1	Quantifying the contribution of subject and group factors in brain
2	activation
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#### 28 Abstract

29 Research in neuroscience often assumes universal neural mechanisms, but increasing 30 evidence points towards sizeable individual differences in brain activations. What remains unclear is the extent of the idiosyncrasy and whether different types of analyses 31 are associated with different levels of idiosyncrasy. Here we develop a new method for 32 33 addressing these questions. The method consists of computing the within-subject reliability and subject-to-group similarity of brain activations and submitting these values 34 to a computational model that quantifies the relative strength of group- and subject-level 35 factors. We apply this method to a perceptual decision-making task (N=50) and find that 36 activations related to task, reaction time (RT), and confidence are influenced equally 37 strongly by group- and subject-level factors. Both group- and subject-level factors are 38 dwarfed by a noise factor, though higher levels of smoothing increases their contributions 39 relative to noise. Overall, our method allows for the quantification of group- and subject-40 level factors of brain activations and thus provides a more detailed understanding of the 41 42 idiosyncrasy levels in brain activations.

## 43 Introduction

44 Human behavior is idiosyncratic: what elicits a certain behavior in one person is often very different from what elicits that same behavior in another (Eilam 2015; Forkosh et al. 45 2019). Similarly, increasing amount of evidence points towards the existence of 46 substantial idiosyncrasy in brain activations, such that the same task can elicit different 47 patterns of activity in different subjects (Seghier et al. 2008; Miller et al. 2009, 2012). 48 49 Yet, it remains unclear how to precisely quantify the strength of the observed idiosyncrasy, as well as whether different types of analyses are associated with different 50 51 levels of idiosyncrasy.

52

53 To address these questions, here we develop a method to determine the contribution of 54 group- and subject-level factors to observed activations in functional MRI (fMRI) studies. The method requires the computation of subject-to-group similarity and within-55 subject reliability of the observed activations. The idea is that the subject-to-group 56 57 similarity can inform us about how different each person's activation map is from the group. However, this information has to be interpreted in the context of the noisiness of 58 59 each individual map, which can be quantified by assessing its within-subject reliability. Critically, these values can be submitted to a computational model that can assess the 60 61 relative contribution of group- and subject-level factors to each activation map.

62

63 We collected data from a perceptual decision-making task inside an MRI scanner where subjects (N = 50) judged whether a briefly presented display featured more red or blue 64 65 dots and provided a confidence rating (Fig. 1A). The experiment was organized in 96 blocks of 8 trials each (see Materials and Methods for full details). We performed 66 standard analyses to assess the activation maps associated with task trials, as well as with 67 RT and confidence (by comparing trials with higher- vs. lower than the trial-level median 68 69 RT and confidence). We show that the model can successfully quantify the contribution 70 of group- and subject-level factors to brain activations and that these two factors are 71 approximately equally important in our task.

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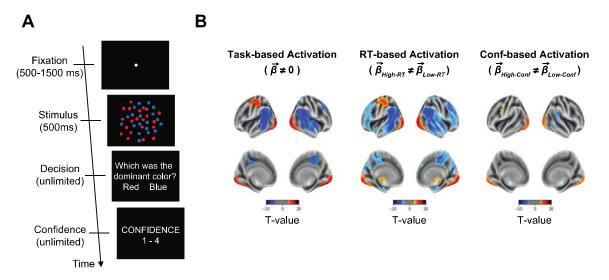


Figure 1. Task and results of standard group analyses. (A) Task. Subjects performed a
simple perceptual decision-making task that required them to judge the dominant color in
a display of colored dots and rate their confidence. (B) Results of standard second
analyses for task-, RT-, and confidence-based contrasts. The analyses showed strong
increases and decreases in activation across a range of brain regions for task- (top left),
RT- (top middle) and confidence-based (top right) analyses. All maps thresholded at FDR
< 0.01 corrected for display purposes.</li>

81

73

## 82 Materials and Methods

83 Subjects

Fifty-two healthy subjects were recruited for this study. Two subjects were excluded

- 85 because one had metal braces in their teeth and one decided to stop the experiment after
- the second run. All analyses were thus based on the remaining 50 subjects (25 females;
- 87 Mean age = 26; Age range = 19-40; Compensated 20,000 KRW or approximately 18
- 88 USD). All subjects were screened for any history of neurological disorders or MRI
- 89 contraindications. The study was approved by Ulsan National Institute of Science and
- 90 Technology Review Board (UNISTIRB-20-30-C) and all subjects gave written consent.
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92 <u>Task</u>
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- 93 Subjects had to determine which set of colored dots (red vs. blue) was more frequent in a
- 94 cloud of dots (Fig. 1A). Each trial began with a white fixation dot presented for a variable
- amount of time between 500-1500 ms at the center of the screen on a black background.
- 96 Then, the stimulus was shown for 500 ms, followed by untimed decision and confidence

screens. The stimulus consisted of between 140 and 190 red- and blue-colored dots (dot 97 98 size = 5 pixels) dispersed randomly inside an imaginary circle with a radius of  $3^{\circ}$  from the center of the screen. Four different dot ratios were used  $-\frac{80}{60}$ ,  $\frac{80}{70}$ ,  $\frac{100}{80}$ , and 99 100 100/90, where the two numbers indicate the number of dots from each color. The experiment was organized in blocks of 8 trials each, with each dot ratio presented twice 101 102 in a random order within a block. The more frequent color was pseudo randomized so 103 that there were equal number of trials where red and blue were the correct answer within a run (consisting of 16 blocks). Subjects used an MRI-compatible button box with their 104 right hand to indicate their decision and confidence responses. For the decision response, 105 the index finger was used to indicate a "red" response and the middle finger for a "blue" 106 response. Confidence was given on a 4-point scale, where 1 is the lowest and 4 is the 107 108 highest, with the rating of 1 mapped to the index finger and the rating of 4 mapped to the 109 little finger.

110

Subjects performed 6 runs each consisting of 16 blocks of 8 trials (for a total of 768 trials per subject). Three subjects completed only half of the 6<sup>th</sup> run and another three subjects completed only the first 5 runs due to time constraints. The remaining 44 subjects completed the full 6 runs. Subjects were given 5 seconds of rest between blocks, and self-paced breaks between runs.

