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The representation of observed actions at the subordinate, basic and superordinate level

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39 Abstract

40 Actions can be planned and recognized at different hierarchical levels, ranging from very specific 41 (e.g., to swim breaststroke) to very broad (e.g., locomotion). Understanding the corresponding 42 neural representation is an important prerequisite to reveal how our brain flexibly assigns meaning 43 to the world around us. To address this question, we conducted an event-related fMRI study in male 44 and female human participants in which we examined distinct representations of observed actions 45 at the subordinate, basic and superordinate level. Utilizing multiple regression representational 46 similarity analysis in predefined regions of interest, we found that the three different taxonomic 47 levels were best captured by patterns of activations in bilateral LOTC, showing the highest similarity 48 with the basic level model. A whole-brain multiple regression RSA revealed that information unique 49 to the basic level was captured by patterns of activation in dorsal and ventral portions of the LOTC 50 and in parietal regions. By contrast, the unique information for the subordinate level was limited to 51 bilateral occipitotemporal cortex, while no single cluster was obtained that captured unique 52 information for the superordinate level. The behaviorally established action space was best captured 53 by patterns of activation in the LOTC and superior parietal cortex, and the corresponding neural 54 patterns of activation showed the highest similarity with patterns of activation corresponding to the 55 basic level model. Together, our results suggest that occipitotemporal cortex shows a preference for 56 the basic level model, with flexible access across the subordinate and the basic level.

58 Keywords: action categorization; action observation; action recognition.

60 Significance statement

61 The human brain captures information at varying levels of abstraction. It is debated which brain 62 regions host representations across different hierarchical levels, with some studies emphasizing 63 parietal and premotor regions, while other studies highlight the role of the lateral occipitotemporal 64 cortex. To shed light on this debate, here we examined the representation of observed actions at the 65 three taxonomic levels suggested by Rosch et al. (1976). Our results highlight the role of the LOTC, 66 which hosts a shared representation across the subordinate and the basic level, with the highest 67 similarity with the basic level model. These results shed new light on the hierarchical organization of 68 observed actions and provide insights into the neural basis underlying the basic level advantage.

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Depending on the circumstances, different aspects of an action become relevant. As an example, we might be interested in the type of punch when watching a boxing match, while we might be more concerned with the broader distinction between attacking and greeting when approaching a stranger at night. How the brain adapts its representational states to achieve this flexibility is a key question in Cognitive Neuroscience.

78 The hierarchical organization of objects has been studied for decades (e.g. Gauthier et al., 1997; 79 Mack et al., 2008; Carlson et al., 2013; Iordan et al., 2015). Rosch et al., (1976) argued that objects 80 can be organized into the superordinate (e.g., furniture), basic (e.g., chair) and subordinate level 81 (e.g., kitchen chair), depending on the degree of abstraction, and that the basic level plays a central 82 role in categorization, e.g. in terms of the number and types of features used to describe an object, 83 and in terms of the speed of processing (see also Grill-Spector and Kanwisher, 2005; Mack et al., 84 2008; Macé et al., 2009). Moreover, different taxonomic levels of objects have been shown to be 85 dissociated at the neural level (Kriegeskorte et al., 2008; Iordan et al., 2015; Dehaqani et al., 2016), 86 and it has been proposed that the ventral temporal cortex (VTC) has flexible access to these 87 different levels (Grill-Spector and Weiner, 2014). 88

89 Likewise, the planning and control of actions is assumed to be organized hierarchically (Gallivan et al., 90 2013; Kadmon Harpaz et al., 2014; Krasovsky et al., 2014; Ariani et al., 2015; Gallivan and Culham, 91 2015; Turella et al., 2020). Similar hierarchies have been proposed to underlie the organization of 92 observed actions. Several authors distinguished between the How, What and Why level (e.g. 93 Vallacher and Wegner, 1985; Wegner and Vallacher, 1986; Spunt et al., 2016). Hamilton and Grafton 94 (2006, 2008) distinguished between the goal level (corresponding to the purpose/ outcome of an 95 action), the muscle level and the kinematic level, while Wurm and Lingnau (2015) distinguished 96 between different levels of abstraction (e.g. opening versus closing a bottle). 97

98 It is assumed that areas involved in action recognition should show invariance to the way the actions 99 are performed (e.g. Wurm and Lingnau, 2015; Hamilton and Grafton, 2006, 2008; Oosterhof et al., 100 2010, 2012). Several studies have highlighted the role of parietal and premotor regions for action 101 representations at the Goal level that generalize across the muscle or kinematic level (Hamilton and 102 Grafton, 2006, 2008; Majdandić et al., 2009; see also Lanzilotto et al., 2020; Aflalo et al., 2020). 103 Wurm and Lingnau (2015) revealed representations of observed actions at a concrete level (specific 104 for the object and kinematics) in the LOTC, IPL and ventral premotor cortex (PMv), whereas 105 representations at an abstract level (generalizing across object and kinematics) were restricted to 106 the IPL and LOTC (see also Wurm et al., 2016). In sum, previous studies successfully distinguished 107 between observed actions at varying hierarchical levels, with some studies highlighting the role of 108 parietal and premotor regions, whereas other studies emphasize the role of the LOTC. However, to 109 the best of our knowledge, no previous neuroimaging study directly compared the three taxonomic 110 levels proposed by Rosch et al. (1976). The current study aims to fill this gap.

112 Zhuang and Lingnau (2021) examined the characteristics of observed actions at the three taxonomic 113 levels. Actions at the three levels differed with respect to the number and type of features 114 participants used to describe them, and in their ratings of abstraction. Moreover, participants 115 verified the action category faster at the basic and subordinate level in comparison to the 116 superordinate level. Together, these results suggest that the basic level holds the maximized 117 information, consistent with the basic level advantage reported for objects (Rosch et al., 1976). 118 Given these behavioral results, here we aimed to determine which brain regions (a) represent 119 observed actions at the three taxonomic levels, and (b) which brain regions host a joint 120 representation across these levels.

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123 Overall rationale and hypotheses

124 To reveal which brain areas represent actions at the three taxonomic levels, we separated twelve 125 daily actions into three action categories at the superordinate level (see also Zhuang and Lingnau, 126 2021). Each superordinate action category consisted of two types of actions at the basic level, and 127 each basic level action encompassed two actions at the subordinate level (Figure 1). To verify this 128 hierarchy, we used a multi-arrangement experiment (Kriegeskorte and Mur, 2012) combined with 129 inverse multidimensional scaling (MDS) and hierarchical cluster analysis. Next, to determine which 130 brain areas represent observed actions at the three different hierarchical levels, we conducted an 131 fMRI experiment and carried out ROI-based and whole-brain searchlight-based representational 132 similarity analysis (RSA; Kriegeskorte et al., 2008). Specifically, we examined the representation of 133 observed actions at the subordinate, basic and superordinate level, and the representation of the 134 behavioral similarity structure resulting from the multi-arrangement experiment.

