and reaction time measures predicting the size of the deformations of that
454 shape. Greater tendency towards sedentary behavior as assessed with reaction time was
455 predictive for larger outward deformations of the right ventral hippocampus (Figure 6). The
456 bias as assessed using error data did not show such significant association. In addition, no other
457 subcortical structure was significantly associated with the sedentary behavior bias. No
458 significant association was observed between a behavioral bias towards avoiding physical
459 activity and the shape of the assessed subcortical structures.

460

Discussion

461 Main Findings

462 This study used an approach-avoidance task during fMRI and provides evidence that
463 avoiding sedentary stimuli requires higher levels of behavioral control than avoiding physical
464 activity stimuli. In addition, the outward deformation of the right ventral/anterior hippocampus
465 was associated with a behavioral tendency towards sedentary behavior. These neural results are
466 consistent with behavioral data showing that participants made more errors when avoiding
467 sedentary stimuli than when avoiding physical activity stimuli. Hence, these findings are
468 consistent with the TEMPA's postulate that avoiding sedentary behaviors requires more
469 executive control than approaching sedentary behaviors or avoiding physical activity, while
470 they did not provide support for the postulate regarding the rewarding value of sedentary
471 behaviors.

472 Comparison With Other Studies

473 *Behavioral results.* Participants made more errors when avoiding sedentary stimuli than
474 when avoiding physical activity stimuli (HB2). This finding is consistent with previous
475 literature that has shown, using a go/no-go task (Duckworth & Kern, 2011), that participants
476 made more commission errors (i.e., a failure to refrain from responding to a “no-go” stimulus)
477 when responding to sedentary stimuli compared to physical activity stimuli (Cheval, Daou, et
478 al., 2020). Thus, these behavioral data provide support for the suggestion that more executive
479 control is required for the avoidance than approach of sedentary opportunities.

480 However, our results showed no significant effects of stimulus type, action type, or their
481 interaction on participants' reaction times. This finding contrasts with previous literature that
482 has repetitively shown that participants are faster when approaching compared to avoiding
483 physical activity stimuli, whereas they are faster when avoiding compared to approaching
484 physical inactivity stimuli (Cheval et al., 2015; Cheval et al., 2014; Cheval, Tipura, et al., 2018;

485 Farajzadeh et al., 2023; Hannan et al., 2019; Moffitt et al., 2019). This discrepancy can be
486 explained by the specificity of the task we used in the current study. Specifically, previous
487 studies relied on an explicit approach-avoidance task in which participants were instructed to
488 respond to the content of the picture – to approach or avoid depending on the stimulus type
489 (physical activity or sedentary behavior). In contrast, here we used an ‘implicit’ approach-
490 avoidance task in which participants were instructed to respond to the format of the pictures –
491 to approach or avoid depending on whether the picture appeared in portrait vs. landscape
492 format. A review of the literature found that the implicit stimulus evaluation typically produces
493 smaller effects than explicit stimulus evaluation (Phaf et al., 2014). Accordingly, the reliance
494 on implicit instructions may largely explain why the usual approach tendency toward physical
495 activity and avoidance tendency toward sedentary behavior were not found.

496 Exploratory analyses further revealed that the state of craving for sedentary behaviors
497 significantly moderated participants’ reaction times in the task. Specifically, greater craving for
498 sedentary behaviors reduced the reaction times in response to sedentary stimuli relative to
499 physical activity stimuli, regardless of the type of action required (i.e., approach or avoidance).
500 These shorter reaction times may be explained by the fact that participants in a state of craving
501 for sedentary behaviors may be more attentive to stimuli associated with such behaviors. This
502 finding is consistent with previous studies showing that attention is biased toward stimuli that
503 are particularly relevant to participant’s current concerns (Cheval, Miller, et al., 2020; Pool et
504 al., 2016). Accordingly, these findings may suggest that physical inactivity stimuli may be
505 particularly relevant to the concerns of individuals who self-report a desire to engage in
506 sedentary behaviors.