116

117 MRI recording

118 The MRI data was collected on a 64-channel head coil 3T MRI system (Magnetom

119 Prisma; Siemens). Whole-brain functional data were acquired using a T2\*-weighted

multi-band accelerated imaging (FoV = 200 mm; TR = 2000 ms; TE = 35 ms; multiband

acceleration factor = 3; in-plane acceleration factor = 2; 72 interleaved slices; flip angle =

122 90°; voxel size =  $2.0 \times 2.0 \times 2.0 \text{ mm}^3$ ). High-resolution anatomical MP-RAGE data were

acquired using T1-weighted imaging (FoV = 256 mm; TR = 2300 ms; TE = 2.28 ms; 192

slices; flip angle =  $8^\circ$ ; voxel size =  $1.0 \times 1.0 \times 1.0 \text{ mm}^3$ ).

125

### 126 MRI preprocessing and general linear model fitting

MRI data were preprocessed with SPM12 (Wellcome Department of Imaging 127 128 Neuroscience, London, UK). We first converted the images from DICOM to NIFTI and 129 removed the first three volumes to allow for scanner equilibration. We then preprocessed with the following steps: de-spiking, slice-timing correction, realignment, segmentation, 130 coregistration, normalization, and spatial smoothing with 10 mm full width half 131 132 maximum (FWHM) Gaussian kernel. In control analyses, we used 5 and 20 mm FWHM smoothing to investigate whether the results are due to fine-grained differences in the 133 activations maps between subjects, given that local differences would be substantially 134 135 reduced by larger smoothing kernels. Despiking was done using the 3dDespike function in AFNI. The preprocessing of the T1-weighted structural images involved skull-136 removal, normalization into MNI anatomical standard space, and segmentation into gray 137 138 matter, white matter, and cerebral spinal fluid, soft tissues, and air and background. 139 We fit a general linear model (GLM) that allowed us to estimate the beta values for each 140 141 voxel in the brain. The model consisted of separate boxcar regressors for trials that had greater or smaller than the median RT or confidence (trial onset was set to the beginning 142 143 of fixation and trial offset was set to the confidence response), inter-block rest periods, as well as linear and squared regressors for six head movement (three translation and three 144

rotation), five tissue-related regressors (gray matter, white matter, cerebrospinal fluid,

soft tissues, and air and background), and a constant term per run.

147

148 <u>Standard group-level analyses</u>

We first performed a standard group analysis by conducting t-tests across all subjects for each voxel. A task-based analysis compared the obtained beta values with zero to identify regions of activation and de-activation. Two behavior-based analyses compared the beta values for trials with faster- vs. slower-than-median average reaction times (RT) and higher- vs. lower-than-median average confidence. Significance was assessed using p < 0.05 after Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons. For display purposes, Fig. 1 and Fig. S1 used the more liberal threshold of p < 0.001 uncorrected.

156

#### 157 Within-subject reliability analyses

158 We examined the within-subject reliability of the whole-brain maps produced by the task, 159 RT, and confidence analyses. To do so, we first re-did each analysis by only using the odd trials, as well as by only using the even trials. We then compared the similarity 160 between the maps obtained for odd and even trials using Pearson correlation. We 161 performed the analysis five times based on the top 10, 25, 50, 75, or 100% of most 162 strongly activated voxels in the following way. We first identified the X% most strongly 163 activated voxels (i.e., the voxels with highest absolute activation values) when only 164 165 examining the data from the odd trials. The activation values used were the average beta value for task-based analyses, and the t-value (obtained by using a t-test to compare the 166 beta values for trials with above- vs. below-median RT or confidence) for the RT and 167 confidence analyses. This selection procedure ensured that both positively and negatively 168 activated voxels were selected and that an equal number of voxels were selected each 169 time. The activations in the selected top X% of voxels from the odd trials were then 170 171 correlated with the activations in the same voxels in the even trials, thus obtaining an 172 "odd-to-even" correlation value. Then, using an equivalent procedure, we identified the top X% of most activated voxels in the even trials, and correlated their activations with 173 174 the activations in the corresponding voxels in the odd trials, thus obtaining an "even-to-175 odd" correlation value. Finally, we computed the overall within-subject reliability as the 176 average of the odd-to-even and even-to-odd correlation values.

177

We limited our analysis to a single session because the objective was to develop a 178 179 method that estimate the contribution of subject- and group-level factors in brain activation using reliability and similarity values. The framework developed here can be 180 181 extended to include data from multiple sessions but the benefit using a single session is that it will maximize within-session reliability since the reliability between sessions could 182 183 be affected by multiple exogenous factors (Poldrack et al. 2015; Nakuci et al. 2023). 184

Subject-to-group similarity analyses 185

Critically, we examined the subject-to-group similarity in the maps produced by each 186 187 analysis. For each subject, we correlated their individual task-, RT-, and confidencebased activation maps with the corresponding group map obtained by averaging the maps 188 of the remaining 49 subjects. Similar to the within-subject reliability analyses, we 189 conducted these analyses separately for the top 10, 25, 50, 75, or 100% of most activated 190 191 voxels. These voxels were selected in the same way as for the within-subject reliability 192 analyses using all of the data in a given subject; the activations in the voxels identified for a given subject were then correlated with the average activations in the same voxels for 193 194 the remaining 49 subjects.

195

## 196 <u>Consistency in activation analysis</u>

As another test of the across-subject similarity, we computed the consistency in the sign 197 of activation. Our main analyses relied on taking correlations, but it is possible that just 198 considering the sign of activation (rather than the strength of activation) would produce 199 200 different results. To investigate this possibility, we examined the consistency of the sign of voxel activations (positive or negative) across subjects. To do so, we first set all voxels 201 202 values that were equal to zero to not-a-number value (NaN). This applied to regions that are outside the brain. We then binarized the voxel activation values activation, such 203 204 that:

205

$$binary_{i} = \begin{cases} 1, & activation_{i} \geq 0\\ 0, & activation_{i} < 0 \end{cases}$$

206

207 The consistency of the sign of a voxel's activation across subjects  $(C_i)$  was then

208 calculated as percentage of subjects for which a voxel i was positively or negatively

209 activated using the formula:

210

$$C_i = 100 \times \frac{1}{50} \sum_{i=1}^{50} binary_i$$

As defined,  $C_i$  goes from 0 (all subjects having negative activation for that voxel) to 100 212 (all subjects having positive activations for that voxel), with a value of 50 indicating that 213 half of the subjects had positive and half had negative activation. However, when 214 reporting the values of  $C_i$ , we flipped values under 50 using the formula  $C_{i,flipped} =$ 215  $100 - C_i$ , so that these values represent the percent of subjects with negative activations. 216 The analysis was performed separately for task-based activation maps, RT-based 217 activation maps, and confidence-based activation maps. The activation values were the 218 219 average beta value (for task-based analyses) or t-value (for RT and confidence analyses). 220 221 Low across-subject similarity in these analyses would result in most voxels having consistency,  $C_i$ , values close to 50 (corresponding to the voxel activation having positive 222 223 sign in half the subjects and negative sign in the other half). However, due to chance, the 224 consistency values are bound to sometimes be higher. Therefore, to enable the appropriate interpretation of the obtained results, we computed the expected consistency 225 values in the maps of 50 subjects whose maps have no relationship to each other. 226 227 Specifically, we generated a random set of voxel activation values for each of 50 sample 228 subjects. Maximal consistency from the random data was calculated in the same manner 229 as the empirical values and the procedure was repeated 1000 times. This analysis 230 revealed that completely random data would produce a maximal consistency of 80% (for

both positive and negative activations) given the number of voxels and number of

subjects that we had, which was close to the empirically observed values for RT and

233 confidence analyses.