We expected that the subordinate level model is represented by patterns of activations in early visual areas, the LOTC and possibly the IPL and the PMv (see also Wurm and Lingnau, 2015). The basic level model was expected to be represented in the LOTC and the IPL, but not in the PMv, whereas the superordinate level was expected to be represented in anterior portions of the LOTC (Wurm and Lingnau, 2015). The behavioral model was expected to be captured by neural patterns of activation in the LOTC and possibly the IPL (Tucciarelli et al., 2019; Tarhan et al., 2021).

141 Stimulus selection and validation

142 Stimuli consisted of static images of twelve different actions (600 x 480 pixels, 14.36 x 11.07 degree 143 of visual angle; six exemplars each; see Figure 1 for an overview of stimulus exemplars and 144 corresponding action words). The twelve actions were chosen on the basis of a series of rating and 145 behavioral studies (Zhuang and Lingnau, 2021) that we briefly summarize here. First, we selected 146 action verbs corresponding to the basic level from Levin (1993). Using these action verbs, we carried 147 out a semantic similarity rating, followed by hierarchical cluster analysis. Based on the resulting 148 clusters, we selected a subset of basic level actions, excluding actions that might be hard to portray 149 as a picture (e.g. to learn, to memorize). To select labels for the superordinate level, a new set of 150 participants was provided with the basic level labels of actions belonging to a given cluster revealed 151 by the hierarchical cluster analysis. To select actions belonging to the subordinate level, participants 152 were provided with different action verbs corresponding to the basic level and were asked to 153 generate action verbs corresponding to the subordinate level. Next, another group of participants 154 was asked to rate (a) the relationship between actions at the subordinate and the superordinate 155 level (e.g. between 'swim front crawl' and 'locomotion', or between 'swim front crawl' 'and 156 ingestion') and (b) the degree of abstraction and complexity of each action at the subordinate level. 157 Actions were only included in the final set if they were consistently rated to belong to a given 158 superordinate category, and not to other superordinate categories.

We selected the six different exemplars for each of the twelve actions based on the following criteria: young adult agents of both genders, with an equal representation of three males and three females per action. In addition, we selected three distinct orientations for each agent, including two profile views (facing left and right, respectively) and one frontal view. Note that for the action 'doing the dishes', we replaced frontal views by another profile view exemplar due to the lack of suitable images depicting this action in a frontal view.

Since the rating studies were based on written words, we first wanted to verify how human participants categorize these actions when presented as static images. To this aim, we carried out a multi-arrangement experiment (Kriegeskorte et al., 2008) as implemented in the online platform MEADOWS (<u>https://meadows-research.com</u>) in a group of N=18 participants (12 female; mean age: 27 years; range: 22-31 years) that did not take part in the fMRI experiment. Participants were instructed to judge the degree of similarity between the twelve actions depicted in these static 171 images, to arrange them accordingly (i.e., the more similar in meaning, the closer they should be 172 positioned on the screen), and to press a button when they were satisfied with the arrangement of 173 the stimuli. In the first trial, all stimuli appeared on the screen (stimulus size: 48 x 38 pixel). In all 174 subsequent trials, an adaptive algorithm chose a subset of all stimuli in order to provide the optimal 175 evidence for pairwise dissimilarity estimates (see Kriegeskorte and Mur, 2012, for details). The 176 experiment continued until the adaptive algorithm reached the required evidence level for pairwise 177 dissimilarities. The full stimulus set contained 72 static images (12 actions x 6 exemplars). Each 178 participant was provided with 12 different actions. Action exemplars were counterbalanced across 179 participants. 180

181 Results of the multi-arrangement experiment were collapsed across participants and averaged 182 across image exemplars. We visualized the results by creating a 12 x 12 representational dissimilarity 183 matrix (RDM) where each cell contains a value corresponding to the Euclidean distance between two 184 actions (Figure 2A). Figure 2B shows a 2-dimensional (2D) arrangement derived from 185 multidimensional scaling (metric stress), averaged across participants. Inverse MDS revealed three 186 larger clusters corresponding to the three superordinate action categories. Subsequently, to reveal 187 the corresponding hierarchical structure, we carried out average-linkage hierarchical cluster analysis 188 (using the Matlab function linkage) on the results obtained from the multi-arrangement experiment. 189 The results are shown in Figure 2C. This analysis confirmed the hierarchical structure of the selected 190 actions, with three action categories corresponding to the superordinate level (locomotion, 191 ingestion and cleaning), six action categories at the basic level (to swim, to ride, to eat, to drink, to 192 clean the body and to do housework), and twelve actions at the subordinate level (to ride a 193 motorbike, to ride a bike, to swim front crawl, to swim backstroke, to drink water, to drink beer, to 194 eat cake, to eat an apple, to clean windows, to do the dishes, to brush teeth, and to clean the face).

<< Figure 1 >>

<< Figure 2 >>

200 Participants

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A group of N=23 participants (17 female; mean age: 26 years; range: 21- 39 years) took part in the fMRI experiment. All participants except two authors of the paper (T.Z. and Z.K.) were naive to the purpose of the study. All participants gave written informed consent before joining the experiment and received either monetary compensation or course credits at the University of Regensburg. All participants had normal or corrected-to-normal vision and reported to have no psychiatric or neurological disorders.

208 fMRI experimental design and task

209 We used a rapid event-related fMRI design (see Figure 3), programmed in ASF (Schwarzbach, 2011), 210 adopting the design used by Tucciarelli et al., (2019). During each trial, participants were provided with a static image of an action and a central fixation cross superimposed on the image (1 s), 211 212 followed by a blank screen and a central fixation cross (3 s). Participants were instructed to observe 213 the action while keeping their eyes at fixation. During occasional catch trials (11% of all trials), 214 participants were presented with a phrase depicting an action (e.g. 'to swim?', 1 s) followed by 3 s 215 fixation. During catch trials, participants had to perform a category verification task. Specifically, 216 they were instructed to indicate by button press with the index or middle finger of the right hand 217 whether or not the action shown in the previous trial corresponded to the phrase shown during the 218 catch trial. To make sure that participants were not biased towards answering questions at one of 219 the three different levels, phrases presented during catch trials had an equal probability to address 220 the superordinate (e.g. 'locomotion?'), basic (e.g. 'to swim?') or subordinate ('to swim 221 breaststroke?') level. That is, there was the same number of catch trials for each of the three taxonomic levels (four catch trials per taxonomic level in each run). Additionally, to improve design efficiency, we included null events (22.2% of all trials) that consisted of 4 s fixation and were presented pseudo-randomly (no consecutive null events and catch trials).

<< Figure 3 >>

Participants performed six runs, each consisting of 72 experimental trials (66.7%), 12 catch trials (11.1%) and 24 null events (22.2%). Additionally, each run included a 10 s fixation period at the beginning and the end. Each run lasted 7.5 minutes. Halfway throughout the experiment, an anatomical scan was performed with a duration of approximately 5 minutes. The whole experiment lasted approximately 50 minutes. To ensure that participants fully understood and followed the instructions, participants performed a short practice run (consisting of 12 trials) prior to entering the scanner.