507 *Neural results.* fMRI results showed more activation of a motor control network
508 including primary motor cortex, supplementary motor area, primary somatosensory cortex and
509 dorsolateral prefrontal cortex when participants avoided sedentary stimuli as compared to when

510 participants approached sedentary stimuli. This result suggests that avoiding sedentary behavior
511 requires to deliberately plan and implement the motor action, taking more effort, compared to
512 approach sedentary behavior. However, it is important to note that while this effect was
513 observed specifically for sedentary stimulus contrasts, the conjunction analysis showed no
514 significant differences when comparing sedentary, neutral, and PA stimuli. This calls for
515 caution regarding the specificity of the effect observed for sedentary stimuli. That said, this
516 suggestion is supported by the larger activation observed in the posterior cingulate cortex and
517 DLPFC when participants avoided sedentary behavior compared to when the avoided physical
518 activity stimuli, which could be related to higher resources required for conflict monitoring as
519 well as action planning and implementation. These observations are consistent with previous
520 EEG studies that have shown, using either an approach-avoidance task (Krieglmeyer &
521 Deutsch, 2010) or a go/no-go task (Duckworth & Kern, 2011), that “not going to” or “avoiding”
522 a sedentary stimulus requires greater behavioral control than “not going to” or “avoiding” a
523 physical activity stimulus, as indicated by larger evoked-related potentials in the medial frontal
524 cortex and frontocentral cortex (Cheval et al., 2021; Cheval, Tipura, et al., 2018).

525 The observed positive association between the outward deformation of the right
526 hippocampus and the tendency to approach sedentary behavior was unexpected, as this structure
527 was a-priori not associated with motivation or reward-based information processing. To
528 potentially explain these findings, it can be argued that the judgement of stimuli being presented
529 in a portrait or landscape format may have been a confounding factor. The currently perceived
530 function of the hippocampus is to encode spatial and temporal contexts of episodes,
531 constructing a cognitive map (Epstein et al., 2017). In particular, the right hippocampus has
532 been shown to be involved in spatial task performance (Klur et al., 2009). In support of our
533 findings, Hernández et al. (2017) performed an analysis similar to the one presented here,
534 linking cognitive function to hippocampal deformation. They observed that a similar subregion

535 of the right hippocampus was specifically associated with spatial memory performance. To test
536 whether judging the stimulus orientation and/or associated movement acted as a confounder,
537 we performed an additional analysis in which we assessed the association between the reaction
538 time difference between approach vs. avoidance of neutral images and the structural
539 deformation of the right hippocampus. Such association between hippocampal structure and
540 reaction time in the neutral condition, may indicate that the observed effect is driven by the
541 orientation of the stimulus and/or associated movement. This analysis did not show any
542 significant association, providing no evidence that the judgement of the spatial orientation was
543 driving the effect. An alternative explanation may be that the currently observed associations
544 reflect an emotion-based decision to engage in approach or avoidance behavior. The presently
545 observed location of the association with sedentary behavior tendency is mostly
546 ventral/anterior, and this subregion of the hippocampus is associated with the processing of
547 stress, emotion and affect. Therefore, speculatively, a larger hippocampal capacity to process
548 intrinsically rewarding events may lead to faster responses such as those observed here.

549 **Limitations and Strengths**

550 This study has several limitations to consider. First, the experimental setup required
551 participants to lie down, which may have influenced their evaluation of the stimuli and reduced
552 ecological validity. Second, the study's correlational design, without experimental
553 manipulation, limits the ability to establish causal relationships. Third, the use of self-reported
554 measures to assess usual physical activity introduces potential biases and may partially explain
555 the absence of a moderating effect. Fourth, while the stimuli were validated and relevant to the
556 concept of effort, they cannot fully capture the complexity of effort-related behaviors in real-
557 world contexts. Despite these limitations, the study has notable strengths. The use of fMRI
558 allowed for precise identification of spatial patterns of brain activity, providing valuable
559 insights into the neural mechanisms underlying TEMPA. The design incorporated numerous

560 repetitions within each condition and used a high temporal resolution, optimizing the reliability
561 and quality of the data. The validated stimuli directly addressed the concept of effort, enhancing
562 the study's relevance, and the well-validated approach-avoidance task added methodological
563 rigor.

564 **Conclusion**

565 This study provides new insights into the neural mechanisms underlying the difficulty
566 to avoid sedentary stimuli. Behavioral results showed that participants made more errors when
567 avoiding sedentary stimuli compared to physical activity stimuli. Neural results showed greater
568 activation observed in brain regions associated with motor control, conflict monitoring, and
569 action planning when avoiding sedentary stimuli. Altogether, these results suggest that
570 executive control plays an important role in overcoming an inclination toward low-effort
571 behaviors, as proposed by TEMPA.