234

# 235 <u>Distribution of top-10% most strongly activated voxels</u>

As a final test of the across-subject similarity for the different maps, we sought to identify
the consistency of the location of the most strongly activated brain regions across
subjects. For each subject, we selected the top-10% most strongly activated voxels by
considering the absolute value of either the average beta value (for task-based analyses)
or t-value (for RT and confidence analyses). Note that this procedure selected positive
and negative activations. We then estimated, for each voxel, the percent of subjects for

which the voxel was selected as one of the top-10% most strongly activated voxels. As
before, the analysis was performed separately for task-based activation maps, RT-based
activation maps, and confidence-based activation maps.

245

Low across-subject similarity in these analyses would result in most voxels being 246 247 selected about 10% of the time. However, due to chance, some voxels are bound to be selected more than 10% of the time. Therefore, to enable the appropriate interpretation of 248 the obtained results, we computed the expected level of maximal overlap in the maps of 249 250 50 subjects whose maps have no relationship to each other. Specifically, for each of the 251 50 subjects, we generated a random set voxel activation values. We then selected the top-252 10% of the highest absolute values from each subject and calculated the overlap across 253 subjects. The expected value from random data was computed as the average maximal 254 overlap after 1000 iterations. This analysis revealed that completely random data would 255 produce a maximal overlap of 28% given the number of voxels and number of subjects 256 that we had, which was only a little less than the empirically observed values for RT and 257 confidence analyses (32% for RT-based analyses and 30% for confidence-based 258 analyses).

259

## 260 <u>Model specification</u>

The model jointly generates behavior and brain activity maps using minimal assumptions 261 262 in a way that makes it generalizable across different contexts. The model assumes that the activation map for each trial is a function of seven different factors. The first three are 263 264 group-level factors (i.e., factors common to all subjects) for the task itself, the influence of RT, and the influence of confidence. The next three factors are subject-level factors 265 (i.e., factors specific to each subject) for the task itself, the influence of RT, and the 266 influence of confidence. Finally, the 7<sup>th</sup> factor is simply Gaussian noise. Critically, each 267 268 factor is weighed by a corresponding factor weight that determines the strength of 269 influence of that factor to the final voxel activation values, such that the activation strength ( $\beta$ ) for a given voxel on a given trial is: 270

271

$$\beta = w_{task_{group}} * f_{task_{group}} + w_{rt_{group}} * f_{rt_{group}} * RT + w_{conf_{group}} * f_{conf_{group}} * conf$$
$$+ w_{task_{subj}} * f_{task_{subj}} + w_{rt_{subj}} * f_{rt_{subj}} * RT + w_{conf_{subj}} * f_{conf_{subj}}$$
$$* conf + w_{noise} * f_{noise}$$

272

273 where RT and conf are the empirical the reaction time and confidence trial, the w's are the weights associated with each factor, and the f's are the factors that influence the 274 voxel activity for a given trial. Without loss of generality, the weight of the noise factor 275  $(w_{noise})$  was fixed to 1. The f variables are the component of activation that influence 276 277 the voxel activity for a given trial and f can be thought of as the latent (unobserved) component of activation that is associated with the task, RT, confidence, and noise. The 278 279 value of each factor f was randomly sampled from a standard normal distribution such that group-level factors were randomly sampled for each voxel, subject-level factors were 280 randomly sampled for each voxel and subject, and the noise factor was randomly sampled 281 for each voxel, subject, and trial. We note that the model does not predict beta values for 282 individual regressors. Instead, it generates beta values that already take into account all 283 284 regressors, which are then used to compute subject-to-group similarity and within-subject reliability values. 285

286

The advantage of a model-based approach is that (1) it provides the ratio of subject to group level contribution and (2) it allows us to compare the contribution of subject- and group-level factors relative to the noise in the data. Alternatively, the ratio can be calculated directly from the within-subject reliability and subject-to-group similarity, but the advantage of the model is that it allows us to compare the group- and subject-level factors to the noise level. Therefore, a model-based approach allows for a more thorough analysis of the contribution of subject- and group-level factors to the brain activation.

294

295 <u>Model fitting</u>

296 We first fit the model to the empirically observed within-subject reliability and subject-

to-group similarity values. The model had six free parameters corresponding to the

weights, w, of the group- and subject-level factors that determined the simulated  $\beta$  value

299 for each voxel in each trial. For a given set of weights, we simulated a complete 300 experimental dataset by generating simulated data for 50 subjects with 768 trials per 301 subjects. Based on these data, we then computed the within-subject reliability and subject-to-group similarity values in the same way as for the empirical data. When 302 303 simulating the model, we observed that the exact number of voxels used made no systematic difference to the observed values of the obtained within-subject reliability and 304 305 subject-to-group similarity values. Therefore, we used 10,000 voxels, which allowed for stable values to be obtained on different iterations. The fitting minimized the mean 306 307 squared error (MSE) between the simulated and empirically observed within-subject reliability and subject-to-group similarity values calculated using the top-100% most 308 309 activated voxels (that is, using all voxels). Once the fitting was completed, we also 310 generated the predictions of the best-fitting model for the within-subject reliability and subject-to-group similarity values calculated using the top 10, 25, 50, and 75% most 311 activated voxels. The fitting itself was carried out using the Bayesian Adaptive Direct 312 313 Search (BADS) toolbox (Acerbi and Ma 2017). We fit the model 10 times are reported 314 the best fitting model among the 10 iterations. We repeated the model fitting 10x to avoid 315 local minima when estimating parameters, as is standard practice in the field and our laboratory (Shekhar and Rahnev 2020; Yeon and Rahnev 2020). 316