236 Data acquisition

237 The experiment was conducted in the MRI laboratory at the University of Regensburg. Data were 238 collected using a 3T full-body Siemens-Prisma scanner with a 64-channel head coil. A T2*-weighted 239 gradient multiband (MB) echo-planar imaging (EPI) sequence was used for acquiring functional 240 images with 64 slices per volume, using the following parameters: repetition time (TR): 2s, Echo 241 Time (TE): 30 ms, flip angle: 75°, excitation pulse duration = 9 ms; echo spacing = 0.58 ms; bandwidth 242 = 2368 Hz/ pixel; Field of view (FoV): 192*192 mm², partial Fourier = 6/8; voxel resolution: 2.5 mm³, 243 MB-acceleration: 4. Each functional run consisted of 226 volumes and lasted 7 min and 32 s. 244 Between the third and fourth EPI sequence, we acquired a 5 min T1-weighted Magnetization 245 Prepared Rapid Gradient Echo (MPRAGE) structural sequence (TR: 1910 ms, TE: 3.67 ms, FOV: 246 256*256 mm, voxel size: 1 mm³, flip angle: 9°).

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248 fMRI data preprocessing

249 We used the FMRIB Software Library (FSL 6.0 https://fsl.fmrib.ox.ac.uk/fsl/fslwiki/) to preprocess the 250 data. The first four volumes were deleted from each functional run to ensure to have reached 251 steady-state magnetization. Functional images were slice time corrected, highpass filtered (with a 252 cut-off of 100 s), corrected for head-motion with 7 degrees of freedom (DOF) and the middle volume 253 as reference, and then co-registered to the individual T1 anatomical image. For univariate analysis, 254 functional data were smoothed with a 5-mm full width half maximum (FWHM) kernel. For 255 multivariate analysis, we used unsmoothed data. Data were aligned into Montreal Neurological 256 Institute (MNI) space.

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258 Region of interest (ROI) definition

259 ROI definition was carried out using a combination of functional data and anatomical masks 260 obtained from the Harvard-Oxford Cortical structural and the Jülich Histological atlas (see Table 1). 261 We focused on key areas of the action observation network described in previous studies (e.g., Grill-262 Spector and Kanwisher, 2005; Hamilton and Grafton, 2008; Grafton and Hamilton, 2009; Kilner, 2011; 263 Binkofski and Buxbaum, 2013; Hétu et al., 2013; Hoffman et al., 2015; Wurm et al., 2017b). 264 Specifically, we selected the bilateral LOTC, IPL, SPL, dorsal premotor cortex (dPM), and IFG. In 265 addition, to be able to compare results with an area concerned with low-level visual analysis, we 266 identified bilateral V1.

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ROI definition consisted of several steps. First, we computed the random-effects (RFX) general linear model (GLM) contrast 'all actions versus baseline' with spatially smoothed data (5mm FWHM). The baseline consisted of all events not explicitly modelled in the GLM. The RFX GLM included seventytwo regressors (12 actions x 6 exemplars), one regressor for the catch trials, and six regressors for head motion. The statistical map resulting from the RFX GLM contrast was corrected for multiple 273 comparisons using Threshold-Free Cluster Enhancement (TFCE, Smith and Nichols, 2009, p<0.05, 274 |z|>1.96, two tailed, 5000 permutations) as implemented in CoSMoMVPA (Oosterhof et al., 2016; 275 http://cosmomypa.org/index.html). Second, we defined anatomical masks from the Harvard-Oxford 276 Cortical structural and the Jülich Histological atlas (threshold: 20%; see Table 1 for details). The mask 277 for the LOTC was created by merging the anatomical masks for the inferior lateral occipitotemporal 278 cortex (LOC) and the occipito-temporal cortex. Third, within each resulting mask, we extracted the 279 peak coordinate resulting from the RFX GLM contrast 'all actions vs baseline'. ROIs were defined as 280 spheres (radius: 10 mm) centered around these peaks. 281

<< Table 1 >>

284 Representational similarity analysis

We carried out RSA using the CoSMoMVPA Toolbox (Oosterhof et al., 2016) and custom written
 Matlab functions (available at https://osf.io/b6ea4/). We used the following procedure both for the
 ROI-based and the whole-brain searchlight approach unless otherwise noted.

289 ROI-based RSA (partial correlations)

290 To examine the representation of observed actions in predefined ROIs, we used RSA with partial 291 correlations (Kriegeskorte et al., 2008). First, we created a model RDM for each of the three 292 taxonomic levels (Figure 1, bottom panel), corresponding to the hierarchical structure shown in 293 Figure 1 (top panel; see also Zhuang and Lingnau, 2021). Since we used 6 exemplars for each of the 294 12 actions, each model RDM consisted of a 72 x 72 matrix, where each cell in the matrix corresponds 295 to the dissimilarity between a pair of actions. The subordinate level model consists of twelve clusters 296 along the diagonal, with each cluster comprising six exemplars of the same type of action. The basic 297 level model consists of six clusters along the diagonal, while the superordinate model consists of 298 three clusters along the diagonal.

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300 Second, to account for differences between the different action categories in terms of low-level 301 visual properties, we constructed a control model using the 1st layer of a Deep Neural Network (DNN) 302 that has been trained to classify image classes in the ImageNet dataset (ResNet50, He et al., 2015). 303 We chose this layer because the first layer of a deep neural network is generally assumed to learn to 304 detect edges, colours, texture orientations and other simple shapes in input images (Zeiler and 305 Fergus, 2014; Kriegeskorte, 2015; Mahendran and Vedaldi, 2015). For each of the 72 images used in 306 the current experiment, we determined the activations of each unit in the first convolutional layer of 307 the ResNet50 and converted these values into activation vectors, separately for each image, Next, 308 we constructed the 72 x 72 low-level visual control model by computing the dissimilarity (1-309 correlation) between these activation vectors for each pair of action images (for similar approaches, 310 see Kriegeskorte et al. 2008, 2012). Additionally, to account for features related to the scene or 311 background in which the action took place, we created a 72 x72 scene control model. We used the 312 same procedure as the one described for the construction of the low-level visual control model. The 313 only difference was that we obtained activations in response to each image from the second-to-last 314 layer of the ResNet50 trained on a large image dataset to distinguish between scene categories 315 (Zhou et al., 2017, 2018).

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Third, we constructed neural RDMs within each ROI following previous studies (Bonner and Epstein, 2018; Tucciarelli et al., 2019). To do so, separately for each run and each of the 72 action images (12 actions x 6 exemplars), we extracted the beta estimates for each voxel in a given ROI and converted these beta estimates into t-values, resulting in a vector of t-values for each action image, with the length corresponding to the number of voxels. Next, we averaged the t-values across runs and normalized the t-values by subtracting the mean t-values of each voxel from the t-values of each action image (Diedrichsen and Kriegeskorte, 2017), separately for each participant. Finally, for each of the 72 x 72 pairwise comparisons of action images, we computed the squared Euclidean distance
 between the corresponding vectors of t-values, resulting in a 72 x 72 neural RDM.