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830

831 **Table 1**

832 *Descriptive statistics*

	Mean	SD
N = 42		
Age (years)	23.0	3.5
Gender (number; %)		
Women	31	74%
Men	11	26%
Body Mass Index	21.4	3.0
Craving for sedentary behaviors	4.3	1.6
Craving for physical activity behaviors	3.7	1.7
Usual level of physical activity (min per week)	285.9	293.1
Reaction times (ms)		
Approach physical activity	666.5	111.4
Approach neutral	668.7	117.5
Approach sedentary behaviors	677.4	116.5
Avoid physical activity	659.6	102.8
Avoid neutral	659.4	107.6
Avoid sedentary behaviors	669.7	114.3
Approach biases (ms)		
Approach bias toward physical activity	-6.9	47.2
Approach bias toward neutral stimuli	-9.3	65.6
Approach bias toward sedentary behaviors	-7.7	65.7
Errors		
Approach physical activity	7%	8%
Approach neutral	6%	9%
Approach sedentary behaviors	7%	7%
Avoid physical activity	5%	6%
Avoid neutral	7%	8%
Avoid sedentary behaviors	7%	8%

833 *Notes.* SD = standard deviation; ms = milliseconds ; min = minutes

834 **Table 2**

835 *Results of the linear mixed-effects models predicting the reaction times as a function of action*

836 *type (approach vs. avoidance) and stimulus type (physical activity vs. neutral vs. sedentary).*

N = 40*	b (CI)	p
Fixed Effects		
Intercept	666.1 (627.9;704)	<.001
Stimuli (ref. physical activity)		
Neutral	2.7 (-11.7;17.2)	.711
Sedentary	7.9 (-6.0;21.9)	.267
Action (ref. approach)		
Avoidance	-7.0 (-23.6;9.6)	.410
Stimuli (ref. physical activity) x Action (ref. approach)		
Avoidance x neutral	-4.1 (-11.7;14.2)	.661
Avoidance x Sedentary	-1.8 (-22.4;16.6)	.851
Covariates		
Age	-12.3 (-46.4;21.7)	.483
Sex	-5.1 (-78.3;68.1)	.892
BMI	1.3 (-33.0;35.6)	.940
Random Effects		
Participants		
Intercept	10710.07	
Stimuli sedentary	54.48	
Stimuli neutral	8.24	
Action Avoid	1109.29	
Corr. (Intercept, stimuli sedentary)	0.07	
Corr. (Intercept, stimuli neutral)	0.97	
Corr. (Intercept, action avoidance)	-0.30	
Corr. (Stimuli sedentary; stimuli neutral)	-0.16	
Corr. (Stimuli sedentary; action avoidance)	0.93	
Corr. (Stimuli neutral; action avoidance)	-0.51	
Stimuli		
Intercept	94.87	
Residual	28551.56	
R ²	Conditional .005	
	Marginal =.275	

837 *Notes. 95CI = confidence intervals at 95%. *Two participants were not included in the analyses*
 838 *because they were an issue regarding the recording of their behavioral data.*