317

#### 318 <u>Model Comparison</u>

We have compared the Full model (Subject + Group + Noise factors) with a Subject-

320 Only model (Subject + Noise factors) and Group-Only model (Group + Noise factors).

We simulated each model 25x and calculated the mean-squared error (MSE) between the

model-based and empirical values for the subject-to-group similarity and within-subject

reliability values. In addition, we compared the different models using Akaike

324 Information Criterion (AIC) and Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC).

325

326 Data and code availability

327 Processed data and code are available at https://osf.io/gyw8f/.

328

#### 329 **Results**

- 330 We first performed standard group fMRI analyses by conducting t-tests across all
- subjects for each voxel. We found that contrasts related to the task (Task > Background),
- 332 RT (Fast RT > Slow RT), and confidence (High confidence > Low confidence) all
- produced regions of strong activation and de-activation (**Fig. 1B**). We inspected the
- activations for task, RT, and confidence in subjects 1-3 and found that all three subjects
- demonstrated relatively consistent activation patterns (**Fig. 2**). However, there appeared
- to be consistent across-subject differences in the activation maps, which could not be
- attributed purely to noise as they also appeared in maps produced by only the odd or only
- the event trials for a given subject. These results hint at the idea that both group- and
- subject-level factors may be contributing to the observed activations.

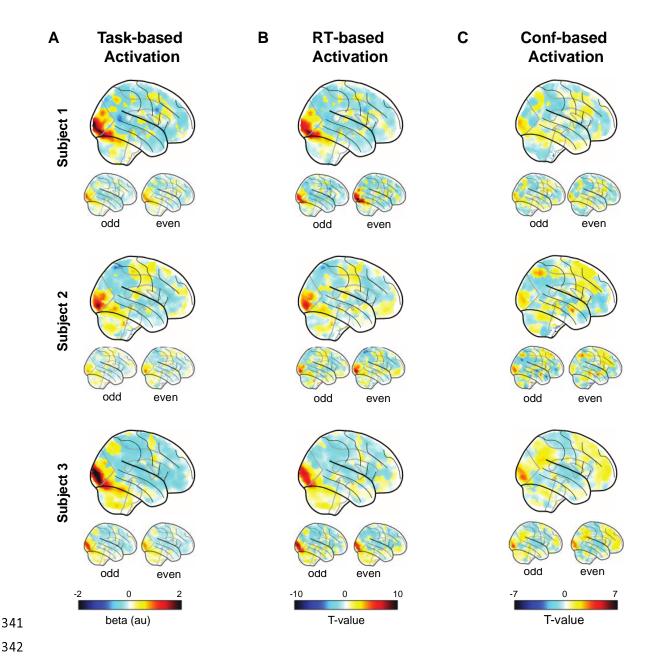




Figure 2. Trial-level activations for task, RT, and confidence for three example 343

subjects. Trial-level activation maps for (A) task, (B) RT, and (C) confidence contrasts 344 345 from the first three subjects. Small brains underneath represent the same contrasts conducted only on odd or even trials. Similar activations for all three subjects appear for 346 all trial-level contrasts. 347

- 348
- To formally test these impressions, we first examined both the within-subject reliability 349
- 350 and subject-to-group similarity of the whole-brain maps for the task, RT, and confidence
- contrasts. We computed within-subject reliability by performing Pearson correlations 351

between the activations obtained when examining only the odd or only the even trials.

- 353 We computed subject-to-group similarity by correlating each subject's brain map with
- the group map obtained by averaging the maps of the remaining 49 subjects.
- 355

366

As may be expected from Figure 2, for task-based activation we found strong within-356 subject reliability ( $r_{act} = 0.81 \pm 0.013$ , p < 0.001) and subject-to-group similarity in task 357 activations ( $r_{act} = 0.72 \pm 0.013$ , p < 0.001; Fig. 3A). In the same manner, RT- and 358 359 confidence-based maps exhibit strong within-subject reliability ( $r_{rt} = 0.74 \pm 0.014$ , p < 360 0.001;  $r_{conf} = 0.55 \pm 0.028$ , p < 0.001; Fig. 3B-C, top). Critically, we examined the subject-to-group similarity for the RT and confidence maps. Echoing the qualitative 361 impressions from Figure 2, we found a high degree of similarity across subjects for the 362 363 RT-based maps ( $r_{rt} = 0.69 \pm 0.014$ , p < 0.001; Fig. 3B, bottom) and confidence-based maps ( $r_{conf} = 0.52 \pm 0.025$ ; Fig. 3C, bottom). 364 365

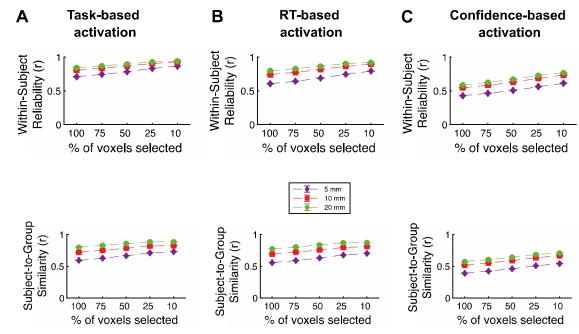


Figure 3. Within-subject reliability and subject-to-group similarity. Within-subject
reliability and subject-to-group similarity values as a function of the percent of most
activated voxels selected for (A) task- (B) RT- and (C) confidence-based activation.
Subject-to-group similarity is computed as the average similarity between the maps of
each person and the group map of the remaining subject. Error bars show SEM.

372

373 One potential concern with these types of analyses could be that they may be biased by 374 voxels that are either particularly noisy or not involved in the task in any way. Therefore, to test whether these results are robust, we repeated them by first selecting the top 75, 50, 375 25, or 10% of the most strongly activated voxels for each subject (see Methods). These 376 377 analyses showed that selecting smaller percentages of the most highly activated voxels generally increased both the within-subject reliability and subject-to-group similarity, but 378 the pattern of results remained essentially unchanged. 379 380 To gain further intuition for the underlying effects, we conducted two additional analyses. 381 First, we tested the consistency of the sign of voxel activations (whether they were 382

positive or negative) across subjects. We found that for the task maps, there were large

portions of the brain that showed consistently positive or consistently negative activations

**(Fig. 4A left)**. Indeed, the maximal overlap across subjects was 100% for both positive

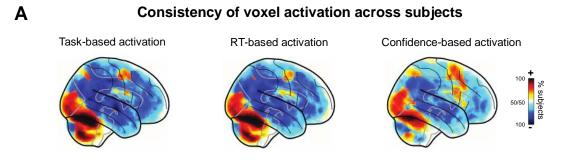
and negative activations. Further, we found many areas of strong consistency with

maximal overlap of 100% and 98% for positive and negative activations in the RT maps,