Finally, to determine which of the ROIs captured the similarity between actions at the three taxonomic levels, we computed partial correlations between neural RDMs and each of the three model RDMs, regressing out the low-level visual control model and the scene control model.

331 Searchlight-based RSA (multiple regression)

To determine whether additional areas not captured by the ROI analysis contained information regarding observed actions at the three taxonomic levels, we carried out two different multipleregression representational similarity analyses (RSAs). In both types of searchlight-based RSAs, we used a spherical neighborhood of 100 voxels which were nearest to each center voxel. As in the ROI analysis, t values were averaged across runs and normalized by subtracting the mean t-value of each voxel across conditions.

To examine risks of multicollinearity, we determined the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) for the three taxonomic models depicted in Figure 1 (bottom panel), the low-level visual control model and the scene control model. We obtained small to moderate VIFs (subordinate model: 1.90; basic model: 2.55; superordinate model: 1.78; low-level visual control model: 1.31, scene control model: 1.77), suggesting a low risk of multicollinearity (Mason et al., 2003).

In the first multiple regression RSA, computed separately for each taxonomic level, we included the model for a single taxonomic level (e.g. the subordinate level), the low-level visual control model and the scene control model. This allowed us to obtain beta weights for each taxonomic level while regressing out the low-level visual control model and the scene control model.

In the second multiple regression RSA, we aimed to determine the unique contribution of each taxonomic level. To this aim, we set up a multiple regression that included all three taxonomic level models, the low-level visual control model and the scene control model. This way, we were able to obtain the beta weights for each of the three taxonomic levels while regressing out the contribution of the other two taxonomic levels, the low-level visual control model and the scene control model.

356 Finally, in order to examine the relationship between neural RDMs and the behavioral dissimilarity 357 matrix obtained from the multi-arrangement task (see Figure 2B), we carried out another 358 searchlight-based multiple regression RSA in which we included (a) the behavioral model, the low-359 level visual control model and the scene control model, and (b) the behavioral model, each of the 360 taxonomic models separately, the low-level visual control model and the scene control model. VIFs 361 were also computed and the results were small to moderate, justifying the use of multiple 362 regression RSA. In particular, the VIFs for the low-level visual control model, the scene control model 363 and the behavioral model were small (low-level visual control model, scene control model and 364 behavioral action space model: VIF=1.31, 1.85, 1.53, respectively). Additionally, the VIFs for 365 regression models including the behavioral action space model, each of the taxonomic level models, 366 the low visual control model and the scene control model were small to moderate (behavioral action 367 space model, subordinate level model, low-level visual control model and scene control model: VIF= 368 3.84, 3.18, 1.33, 1.88, respectively: behavioral action space model, basic level model, low-level visual 369 control model and scene control model: VIF=6.10, 5.34, 1.32, 1.88, respectively; behavioral action 370 space model, superordinate level model, low-level visual control model and scene control model: 371 VIF=2.63, 2.24, 1.31, 1.87, respectively).

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375 Conjunction analysis

To reveal which brain regions host converging representations across the different taxonomic levels, we conducted a conjunction analysis (Nichols et al., 2005). To this aim, we determined the minimum t-value for each voxel for the whole-brain searchlight maps corresponding to the unique representation of the different taxonomic levels (corresponding to the results shown in Figure 6B).

381 Statistics

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382 For the ROI-based partial correlation analysis, we first used one-sample t-tests to compare the 383 Fisher-transformed partial correlation values against zero. Second, to determine whether the 384 similarity between neural and model RDMs depicted in Figure 4 was modulated by the taxonomic 385 level and ROI, we carried out a two-way repeated measures ANOVA with the factors taxonomic level 386 (superordinate, basic, subordinate) and ROI (see Table 1), followed by pairwise comparisons. 387 Corrections for multiple comparisons for all factorial combinations (taxonomic level x ROI) was 388 carried out using the false discovery rate (FDR; Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995). Since the 389 assumption of sphericity was violated for the 2-way ANOVA, we report Greenhouse-Geisser-390 corrected p values (indicated as p_{GG}).

For the searchlight-based multiple regression RSA, the beta maps determined separately for each participant were entered into a group statistic by means of a one-sample t-test (one-tailed) against zero. The resulting t maps were corrected for multiple comparisons using threshold free cluster enhancement (TFCE) as implemented in CoSMoMVPA (Oosterhof et al., 2016; number of permutations=5000, corrected p<0.05, z>1.65, one tailed). Thresholded statistical maps were visualized using BrainNet (https://www.nitrc.org/projects/bnv/).

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399 Results

400 Behavioral results

Participants reached a high accuracy (91.1%, standard deviation: 6%) in the category verification task,
 indicating that they paid attention to the actions depicted in the images.

404 ROI-based results

405 Figure 4 shows the results from ROI-based RSA for the three taxonomic levels, regressing out low-406 level visual properties by means of a control model obtained from the first convolutional layer of a 407 Deep Neural Network (ResNet50 conv1; see section ROI-based RSA for details) and the scene 408 control model (based on the last second layer of ResNet50 pretrained with places; see section ROI-409 based RSA for details). We obtained significant partial correlations between neural RDMs and all 410 three taxonomic level models in most of the examined ROIs, with the exception of the right IFG, 411 where no significant partial correlation was observed between neural RDMs and the subordinate 412 level. Similarities (partial correlation values) between neural RDMs and model RDMs differed 413 between the three taxonomic levels in bilateral LOTC and SPL. In bilateral LOTC, we obtained the 414 highest partial correlations for actions at the basic level in comparison to the other two taxonomic 415 levels. In bilateral SPL, we observed higher partial correlations between the neural RDM and the 416 basic level model in comparison to the superordinate level model. 417

418 These observations are supported by the corresponding statistics. In particular, a two-way 419 (taxonomic level x ROI) repeated measures ANOVA revealed a significant main effect of taxonomic 420 level ($F_{(2,44)}$ = 8.88, p_{GG} = .002, partial η^2 = .29) and ROI ($F_{(11,242)}$ = 32.93, p_{GG} < .001, partial η^2 = .60), 421 and a significant interaction between taxonomic level and ROI (F_(22, 484) = 3.46, p_{GG} < .001, partial η^2 422 = .14). Pairwise comparisons within each ROI (using FDR to correct for multiple comparisons) 423 revealed that neural RDMs in the bilateral LOTC showed the highest similarity with the basic level 424 model in comparison to the other two models (left: basic vs subordinate level, $t_{(1,22)}$ =6.11, q_{FDR} 425 < .001; basic vs superordinate level, t_(1,22) = 3.57, q_{FDR} =. 003; right: basic vs subordinate level, t_(1,22) = 426 5.04, $q_{FDR} < .001$; basic vs superordinate level, $t_{(1,22)} = 4.04$, $q_{FDR} < .001$). Additionally, neural RDMs in 427 bilateral SPL showed a higher partial correlation with the basic level model in comparison to the 428 superordinate level (left: basic vs superordinate level, $t_{(1,22)} = 3.53$, $q_{FDR} = .006$; right: basic vs 429 superordinate level, $t_{(1,22)} = 3.86$, $q_{FDR} = .003$).