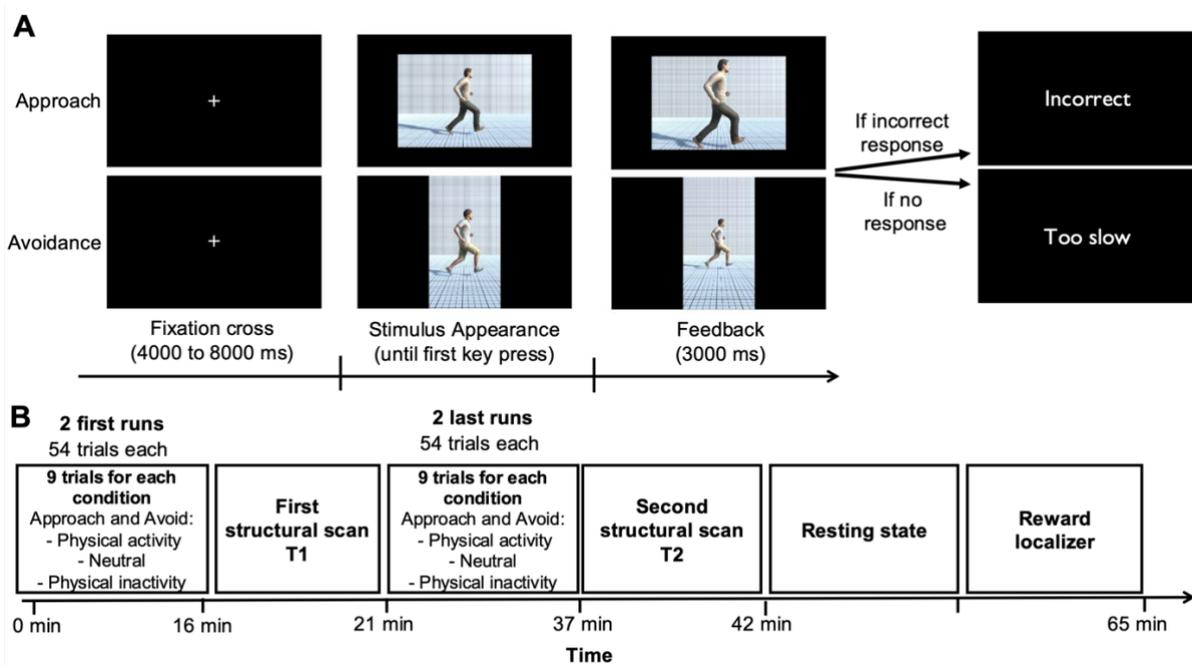
839 **Table 3.** Results of the logistic mixed-effects models predicting the risk of error in the
 840 approach-avoidance task as a function of action type (approach vs. avoidance) and stimuli type
 841 (physical activity vs. neutral vs. sedentary).

N = 40	OR (CI)	<i>p</i>
Fixed Effects		
Intercept	0.06 (0.04;0.08)	<.001
Stimuli (ref. physical activity)		
Neutral	0.80 (0.59;1.08)	.149
Physical inactivity	0.85 (0.63;1.16)	.308
Action (ref. approach)		
Avoidance	0.73 (0.53;1.03)	.071
Stimuli (ref. physical activity) x Action (ref. approach)		
Avoidance x neutral	1.57 (1.01;2.43)	.044
Avoidance x Physical inactivity	1.64 (1.06;2.54)	.025
Covariates		
Age	1.04 (0.77;1.40)	.798
Sex	0.94 (0.49;1.81)	.852
BMI	0.90 (0.67;1.23)	.516
Random Effects		
Participants		
Intercept	0.68	
Stimuli physical inactivity	0.01	
Stimuli neutral	0.02	
Action Avoid	0.01	
Corr. (Intercept, stimuli physical inactivity)	0.65	
Corr. (Intercept, stimuli neutral)	1.00	
Corr. (Intercept, action avoidance)	-0.37	
Corr. (Stimuli physical inactivity; stimuli neutral)	0.57	
Corr. (Stimuli physical inactivity; action avoidance)	-0.95	
Corr. (Stimuli neutral; action avoidance)	-0.28	
Stimuli		
Intercept	null	
R ²	Conditional .006	
	Marginal =.192	

842 *Notes.* OR= odds ratio; 95CI = confidence intervals at 95%. Note that the models estimated a
 843 null variance for the random intercept of the stimuli. The models with or without this parameter
 844 lead to consistent results. *Two participants were not included in the analyses because they
 845 were an issue regarding the recording of their behavioral data.