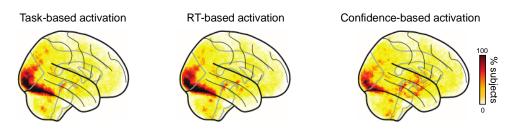
and maximal overlap of 100% and 88% for positive and negative activations in the

confidence maps (Fig. 4A middle and right). (Note that the expected values in random

data are 80% for positive and negative activations)



# B Distribution of top 10% most strongly activated (positively or negatively) voxels



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Figure 4. Maps of the activation consistency and distribution of the top-10% most
activated voxels across subjects. (A) Maps of voxel consistency computed as the
proportion of subjects showing a positive or negative relationship between voxel activity
and behavior. Task activations maps, as well as RT and confidence maps show a high
level of consistency. (B) Maps of the distribution of the top-10% most activated voxels.
Task activations maps, as well as RT and confidence maps with a high level
of consistency in occipital and parietal lobes.

400

401 Second, we examined the distribution of the locations of the top-10% most strongly

402 activated voxels for each subject (both positive and negative activations were

403 considered). The most strongly activated voxels clustered in the occipital and parietal

lobes (Fig. 4B left). The maximum overlap among the 10% most activated voxels across

405 subjects was 98%. Further, there were again areas of strong clustering of the most

406 activated voxels (mostly in the occipital lobe) for both RT and confidence maps

407 (maximal overlap: 98% and 78%, respectively; Fig. 4B middle and right). Altogether,

- 408 both additional analyses further underscore the high level of consistency for task, RT and
- 409 confidence maps across subjects. We also repeated the same analyses above with a wide
- 410 range of smoothing levels (from 5 to 20 mm) and obtained very similar results (Fig. S1
- 411 **and S2**).
- 412

Having quantified the within-subject reliability and subject-to-group similarity between 413 414 different types of analyses, we used this information to quantify the contribution of group- and subject-level factor by building a simple computational model. The critical 415 idea behind the model is to separately model group-level factors (i.e., factors that are 416 identical for all subjects) and subject-level factors (i.e., factors that are different for each 417 subject). The inputs into the model are the empirical within-subject reliability and 418 419 subject-to-group similarity values, as well as the empirical RT and confidence values. The simulation generates idealized beta values (voxel activations) for each trial 420 421 characterized by a given RT and confidence values. Note that the activations produced by the model are not mapped onto specific voxels in the brain and do not form a meaningful 422 423 spatial map. That is, to keep the model simple, individual voxel activation for each 424 group- and task-level factor were generated randomly by ignoring known temporal and 425 inter-regional dependencies.

426

427 Critically, the model produces the idealized beta values based on three group-level

428 factors (group task map, group RT map, and group confidence map), three subject-level

429 factors (subject-specific task map, subject-specific RT map, and subject-specific

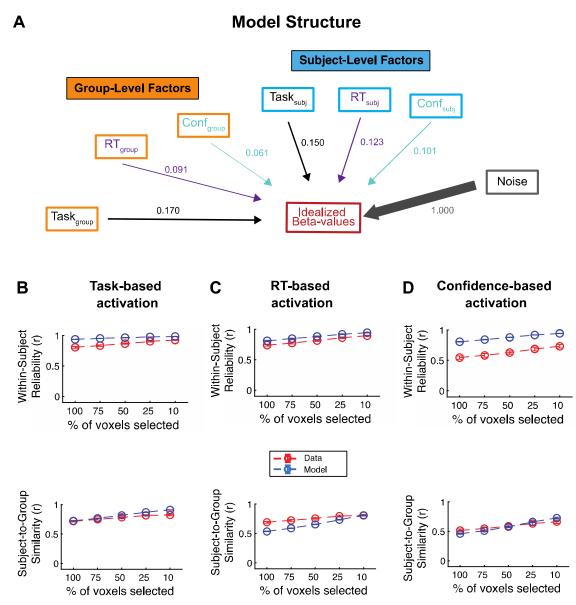
430 confidence map), and one noise factor (Fig. 5A). The weight of the noise factor was fixed

to 1, leaving the model with a total of six free parameters (one for the weight of each

432 group- and subject-level factor). We then fit the within-subject reliability and subject-to-

433 group similarity produced by the model to the observed values computed using 100% of

the voxels.





436 Figure 5. Model structure and model fits. (A) Graphical depiction of the model at the 437 trial level. The model generates an idealized set of beta values for an individual trial as the confluence of three group-level, three subject-level, and one noise factor. The 438 thickness of the arrows and associated numbers correspond to the weights obtained from 439 fitting the model to the data. (B-C) Model fits to the within-subject reliability (top) and 440 subject-to-group similarity (bottom) values for (B) task, (C) RT, and (D) confidence 441 442 analyses. The model was fit only to the empirical data with 10-mm smoothing where 100% of voxels selected. Despite its simplicity, the model is able to reproduce the 443 empirical data for the remaining analyses with smaller percentages of selected voxels 444 445 very well.

447 Despite its simplicity, the model was able to provide excellent fit to the data from Fig. 3
448 by capturing closely the observed patterns of within-subject reliability (Fig. 5B-D, top)
449 and subject-to-group similarity (Fig. 5B-C, bottom) for the data with 10 mm smoothing.
450 We also separately fit the data with 5 and 20 mm smoothing and obtained equally good
451 fits.

452

Critically, the model allowed us to examine the weights of the group- and subject-level 453 factors, thus providing insight into the relative contribution of each. We found slightly 454 larger contribution weights for the group- than subject-level task factors (subject-level 455 factor weight = 0.150, group-level factor weight = 0.170, ratio = 0.88; Fig. 6A, B). Thus, 456 the group-level factors were only slightly higher than the subject-level factors, pointing to 457 a balance between influences that are common across all subjects and influences that are 458 specific to each individual. On the other hand, we observed slightly higher relative 459 weights for the subject-level factors for the RT and confidence maps at the trial level 460 461 (RT: subject-level factor weight = 0.123, group-level factor weight = 0.091, ratio = 1.35; Confidence: subject-level factor weight = 0.101, group-level factor weight = 0.061, ratio 462 = 1.65). In other words, our model suggests that group- and subject-level factors have 463 relatively similar influence on task activation maps, which corresponds well to recent 464 465 findings about group- and subject-level influences on brain connectivity (Gratton et al. 2018). However, the relative contribution of all group- and subject-level factors is small 466 467 relative to the contribution of noise (Fig. 6C).