<< Figure 4 >>

To illustrate the results obtained in bilateral LOTC in comparison to bilateral early visual cortex (V1), 433 434 Figure 5 visualizes neural RDMs (left panel) and the corresponding 2D-arrangements obtained from 435 multidimensional scaling analysis (right panel) in bilateral LOTC (top row) and bilateral V1 (bottom 436 row). Using the same approach described for the searchlight-based RSA, we created a 72 X 72 neural 437 RDM in LOTC and V1, and then collapsed the neural RDM across hemispheres and participants. Next, 438 to account for low-level visual features and scene-related properties, we extracted values from the 439 lower triangular part of the neural RDM and regressed out the corresponding lower triangular part 440 of the low-level visual control model and the scene control model. Finally, the resulting residuals 441 were rescaled to values from 0 to 100 (Nili et al., 2014). In the 2D visualization of the MDS (Figure 5B, 442 D), the three superordinate action categories are highlighted in different colors (blue, red, and 443 green), the basic action categories within a superordinate category are shown by open and filled 444 symbols, and different symbols (circles, squares) indicate the different actions at the subordinate 445 level within each basic level category. As can be seen from Figure 5, the neural RDM in bilateral LOTC 446 (Figure 5A) and the corresponding 2-D arrangement resulting from multidimensional scaling (Figure 447 5B) reveals a broad distinction into actions at the basic level, with open symbols mostly on the right 448 side and filled symbols mostly on the left side, and an additional broad clustering into the three 449 different superordinate categories highlighted in red, green and blue (Figure 5B). By contrast, this 450 pattern is less obvious in early visual cortex (Figure 5C, D), in line with the results of the ROI-based 451 analysis shown in Figure 4.

<< Figure 5 >>

455 Whole-brain searchlight results

Figure 6A reveals areas that capture the similarity between actions at the three different taxonomic levels when low-level visual features and scene-related properties are regressed out via a low-level visual control model and a scene control model (see Section *ROI-based RSA* for details). This analysis reveals a wide set of regions for the subordinate and basic level, with peaks in the right fusiform cortex (Table 2). By contrast, the representation of observed actions at the superordinate level is restricted to a more circumscribed region in occipitotemporal cortex extending into the anterior IPL, with a peak in right occipital pole (Table 2).

463 464 Figure 6B shows which areas capture the similarity structure of observed actions that is unique to 465 each of the taxonomic levels (accounting for the other two taxonomic models as well as for the low-466 level visual features and the scene control model). This analysis reveals that the dissimilarity 467 structure for actions that is unique to the subordinate level is restricted to bilateral occipito-468 temporal cortex, with a peak in right fusiform cortex, while information that is unique to the basic 469 level is associated with bilateral occipito-temporal cortex, IPL and SPL, with a peak in the right 470 occipital fusiform cortex (see Table 2). By contrast, we obtained no region that represented 471 information that is unique to the superordinate level. We will return to this observation in the 472 discussion.

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<< Figure 6 >>

<< Table 2 >>

To identify regions in which actions are jointly represented at the subordinate and basic level, we computed a conjunction analysis on the basis of the statistical maps corresponding to the unique representation of the subordinate and basic level shown in Figure 6B (see Methods section for details). The results are shown in Figure 7. The convergence of observed actions at the subordinate and basic level was located in bilateral OTC.

<< Figure 7 >>

486 Relationship between neural RDMs and behavioral dissimilarity structure

487 Whereas the previous analyses focused on the representation of the three taxonomic levels, we next 488 aimed to determine which brain areas capture the dissimilarity structure between observed actions 489 resulting from the multi-arrangement task, and to which degree these representations are 490 accounted for by the model RDMs corresponding to the three taxonomic levels. To address these 491 questions, we carried out two additional multiple regression searchlight analyses.

493 First, we ran a multiple-regression RSA between neural RDMs and the behavioral dissimilarity 494 structure shown in Figure 2A, regressing out the low-level visual control model and the scene control 495 model. As shown in Figure 8A, this analysis revealed large clusters in bilateral occipitotemporal 496 cortex, IPL, and SPL that were associated with the behavioral action space model.

498 Second, separately for each of the taxonomic levels, we carried out another multiple-regression RSA 499 in which we included the behavioral action space model, the low-level visual control model, the 500 scene control model and the respective taxonomic level (e.g., the subordinate level). A map of the 501 beta weights corresponding to the behavioral action space model, after regressing out the low-level 502 visual control model, the scene control model and each of the taxonomic level models are shown in 503 Figure 8B-D. As can be seen, after regressing out the subordinate level, the low-level visual control 504 model and scene control model, the behavioral action space model is associated with neural 505 patterns in bilateral occipitotemporal cortex (Figure 8B). After regressing out the superordinate 506 model (Figure 8D), the low-level visual control model and the scene control model, large regions of bilateral occipitotemporal cortex, IPL and SPL remained significantly associated with the behavioral 507 508 action space model. By contrast, after regressing out the basic level model, the low-level visual 509 control model and the scene control model, a small cluster in the temporal occipital fusiform cortex 510 (bilaterally) and left superior LOC remained that captured the behavioral action space model (Figure 511 8C). Whereas these latter results need to be interpreted with caution, they are in line with the view 512 that the cortical representations of the behavioral action space model best reflects information at 513 the basic level (see also Figure 4 and 5). We will return to this observation in the discussion.

<< Figure 8 >>

517 Control analysis: Whole-brain searchlight analysis for the low-level visual control model

518 To examine which brain regions show a significant correlation between neural activation patterns 519 and the control model capturing low-level visual features, we carried out an additional whole-brain 520 searchlight RSA with the low-level visual control model (ResNet50_conv1). The results are shown in 521 Figure 8-1. As expected, this analysis revealed clusters in early visual cortex (V1 and V2) bilaterally 522 and additionally in a small portion of the superior LOC, temporal occipital fusiform cortex and 523 inferior LOC (right hemisphere). In other words, this analysis suggests that whereas some of the 524 regions capturing low-level visual features overlap with the regions capturing the three taxonomic 525 levels and the behavioral action space model, the majority of voxels revealed by the taxonomic level 526 models and the behavioral action space model do not overlap with the regions capturing low-level 527 visual features.