846 **Figure 1**

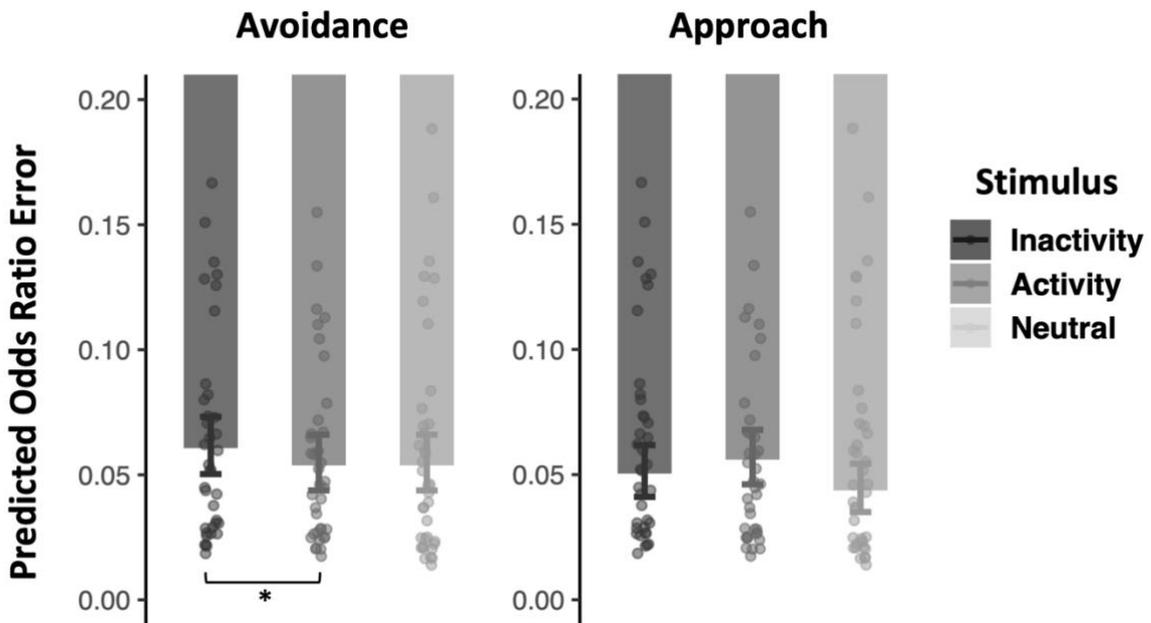
847 *Experimental paradigm. A. the approach-avoidance task.* Participants were instructed to
848 quickly approach or avoid pictures depending on their format (i.e., portrait vs landscape
849 format). The six conditions (i.e., approach physical activity, approach neutral, approach
850 physical inactivity, avoid physical activity, avoid neutral, and avoid physical inactivity) were
851 pseudo-randomized across the run. *B. Procedure.* Participants were asked to complete four runs
852 of the approach-avoidance task. Each run was composed of 54 trials, including 9 trials within
853 each of the six conditions.



854

855 **Figure 2**

856 *Results of the logistic mixed-effects models. Predicted odds ratio of a failure to avoid or*
857 *approach stimuli depicting physical activity, neutral, and sedentary behaviors. Dots represent*
858 *mean response times for each participant as a function of stimulus type (i.e., physical activity*
859 *vs. sedentary behaviors vs. neutral stimuli). Error bars represent the standard errors around the*
860 *mean.*