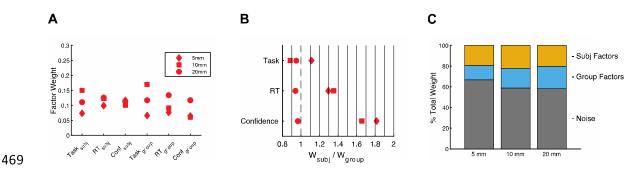


Figure 6. Model weights, ratios, and proportions. A) Model weights. Subject- and
group-level weights obtained from fitting the model separately to each level of smoothing
(5, 10, and 20 mm). B) Weight ratios. Relative weights of the subject-level and

473 corresponding group-level factors from each analysis. C) Factor proportions. The
474 combined percent accounted for by subject, group, and noise factors contributing to the
475 activation on an individual trial. Subject and group factors reflect the summed task, RT,
476 and confidence weights.

477

To examine the robustness of the modeling results, we repeated the model fitting on data with 5 to 20 mm smoothing. These two additional analyses produced similar results: the weights ratio between the subject- and group-level factors was between 0.8 and 1.21 for the task factors in all cases, between 0.9 and 1.4 for RT, and between 0.9 and 1.8 for confidence (**Fig. 6B**).

483

484 Additionally, we compared the Full model (Subject + Group + Noise factors) with a Subject-Only model (Subject + Noise factors) and a Group-Only model (Group + Noise 485 486 factors) (Fig. S3A-C). We simulated each model 25x and calculated the mean-squared error (MSE), Akaike Information Criterion (AIC), and Bayesian Information Criterion 487 (BIC) between the model-based and empirical within-subject reliability and subject-to-488 group similarity values. The reliability and similarity values estimated from the Full 489 490 model exhibited lower MSE, AIC and BIC values compared to the Subject-Only or Group-Only models (paired sample t-test,  $p < 10^{-26}$ ; Fig. S3D-F). These results indicate 491 that there are both subject and group components in both task- and behavior-based brain 492 493 activation maps.

494

495 Lastly, we explored whether we would obtain similar results if we repeat these analyses at the level of blocks (of eight trials each) rather than trials. Similar to the trial-level 496 497 analyses, we found relatively high subject-to-group similarity and within-subject reliability values for task activations. However, analyses of average RT and confidence 498 499 on the block level revealed very low subject-to-group similarity values but reasonably high within-subject reliabilities, which was reflected in much higher values for subject-500 compared to group-level factors in our model (Fig. S4-S8). These results suggest that 501 other types of analyses than the standard ones included here may result in different 502 503 contributions of subject- and group-level factors.

504

#### 505 **Discussion**

A major goal of neuroscience research has been to understand the neural correlates of 506 behavior. Behavior is a complex phenomenon that is often specific to a person (Eilam 507 2015; Forkosh et al. 2019). Idiosyncratic behavioral responses are ubiquitous in social 508 509 situations (Durlauf 2001), economic decisions (Kable and Glimcher 2007), judgments of 510 beauty (Martinez et al. 2020), confidence ratings (Navajas et al. 2017), response bias (Rahnev 2021), and even low-level perception (Afraz et al. 2010). Here we develop a 511 512 method to quantify the level of idiosyncrasy in brain activations by estimating the relative contributions of group- and subject-level factors. By applying this method to a new 513 dataset where subjects (N=50) completed a perceptual decision-making task, we find that 514 515 for standard analyses at the trial level, the influence of subject-level factors is only slightly stronger than the influence of group-level factors. 516 517 518 There are at least two important conclusions that one can draw from the current results. 519 First, across all analyses performed here, subject-level factors were at least as important as group-level factors. While this effect could be at least partly driven by issues such as 520 misalignment across different brains, the results were remarkably stable whether they 521 522 were computed using 5-, 10-, or 20-mm smoothing. If brain misalignment were the main source of the observed idiosyncrasy here, one would expect that larger smoothing would 523 524 produce different results. These results suggest that idiosyncratic, subject-level factors may play a large role in observed brain activations. Our findings thus highlight the need 525

for a renewed focus on investigating the brain-behavior relationship at the level of single
subjects (Gilmore et al. 2021; Gordon and Nelson 2021; Naselaris et al. 2021; Song and
Rosenberg 2021).

529

530 Our current results also suggest novel ways for finding robust biomarkers for various

mental disorders (Kaufmann et al. 2017; Elliott et al. 2018; Li et al. 2020; Parkes et al.

532 2020). Most research in the field has focused on biomarkers unrelated to behavior such as

functional connectivity patterns at rest (Woodward and Cascio 2015; Drysdale et al.

2017). An exciting possibility is that subject-level activations maps for disease-relevant 534 535 behaviors could serve as much more powerful biomarkers because of their high reliability 536 and clear differences among people. Focusing directly on the relationship between one's behavior and one's brain activations may help to delineate the intricate relationship 537 between the brain and psychopathology (Gratton et al. 2020). Therefore, subject-level 538 539 effects could be crucial to diagnosing and treating different mental illnesses. Additionally, an analysis that is focused on subject-level variability might be more 540 informative since between-subject analyses ignore the large degree of within-subject 541 542 variability (Fisher et al. 2018; Lebreton et al. 2019).

543

It is worth noting that contribution of group- and subject-level factors might change. In some tasks, the group-level factors might play a larger role, whereas in other tasks the subject-level factor might play a larger role. These different tasks might be valuable for isolating the group- and subject-level components of cognitions. Future research should estimate the contribution of these factors in a wider variety of tasks and contrasts.

549

Previous work has utilized mixed-effect modeling to estimate the contribution of subjectand group-factors (Woolrich et al. 2004; Friston et al. 2005; Chen et al. 2013). This prior work has relied on estimating these effects directly from the underlying brain activation patterns associated with given condition. The framework developed here builds upon this work to simulate brain activation to estimate the contribution of subject- and group-level factors. In a similar fashion to previous work, the subject-level factors can be thought of as random effects and the group-level factors as fixed effects.