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530 Discussion

531 In the current study we aimed to examine the neural representation of observed actions at different 532 taxonomic levels. Utilizing a hierarchical stimulus set and representational similarity analysis, we observed the highest similarity between neural patterns and the basic level model in bilateral LOTC. 533 534 A searchlight RSA revealed that the similarity between observed actions at the subordinate and the 535 basic level was captured in a widespread set of occipitotemporal, parietal and frontal areas, whereas 536 neural patterns corresponding to the superordinate level model were obtained in a more 537 circumscribed region in bilateral occipitotemporal cortex. Unique information corresponding to the 538 basic level was captured by patterns of activation in lateral and ventral occipitotemporal cortex and 539 bilateral SPL, while unique information corresponding to the subordinate level was restricted to 540 bilateral occipitotemporal cortex. For the superordinate model we did not obtain any cluster that 541 captured unique information. Additionally, we found that bilateral occipitotemporal cortex jointly 542 hosted representations that are unique to the subordinate and the basic level. Finally, the behavioral 543 action space model was captured by patterns of activation in occipitotemporal and SPL, and these 544 neural patterns showed high similarity with the basic level model. Together, our results are in line 545 with the view that lateral and ventral portions of the occipitotemporal cortex have flexible access to 546 the representational space of observed actions at the subordinate and basic level, with a special role 547 for the basic level (see also Rosch et al., 1976; Zhuang and Lingnau, 2021). In the following, we will 548 discuss these points as well as limitations and directions for future studies in more detail.

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550 The representational space of observed actions in the LOTC

The LOTC has been shown to distinguish between different observed actions at the basic level on the 551 552 basis of patterns of activation, with a generalization across the subordinate level (Wurm et al., 2016; 553 Hafri et al., 2017; Wurm and Lingnau, 2015). We previously reasoned that if the LOTC is involved in 554 processing observed actions at a conceptual-semantic level, it should not only distinguish between 555 two actions A and B, but also capture the similarity structure of a wider range of actions. Several 556 previous studies have demonstrated that this is indeed the case (Tucciarelli et al., 2019; Tarhan et al., 557 2021), and Wurm and Caramazza (2019) furthermore showed that representations in the LOTC 558 generalize across visual stimuli and verbal descriptions of the same actions. In line with this view, 559 several authors proposed a posterior-to-anterior concrete-to-abstract gradient in the LOTC (Lingnau 560 and Downing, 2015; Wurm et al., 2017b; Papeo et al., 2019; Wurm and Caramazza, 2021).

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562 The results of the current study extend these findings, demonstrating that the LOTC captures (a) the 563 behavioral similarity structure of a different set of actions and (b) the unique representation at the 564 subordinate and basic level, with a preference for the basic level (see also lordan et al., 2015). Our 565 results demonstrate that the LOTC plays a crucial role in representing actions at multiple levels in a 566 situation in which participants are not biased towards processing one of these levels. An important next step for future studies will be to examine the impact of the observer's goal, emphasizing one 567 568 level over one other. For instance, our goals (such as acquiring a new skill versus predicting the 569 intention of another agent) may determine our focus on either concrete representations at the 570 subordinate level or more abstract representations at the basic or superordinate level. Moreover, 571 these results are consistent with the view that the lateral and ventral portion of the OTC hosts and 572 integrates different action components (such as visual motion, body part, manipulation of tools, e.g. 573 Lingnau and Downing, 2015; Tucciarelli et al., 2019) at varying levels of abstraction (see also Wurm 574 and Lingnau, 2015; Wurm and Caramazza, 2021).

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576 The importance of the basic level for the representation of observed actions

577 Previous behavioral studies suggested that the basic level holds the maximized information for 578 objects (Rosch et al., 1976; Murphy, 2004) and actions (Zhuang and Lingnau, 2021). The results of 579 the current study provide insights into the neural basis underlying these behavioral findings. First, 580 we found that patterns of activation in bilateral LOTC and SPL showed a higher similarity with the 581 basic level model in comparison to the subordinate and the superordinate level (Figure 4). Second, 582 information that is unique to the basic level was captured in more widespread regions, including 583 OTC, IPL and SPL (Figure 6B), in comparison to information that is unique to the subordinate level 584 (Figure 6A), while we did not obtain any area that captured information that is unique to the 585 superordinate level. Third, the behavioral action space model showed the highest similarity with 586 neural patterns capturing the basic level model (see Figure 8C). Together, the results of the current 587 study on observed actions are consistent with results by lordan et al. (2015) demonstrating that 588 objects at the basic level show the strongest similarity with patterns of activation in the lateral 589 occipital cortex (LOC).

591 The representation of actions at the superordinate level

592 In contrast to the subordinate and basic level, we obtained no region that represented information 593 that is unique to the superordinate level. Given that this result is based on the absence of evidence, 594 this finding needs to be interpreted with care. There are several reasons that might account for this 595 observation: (1) lack of power; (2) there is no region that host the unique information at the 596 superordinate level; (3) information at the superordinate level is based on the combination of 597 information at the subordinate and basic level; (4) the representation of actions at the 598 superordinate level is more distributed than the representation of actions at the subordinate and 599 basic level, making it unlikely to be revealed by methods that rely on local patterns of activation 600 (searchlight, ROI analysis). In line with the latter interpretation, Abdollahi, Jastorff, and Orban (2013) 601 found that different classes of observed actions (e.g., manipulation, locomotion and climbing, 602 corresponding to the superordinate level) recruit different parts of parietal cortex. This observation 603 might explain why we failed to obtain evidence for a unique – local - representation capturing the 604 similarity between the different actions at the superordinate level. Further studies will be required 605 to distinguish between these alternatives more systematically.

606 607 The contribution of high-level visual features and semantic knowledge to the categorization of

608 actions

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609 Since we did not compare the processing of visually presented actions with the processing of the 610 corresponding action verbs or phrases, we cannot clearly separate between the contribution of 611 higher-level visual features (or perceptual action precursors, see Wurm and Caramazza, 2021) and 612 semantics. As pointed out above, a study that focused on this direct comparison revealed shared 613 representations between patterns of activations for different actions depicted as videos and as 614 written sentences found this to be the case exclusively in the lateral posterior temporal cortex 615 (Wurm and Caramazza, 2019). That said, to be able to tolerate varying degrees of variability, we 616 assume that the categorization of visually presented actions requires access to semantic knowledge 617 for all three taxonomic levels, while the amount of variability is likely to differ between the levels. 618 Specifically, members of the same subordinate level are assumed to have a higher number of shared 619 features that can be exploited to categorize actions at the subordinate level (e.g. the body posture 620 to distinguish between front crawl and backstroke; see also Zhuang and Lingnau, 2021). At the basic 621 level, which is considered to be the most informative level (see e.g. Rosch et al., 1976), 622 categorization has been proposed to rely on more common features that are shared across 623 members of a category (e.g. applying some liquid to the body with hands or a tool to categorize an 624 image to belong to the basic level category 'cleaning the body'). Finally, to distinguish actions at the 625 superordinate level, an even higher degree of generalization across high-level visual features is 626 required (e.g. bringing an object to the mouth for the category ingestion).