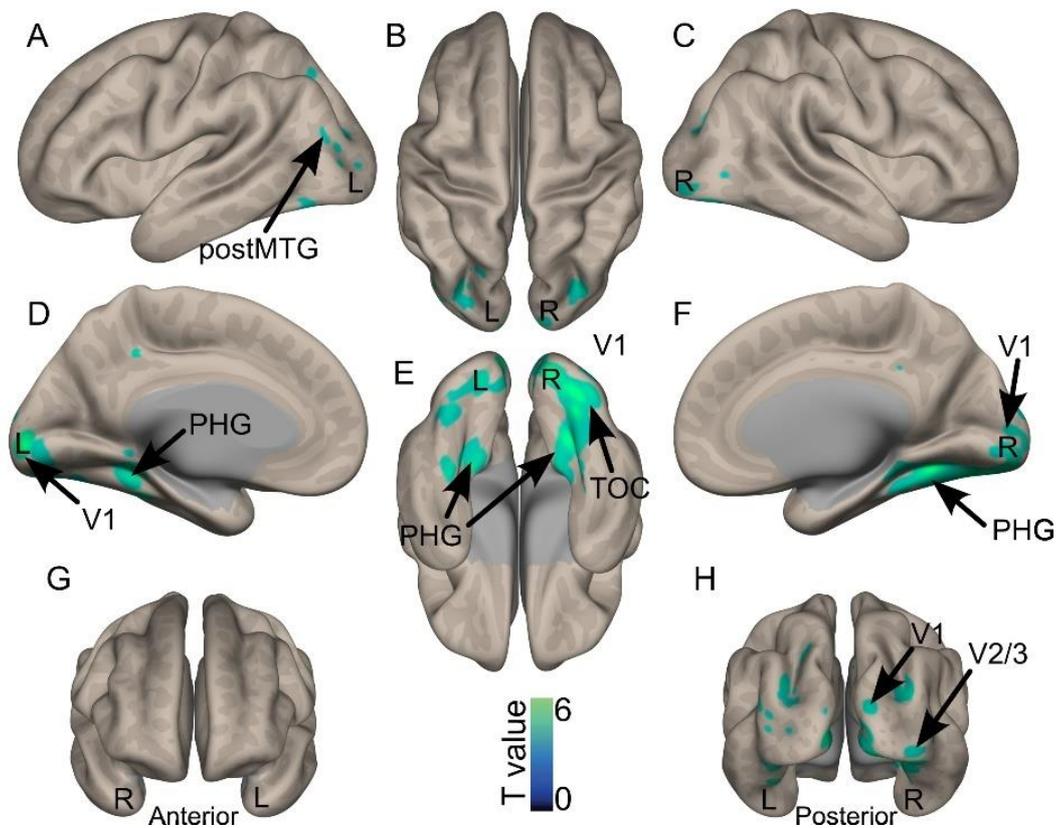
861

862

863 **Figure 3**

864 Brain activations when approaching vs. avoiding sedentary stimuli, corrected for multiple
865 comparisons (whole-brain voxel-wise $p < .05$ FDR, $k > 10$ voxels). The color bar represents the
866 statistical T value. V1: primary visual cortex; V2/3: secondary visual cortex; postMTG:
867 posterior part of the middle temporal gyrus; TOC: temporo-occipital cortex; PHG:
868 parahippocampal gyrus. L: left hemisphere; R: right hemisphere.

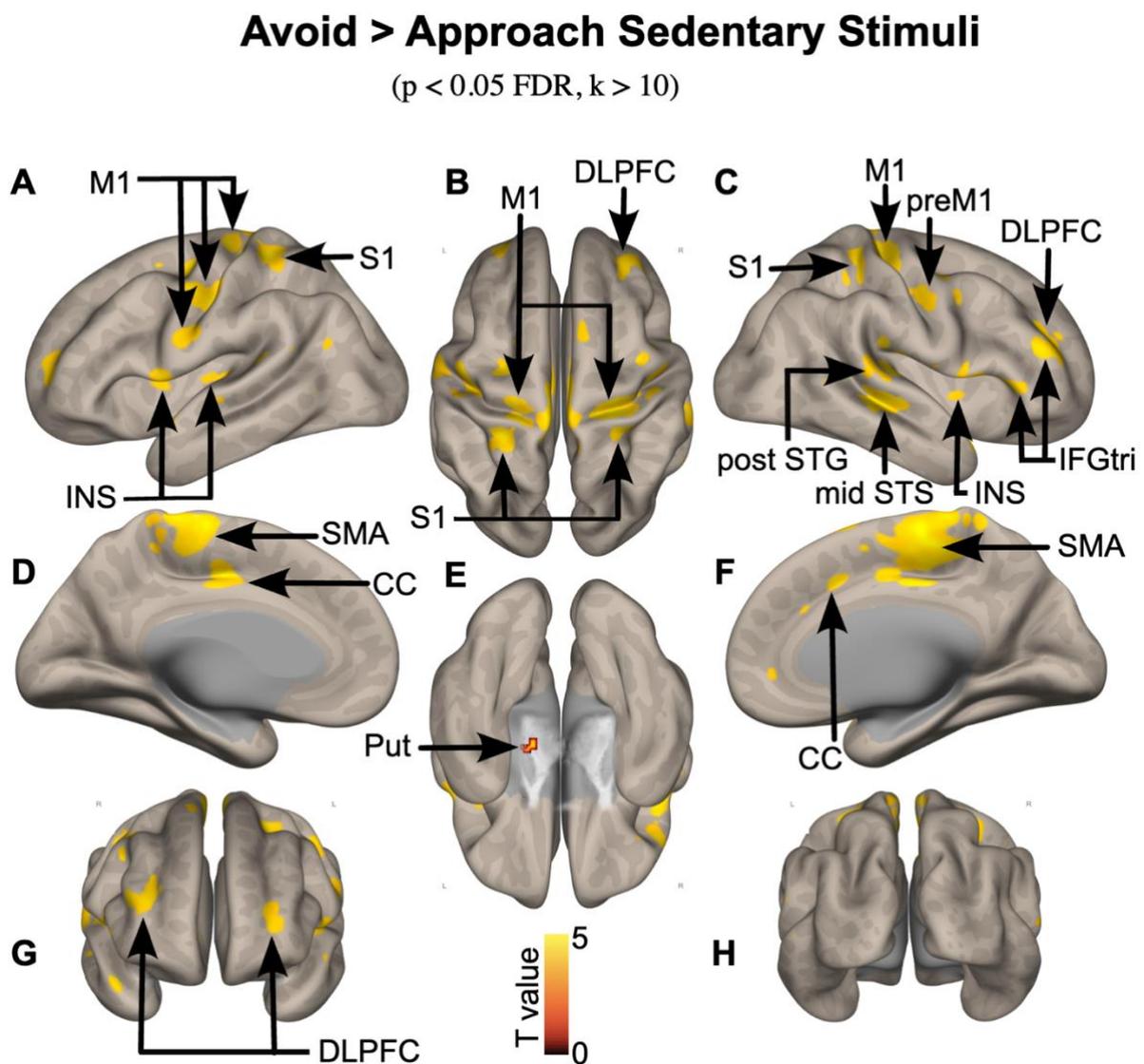
Approach > Avoid sedentary stimuli ($p < .05$ FDR, $k > 10$)