557

558 Despite the fact that our model is able to fit the data quite well, it is nonetheless important 559 to highlight the model's limitations. In particular more complex models such as 560 hierarchical models might perform better. However, we are not able to fit a more 561 complex model because we are fitting group-level data (e.g., average subject-to-group 562 similarity values) rather than each individual separately. A second limitation pertains to 563 whether the observed subject-level effects are stable across multiple sessions. In the

current analysis, we used fMRI data from a single session, but fMRI signals are highly 564 565 variable between sessions even for the same subject (McGonigle et al. 2000; Zandbelt et 566 al. 2008). Future studies should utilize multiple sessions to confirm the stability of the subject-level effects. Third, nearby voxels are known to be related to each other, thus 567 resulting in substantial spatial autocorrelations in fMRI (Shinn et al. 2023). Our analyses 568 569 do not account for such spatial autocorrelations because they do not attempt to generate voxel-level predictions. Nonetheless, it could be useful for future models to include such 570 autocorrelations. Fourth, in our analyses we split trials based on the median, but median 571 split can have undesirable statistical properties. An alternative would be to use parametric 572 573 modulation to estimate the relationship between brain activation and RT and confidence. 574 In conclusion, we develop a computational model to quantify the contribution of group-575 and subject-level factors in activation patterns. Our model suggests that activations 576 related to task, RT, and confidence in a perceptual decision-making task are influenced 577 578 equally strongly by group- and subject-level factors. However, both group- and subject-579 level factors are dwarfed by a noise factor. Taken together, our method provides a more

580 detailed understanding of the idiosyncrasy levels in brain activations.

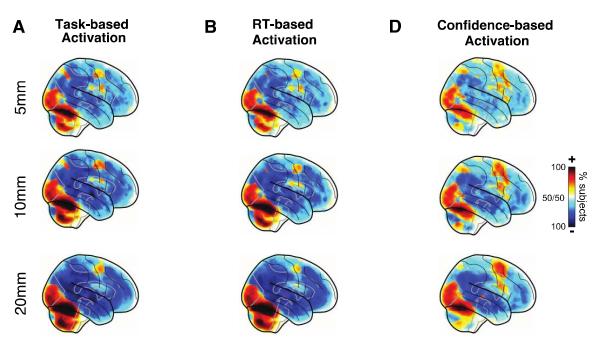
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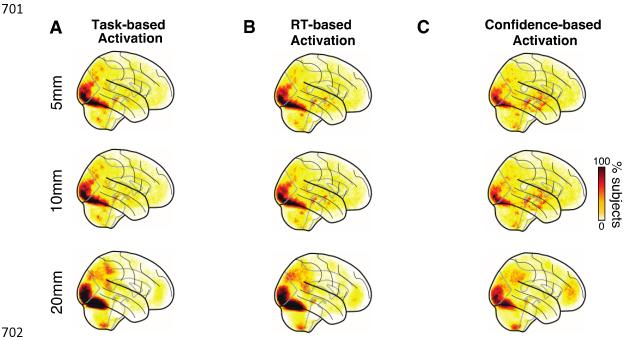
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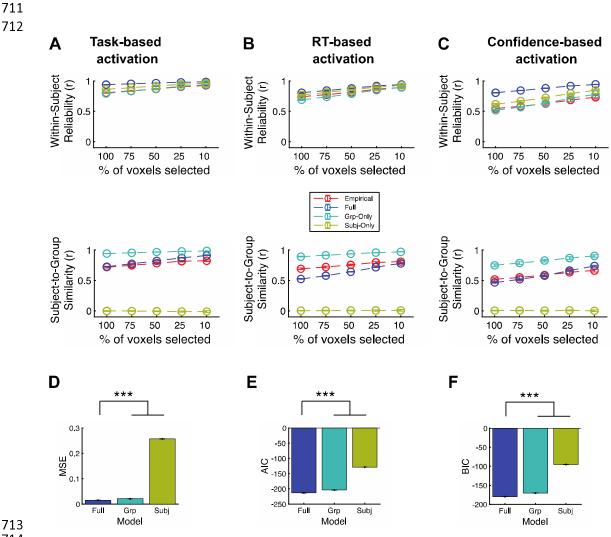


**Fig. S1. Trial-level analysis maps of voxel activation consistency across subjects**. A) Task-based activation. B) RT-based activation. C) Confidence-based activation. All maps exhibited strong areas of consistency. Analysis was conducted on fMRI data smoothed with 5, 10, and 20 mm FWHM kernels. The 10 mm results are the same as in the main manuscript and are shown here for comparative purposes. Again, similar results are obtained for different levels of smoothing.





**Fig. S2. Trial-level maps of the distribution of the top-10% most activated voxels**. A) Task-based activation. B) RT-based activation. C) Confidence-based activation. All maps exhibited strong areas of consistency compared. Analysis was conducted on fMRI data smoothed with 5, 10, and 20 mm FWHM kernels. The 10 mm results are the same as in the main manuscript and are shown here for comparative purposes. Again, similar results are obtained for different levels of smoothing.



714

715 Fig S3. Comparing the Full, Subject-Only, and Group-Only models. Sample withinsubject reliability and subject-to-group similarity from the simulation using the Full, 716 717 Subject-Only, and Group-Only factors in the simulation for (A) task-, (B) RT-, and (C) 718 confidence-based activations. The full simulation model used subject-, group-, and noisefactors. The Subject-Only simulation model used subject and noise factors. The Group-719 Only simulation model used group and noise factors. (D-F) Model performance. The 720 721 within-subject reliability and subject-to-group similarity values estimated in 25 722 simulations, (D) the mean-squared error (MSE), (E) AIC, and (F) BIC were estimated by 723 comparing the within-subject reliability and subject-to-group similarity from the simulation with the empirical values. The Full model outperformed both the Subject-Only 724 and Group-Only models. Error bars show SEM. \*\*\* p < 0.001. 725

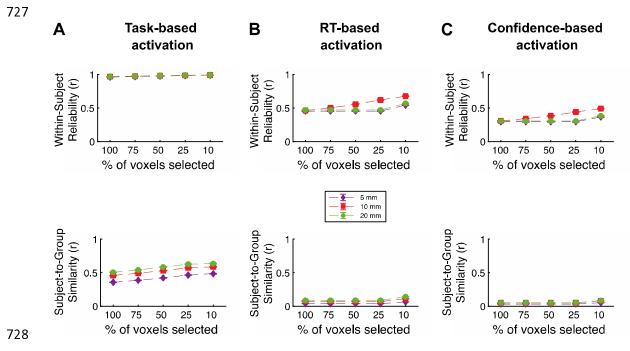
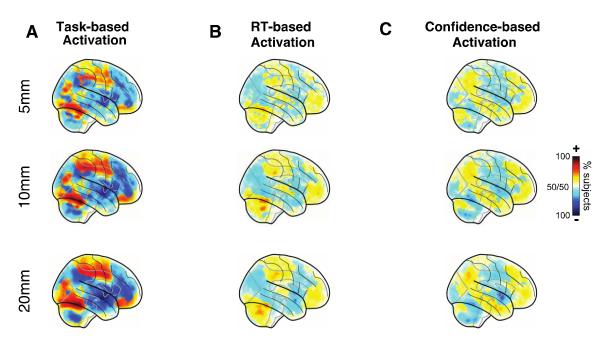