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628 Comparison of object and action representations

629 There exists a long tradition both in human (see e.g. Bach et al., 2014, Wurm et al., 2017b; Livi et al., 630 2019; Wurm and Caramazza, 2021) and monkey studies (e.g. Bonini et al., 2014) demonstrating that 631 objects provide strong clues regarding the actions they afford, and that objects play an important 632 role during action observation. Consequently, the representation of objects and actions have been 633 proposed to follow similar, though not identical, principles of organization (see e.g. Pillon and 634 d'Honincthun, 2011; Wurm et al., 2017b). As an example, Wurm, Caramazza, and Lingnau (2017) 635 demonstrated that features corresponding to actions directed towards persons and objects are 636 preferentially represented in dorsal and ventral portions of the LOTC, parallel to the organization of 637 information related to persons versus inanimate objects, respectively. Given these assumed similar 638 principles of organizations, it is notoriously difficult to dissociate the representation of actions and 639 objects. That said, Tucciarelli et al. (2019) showed that patterns of activation in the LOTC capture the 640 behavioral similarity structure of actions, over and above variability due to action components such 641 as objects involved in the action. Likewise, several previous studies demonstrated representations of 642 observed actions in the LOTC that generalized across the object (Wurm and Lingnau, 2015; Wurm et 643 al., 2016). More specifically, Wurm et al. (2016) demonstrated that it is possible to distinguish 644 between observed opening and closing actions, irrespective of the object, in the LOTC, IPL and PMv, 645 whereas decoding between objects across actions was restricted to clusters in the ventral stream 646 (Wurm et al., 2016, Figures 3, 4 and Supplementary Figure 5). While we cannot clearly dissociate 647 between the representation of action functions and object states/ object affordances in the current 648 study, these previous studies indicate that action representations in the LOTC can be dissociated 649 from representations of objects that are being manipulated.

651 The impact of scene-related information

652 Like objects, due to frequent co-occurrences, scenes can provide important cues regarding the kind 653 of actions that are likely to be experienced (e.g. food-related actions in a kitchen scene and sport-654 related actions in a gym; see also (Wurm and Schubotz, 2012, 2017; Wurm et al., 2017a). To be able 655 to account for the potential contribution of scene-related information in the current study, we used 656 the activations of the second-to-last layer of a convolutional neural network (ResNet50) trained to 657 distinguish between scene categories. A promising future step will be to systematically investigate 658 the impact of the relationship between scene and action information on the representational space 659 of actions.

661 Limitations and future directions

Previous studies revealed that posterior portions of the LOTC are recruited both by static images (Hafri et al., 2017; Tucciarelli et al., 2019) and by dynamic videos depicting actions (Hafri et al., 2017; Wurm et al., 2017b; Wurm and Lingnau, 2015). In addition, Hafri et al. (2017) successfully decoded observed actions across static and dynamic input in a number of regions, including the LOTC. That said, we cannot rule out that additional aspects relevant to the processing of the depicted actions, in particular, the corresponding kinematics, are not well captured in the current study.

Moreover, while we accounted for the impact of low-level visual and scene-related features, another important limitation of the current study is related to the fact that with the current stimulus material we cannot discount the impact of variance shared with object-related features involved in the actions. Moreover, it will be important to demonstrate to which degree the behavioral action space examined in the current study generalizes to a wider range of actions. Further studies are required to address these points.

675 Conclusion

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676 Our results offer a neural perspective on categorical distinctions of observed actions across 677 taxonomic levels, yielding insights into the mechanisms underlying behavioral flexibility aligned with 678 the observer's goals. Lateral and ventral portions of the LOTC appear to capture the unique similarity 679 of observed actions at the subordinate and basic level, with a preference for the basic level. 680 Together, our results offer new perspectives on the hierarchical organization of observed actions 681 and the neural basis of the basic level advantage.

682 Figure captions

Figure 1. Top panel: Stimulus set and corresponding hierarchical structure (based on Zhuang and Lingnau, 2021). Left column: example stimuli (one out of six exemplars per subordinate action). 2nd-4th column: English labels of actions at the subordinate, basic and superordinate level. **Bottom panel**: model RDMs for observed actions at the subordinate (left), basic (middle), and superordinate (right) level. Each model RDM consists of a 72 x 72 matrix (12 actions, with 6 exemplars per action), where each cell in the matrix corresponds to the dissimilarity between a pair of actions. Yellow: high dissimilarity, blue: low dissimilarity.

Figure 2. Stimulus selection and validation. A. Behavioral action space model, averaged across N=18 participants and across six exemplars per action. B. 2-dimensional representation of the results shown in panel A, resulting from multidimensional scaling analysis (Borg and Groenen, 2005). For color code see legend in panel C. The numbers refer to the twelve actions at the subordinate level (1: 'to ride a motorbike', 2: 'to ride a bike', 3: 'to swim front crawl', 4: 'to swim backstroke', 5: 'to drink beer', 6: 'to drink water', 7: 'to eat an apple', 8: 'to eat cake', 9: 'to clean windows', 10: 'to brush teeth', 11: 'to do the dishes', and 12: 'to clean the face'. C. Dendrogram resulting from hierarchical cluster analysis, confirming the clusters corresponding to the three superordinate categories (locomotion, ingestion, cleaning) and the six basic level categories (see also Figure 1).

Figure 3. Experimental procedure used in the fMRI experiment. We used a rapid event-related design, where each trial consisted of a static image (1 s) depicting one of the twelve actions (see Table 1, 2nd column), followed by a fixation cross (3 s). During occasional catch trials (11 % of all trials), participants had to perform a category verification task, targeting the action presented in the previous trial. Questions to be answered during catch trials targeted the superordinate (locomotion?), basic (to swim?) or subordinate (to swim breaststroke?) level with an equal probability. Moreover, null events (22.2% of all trials) were included to enhance design efficiency (see text for details).

Figure 4. Partial correlations between neural RDMs and the models corresponding to the three taxonomic levels (see also Figure 1), regressing out a low-level visual control model, based on the first convolutional layer of a deep neural network (ResNet50, He et al., 2015), trained on a large scale image data set (ImageNet dataset) to distinguish image classes and a scene control model, based on the second-to last layer of ResNet50, trained to distinguish between different scene categories; Zhou et al., 2017 and 2018; see Section ROI-based RSA for details). Error bars show the standard error of the mean. Asterisks illustrate statistical significance (*: $q_{FDR} < 0.05$, **: $q_{FDR} < 0.01$, ***: $q_{FDR} < 0.005$) of one-sample t-tests against zero with FDR correction for all possible combinations of taxonomic level and ROI. Since a 2-factorial (level x ROI) repeated measures ANOVA revealed a significant interaction between taxonomic level and ROI, partial correlation values between the three taxonomic levels within each ROI were compared using pairwise comparisons (corrected for multiple comparisons using FDR).

Figure 5. Neural RDM (left panel) and the corresponding 2D visualization of the MDS results (right panel) obtained in bilateral LOTC (A and B) and bilateral V1 (C and D) after regressing out the low-level visual control model (based on the first convolutional layer of ResNet50, trained to distinguish image classes) and the scene control model (based on the second-to last layer of ResNet50, trained to distinguish between scene categories; Zhou et al., 2017 and 2018; see Section ROI-based RSA for details), using the same ROIs as those shown in Figure 4. Colors to indicate actions belonging to the three superordinate level categories (red-locomotion, blue-ingestion, and green-cleaning) are the same as in Figure 2. Opened versus filled symbols indicate different actions at the basic level, whereas circles versus squares are used to distinguish actions at the subordinate level.