869

870

871 **Figure 4.** Brain activations when avoiding vs. approaching sedentary stimuli, corrected for
872 multiple comparisons (whole-brain voxel-wise $p < .05$ FDR, $k > 10$ voxels). The color bar
873 represents the statistical T value. postSTG: posterior part of the superior temporal gyrus;
874 midSTS: mid part of the superior temporal sulcus; M1: primary motor cortex; S1: primary
875 somatosensory cortex; INS: insula; DLPFC: dorsolateral prefrontal cortex; IFGtri: inferior
876 frontal gyrus *pars triangularis*; SMA: supplementary motor area; CC: cingulate cortex. L: left
877 hemisphere; R: right hemisphere.



878

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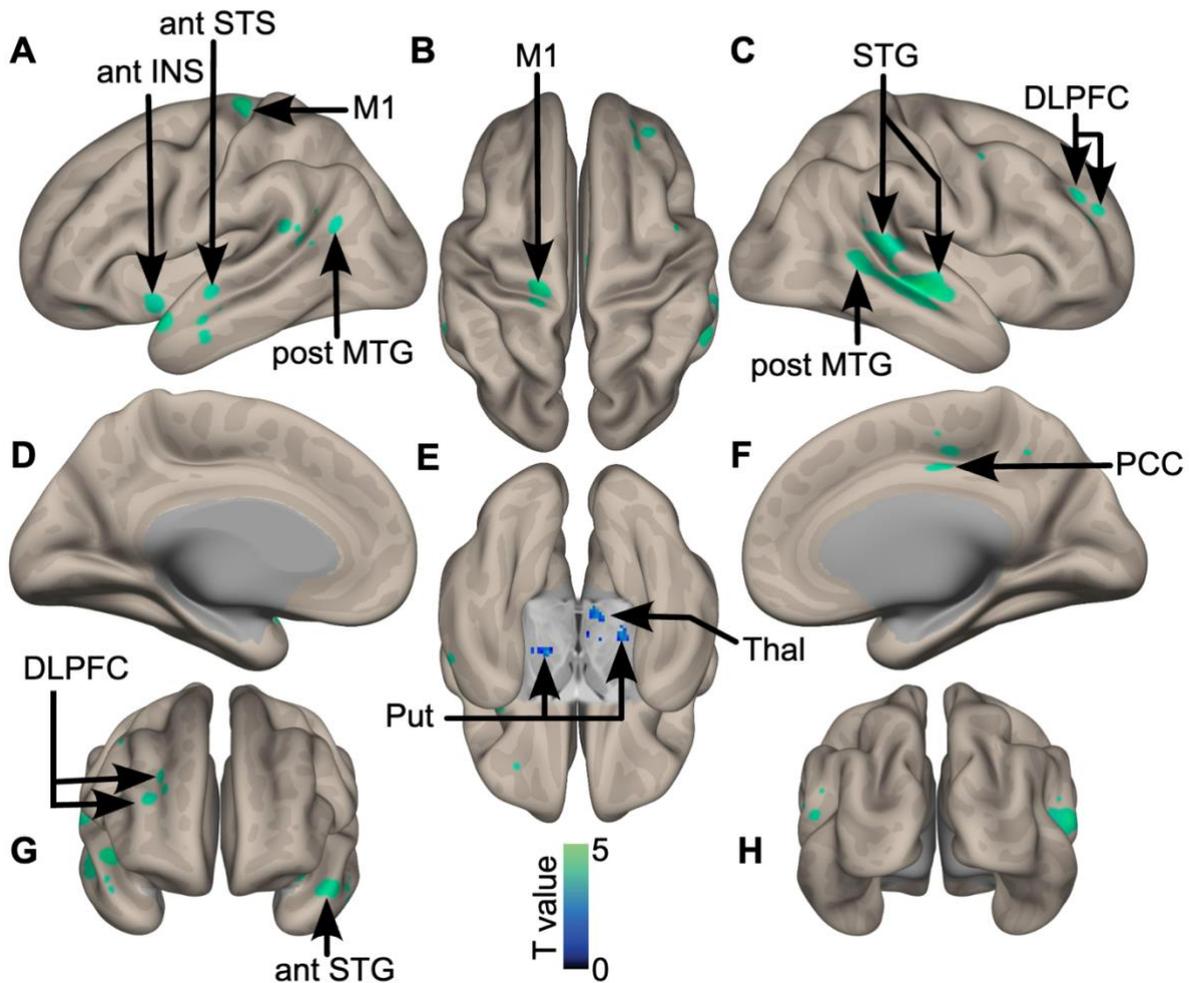
880