Fig. S4. Within-subject reliability and subject-to-group similarity for analyses 730 731 conducted at the block level. Within-subject reliability and subject-to-group similarity values of the whole-brain maps produced by the (A) task-, (B) RT-, and (C) confidence-732 based analyses. We fit a general linear model (GLM) that allowed us to estimate the beta 733 734 values for each voxel in the brain. For the block-analyses, the model consisted of 735 regressors for each individual block (block onset was set to the beginning of fixation on the first trials and block offset was set to the confidence response of the last trial in the 736 737 block), inter-block rest periods, as well as linear and squared regressors for six head movement (three translation and three rotation), five tissue-related regressors (gray 738 matter, white matter, cerebrospinal fluid, soft tissues, and air and background), and a 739 constant term per run. Two behavior-based analyses compared the beta values for blocks 740 741 with faster- vs. slower-than-median average reaction times (RT) and higher- vs. lower-742 than-median average confidence. Within-subject reliability and subject-to-group similarity of the whole-brain maps produced by the task, RT, and confidence analyses 743 was examined in the same manner as for the trial level analysis. The fMRI data were 744 spatially smoothed with 5 mm, 10 mm, or 20 mm full width half maximum (FWHM) 745 Gaussian kernel. As can be observed, very similar results are obtained for different levels 746 747 of smoothing, indicating that the results obtained are likely due to large-scale rather than small-grained differences in the maps. Error bars show SEM. 748

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**Fig. S5. Block-level maps of voxel activation consistency across subjects**. A) Taskbased activation. B) RT-based activation. C) Confidence-based activation. Task-based activations exhibited strong areas of consistency, but both the RT and confidence maps showed much weaker consistency across subjects. Analysis was conducted on fMRI data smoothed with 5, 10, and 20 mm FWHM kernels. Again, similar results are obtained for different levels of smoothing.

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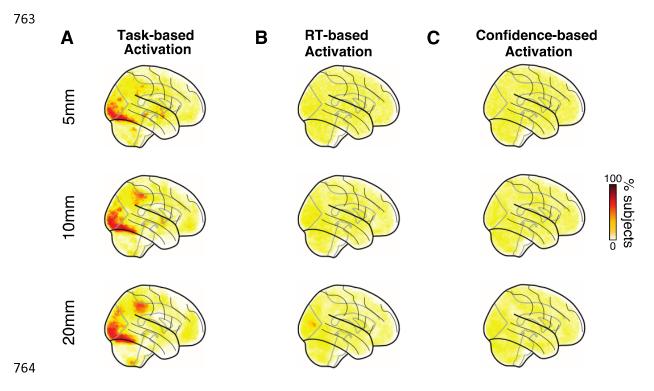
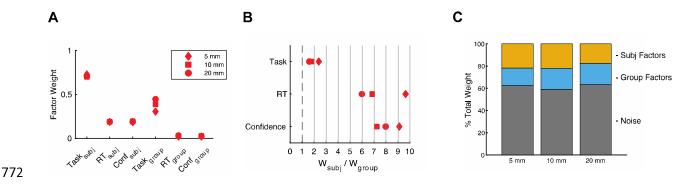
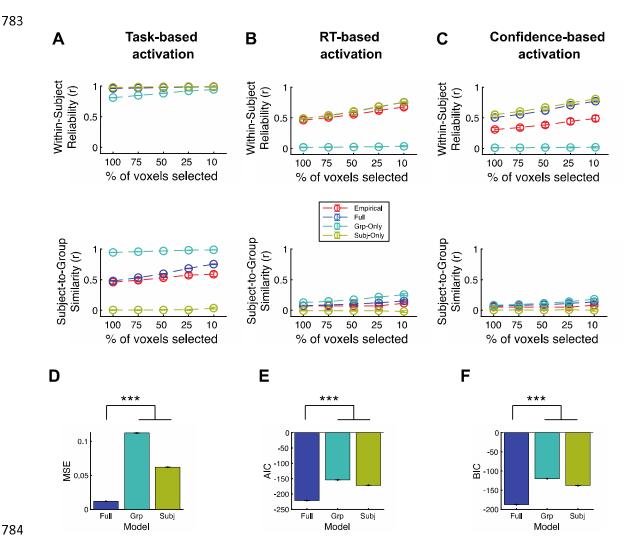


Fig. S6. Block-level maps of the distribution of the top-10% most activated voxels.
A) Task-based activation. B) RT-based activation. C) Confidence-based activation. Task-based activations exhibited strong areas of consistency, but both the RT and confidence maps showed much weaker consistency across subjects. Analysis was conducted on fMRI data smoothed with 5, 10, and 20 mm FWHM kernels. Again, similar results are obtained for different levels of smoothing.



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Figure S7. Block-level model weights, ratios, and proportions. A) Model weights.
Subject- and group-level weights obtained from fitting the model separately to the data
with each smoothing level. B) Weight ratios. Relative weights of the subject-level and
corresponding group-level factors for each smoothing level. C) Factor proportions. The
relative weight of subject, group, and noise factors contributing to the activation on an
individual block. Subject and group factors reflect the summed task, RT, and confidence
weights.



785 Fig S8. Comparing the Full, Subject-Only, and Group-Only models for block-level analysis. Sample within-subject reliability and subject-to-group similarity from the 786 787 simulation using the Full, Subject-Only, and Group-Only factors in the simulation for (A) task-, (B) RT-, and (C) confidence-based activations. The full simulation model used 788 subject-, group-, and noise-factors. The Subject-Only simulation model used subject and 789 noise factors. The Group-Only simulation model used group and noise factors. (D-F) 790 Model performance. The within-subject reliability and subject-to-group similarity values 791 estimated in 25 simulations, (D) the mean-squared error (MSE), (E) AIC, and (F) BIC 792 were estimated by comparing the within-subject reliability and subject-to-group 793 similarity from the simulation with the empirical values. The Full model outperformed 794 both the Subject-Only and Group-Only models. Error bars show SEM. \*\*\* p < 0.001. 795