Figure 6. Results of the searchlight-based multiple regression RSA for the subordinate (left panel), basic (middle panel) and superordinate (right panel) model. **A**: Multiple regression RSA, regressing out the low-level visual control model and the scene control model (see section Searchlight-based RSA for details). **B**: Multiple regression RSA, regressing out the low-level visual control model and the remaining two taxonomic models. For group statistics (N=23), beta weights resulting from the multiple regression RSA were entered into one-sample t-tests against zero. The statistical t-value maps were corrected for multiple comparisons using TFCE (z>1.65, TFCE-corrected p <.05, one-tailed) as implemented in CoSMoMVPA (Oosterhof et al., 2016).

Figure 7. Conjunction map for the unique representation of observed actions at the subordinate and
 basic level (see Figure 6B). See text for details.

Figure 8. Brain areas capturing the representational space of actions obtained from behavioral ratings (see Figure 2A). A: Brain areas capturing the behavioral dissimilarity structure after regressing out the low-level visual control model and the scene control model. B-D: Brain areas capturing the behavioral dissimilarity structure after regressing out the low-level visual control model and models for the (B) subordinate, (C) basic and (D) superordinate level. For the results of a control analysis examining the areas revealed by a whole-brain searchlight RSA for the low-level visual control model, see Figure 8-1.

Figure 8-1. Results of the whole-brain searchlight RSA for the low-level visual control model. Seemethods section for details.

758 Tables

760 Table 1. Overview Regions of Interest. 1st column: abbreviations used in the following figures (LH: 761 left hemisphere, RH: right hemisphere). 2nd column: peak MNI coordinates (identified based on the 762 RFX GLM contrast 'all actions vs. baseline'; see text for details). 3rd and 4th column: label and 763 anatomical atlas used for ROI selection.

DOIA	MNI 152			Label	A.1	
ROIs	X Y Z		Z	Label	Atlas	
V1, LH	-14	-92	-4	visual cortex (V1 BA 17L)	Jülich Histological atlas	
V1, RH	12	-90	0	visual cortex (V1 BA 17R) combination of inferior lateral occipital	Jülich Histological atlas	
LOTC, LH	-42	-66	0	cortex and temporooccipital part combination of inferior lateral occipital	Harvard-Oxford Cortical structura	
LOTC, RH	46	-74	0	cortex and temporooccipital part	Harvard-Oxford Cortical structura	
SPL, LH	-30	-52	52	superior parietal lobule	Harvard-Oxford Cortical structura	
SPL, RH	20	-56	52	superior parietal lobule	Harvard-Oxford Cortical structura	
IPL, LH	-58	10	24	inferior parietal lobule (PFL)	Jülich Histological atlas	
IPL, RH	62	-38	12	inferior parietal lobule (PFR)	Jülich Histological atlas	
dPM, LH	-6	10	44	premotor cortex (BA6)	Jülich Histological atlas	
dPM, RH	2	10	46	premotor cortex (BA6)	Jülich Histological atlas	
IFG, LH	-40	10	24	inferior frontal gyrus pars opercularis	Harvard-Oxford Cortical structura	
IFG, RH	44	6	24	inferior frontal gyrus pars opercularis	Harvard-Oxford Cortical structura	

Table 2. Peak locations for the three taxonomic levels in the whole-brain searchlight

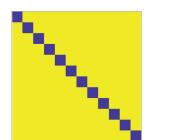
		MNI 152			Labels of brain regions	
	-	х	У	z	-	
Regressing out low- level visual control	Subordinate level	31	-48	-9	R Temporal occipital fusiform cortex	
model and scene control model only	Basic level Superordinate level	36	-62	-6	R occipital fusiform cortex	
control model only	Superorumate lever	30	-94	-4	R occipital pole	
Regressing out low- level visual control	Subordinate level	24	-58	-12	R Temporal occipital fusiform cortex	
model, scene control model and the other	Basic level	40	-62	-10	R occipital fusiform cortex	
two models	Superordinate level	-	-	-	-	

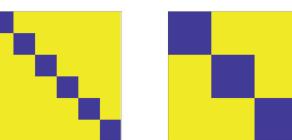
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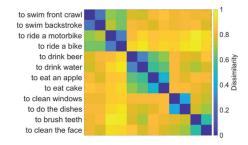
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A	Stimuli	Subordinate level	Basic level	Superordinate level
		to ride a motorbike		locomotion
	00	to ride a bike	to ride	
	-	to swim front crawl	to swim	
	The second	to swim backstroke		
		to drink water	to drink	
		to drink beer		ingestion
		to eat cake	to eat	ingestion
		to eat an apple	to eat	
		to clean windows	to do housework	
	K	to do the dishes	cleaning	
	A Solo	to brush teeth to clean the body		
		to clean the face		
В		N		

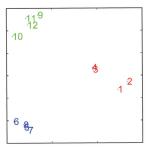




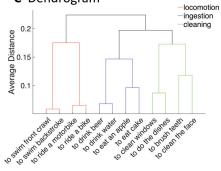
A Behavioral action space model

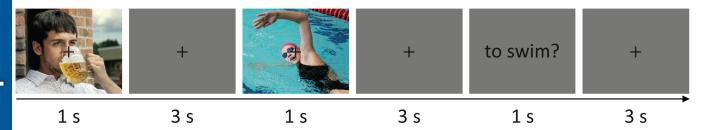


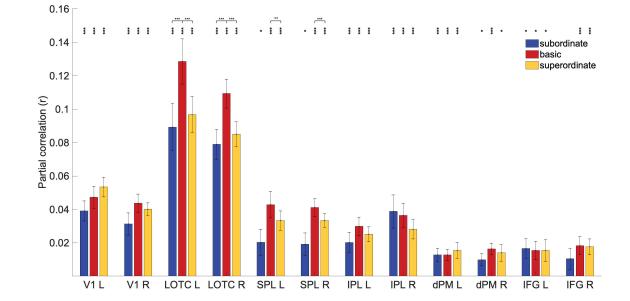
B 2D representation



C Dendrogram







A Neural RDM (LOTC)

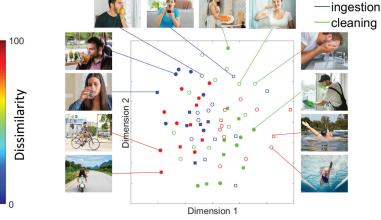
to ride a motorbike to ride a bike to swim front crawl to swim backstroke

to drink beer

to drink water to eat an apple to eat cake to clean windows to do the dishes to brush teeth to clean the face

C Neural RDM (V1)

B 2D visualization (LOTC)



locomotion

D 2D visualization (V1)