881 **Figure 5**

882 Brain activations when avoiding sedentary stimuli vs. approaching physical activity stimuli,
883 corrected for multiple comparisons (whole-brain voxel-wise $p < .05$ FDR, $k > 10$ voxels). The
884 color bar represents the statistical T value. postSTG: posterior part of the superior temporal
885 gyrus; postMTG: posterior part of the middle temporal gyrus; midSTS: mid part of the superior
886 temporal sulcus; antSTS: anterior part of the superior temporal sulcus; midSTG: mid part of the
887 superior temporal gyrus; M1: primary motor cortex; antINS: insula, anterior part; DLPFC:
888 dorsolateral prefrontal cortex; PCC: posterior cingulate cortex; Thal: thalamus; Put: putamen.
889 L: left hemisphere; R: right hemisphere.

Avoid Sedentary Stimuli > Avoid Physical Activity

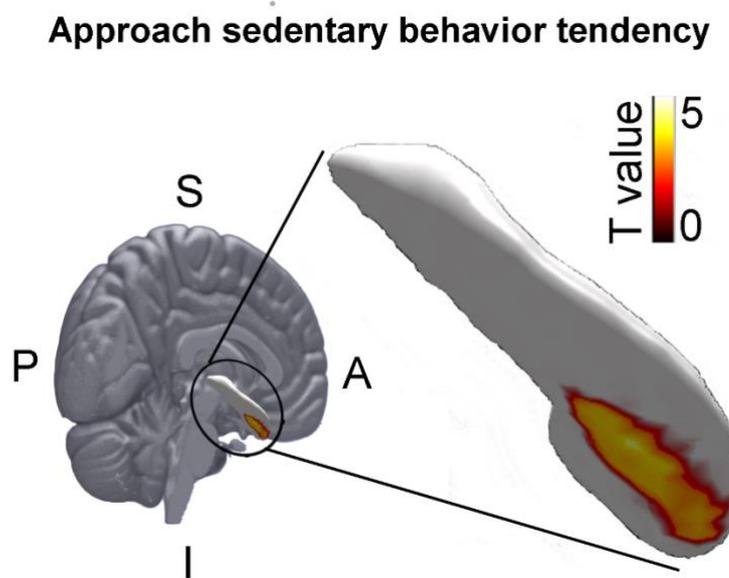
($p < 0.05$ FDR, $k > 10$)



890

891 **Figure 6**

892 Significant ($P < .05$, FWE corrected) positive association between deformation of the right
893 hippocampus and the behavioral tendency towards sedentary behavior (average reaction time
894 for approaching sedentary behavior trial $<$ reaction time for avoiding sedentary behavior trials).
895 The extent to which approaching sedentary behavior is easier relative to avoiding it, is
896 associated with an outward deformation of the inferior/anterior right hippocampus. S: Superior,
897 I: Inferior, P: Posterior, A: Anterior



898