

1                   **Title: Decoding the Information Structure Underlying the Neural**  
2   **Representation of Concepts**

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11           **Keywords:**

12           Semantic memory; concept representation; embodied cognition; fMRI; representational  
13           similarity analysis.

1     **Abstract:**

2     The nature of the neural code underlying conceptual knowledge remains a major unsolved  
3     problem in cognitive neuroscience. Three main types of information have been proposed as  
4     candidates for the neural representations of lexical concepts: taxonomic (i.e., information about  
5     category membership and inter-category relations), distributional (i.e., information about patterns  
6     of word co-occurrence in natural language use), and experiential (i.e., information about sensory-  
7     motor, affective, and other features of phenomenal experience engaged during concept  
8     acquisition). In two experiments, we investigated the extent to which these three types of  
9     information are encoded in the neural activation patterns associated with hundreds of English  
10    nouns from a wide variety of conceptual categories. Participants made familiarity judgments on  
11    the meaning of written nouns while undergoing functional MRI. A high-resolution, whole-brain  
12    activation map was generated for each noun in each participant's native space. These word-  
13    specific activation maps were used to evaluate different representational spaces corresponding to  
14    the three types of information described above. In both studies, we found a striking advantage for  
15    experience-based models in most brain areas previously associated with concept representation.  
16    Partial correlation analyses revealed that only experiential information successfully predicted  
17    concept similarity structure when inter-model correlations were taken into account. This pattern  
18    of results was found independently for object concepts and event concepts. Our findings indicate  
19    that the neural representation of conceptual knowledge primarily encodes information about  
20    features of experience, and that - to the extent that it is represented in the brain - taxonomic and  
21    distributional information may rely on such an experience-based code.

22

23

1       **Significance Statement:**

2       The ability to identify individual objects or events as members of a kind (e.g., “knife”, “dog”,  
3       “party”) is a fundamental aspect of human cognition. It allows us to quickly access a wealth of  
4       information pertaining to a newly encountered object or event and use it to guide our behavior.  
5       How is this information represented in the brain? We used functional MRI to analyze patterns of  
6       brain activity corresponding to hundreds of familiar concepts, and quantitatively characterized  
7       the informational structure of these patterns. Our results indicate that, throughout the brain,  
8       conceptual knowledge is stored as patterns of neural activity that encode primarily experiential  
9       information grounded in modality-specific neural systems, challenging the idea that concept  
10      representations are independent of sensory-motor experience.

11      **Main Text:**

12      The capacity for conceptual knowledge is arguably one of the most defining properties of  
13      human cognition, yet it is still unclear how concepts are represented in the brain. Our tendency to  
14      organize objects, events and experiences into discrete categories has led most authors – dating  
15      back at least to Plato (1) – to take categorical structure as the central property of conceptual  
16      knowledge (2). Information about category membership and inter-category relations – i.e.,  
17      taxonomic information – is traditionally seen as a hierarchically structured network, with basic  
18      level categories (e.g. “apple”, “orange”) grouped into superordinate categories (e.g., “fruit”,  
19      “food”), and subdivided into subordinate categories (e.g., “Gala apple”, “tangerine”) (3). A  
20      prominent account in cognitive science maintains that such categories are represented in the  
21      mind/brain as purely symbolic entities, whose semantic content and usefulness derive primarily  
22      from how they relate to each other (4, 5). Such representations are seen as qualitatively distinct

1 from the sensory-motor processes through which we interact with the world, much like the  
2 distinction between software and hardware in digital computers.

3 An “experiential” representational system, on the other hand, encodes information about the  
4 experiences that led to the formation of particular concepts. It is motivated by a view, often  
5 referred to as embodied, grounded, or situated semantics, in which concepts arise primarily from  
6 generalization over particular experiences, as information originating from the various modality-  
7 specific systems (e.g., visual, auditory, tactile, motor, affective, etc.) is combined and re-encoded  
8 into progressively more schematic representations that are stored in memory. Since, in this view,  
9 there is a degree of continuity between conceptual and modality-specific systems, concept  
10 representations are thought to reflect the structure of the perceptual, affective and motor  
11 processes involved in those experiences (6–9).

12 A third type of information that can be encoded in concept representations, known as  
13 “distributional” information, pertains to statistical patterns of co-occurrence between lexical  
14 concepts (i.e., concepts that are widely shared within a population and denoted by a single word)  
15 in natural language usage. As is now widely appreciated, these co-occurrence patterns encode a  
16 substantial amount of information about word meaning (10–12). Although word co-occurrence  
17 patterns primarily encode contextual associations, such as those connecting the words “cow”,  
18 “barn”, and “farmer”, semantic similarity information is indirectly encoded, since words with  
19 similar meanings tend to appear in similar contexts (e.g., “cow” and “horse”, “pencil” and  
20 “pen”). This has led some authors to propose that concepts may be represented in the brain, at  
21 least in part, in terms of distributional information (10, 13).

22 Whether, and to what extent, each of these types of information plays a role in the neural  
23 representation of conceptual knowledge is a topic of intense research and debate. A large body of

1 evidence has emerged from behavioral studies, functional neuroimaging experiments, and  
2 neuropsychological assessment of patients with semantic deficits, with results typically  
3 interpreted in terms of taxonomic (14–19), experiential (8, 20–25), or distributional (26–30)  
4 representations. However, the relative role of these representational systems in the neural  
5 representation of concepts remains controversial, in part because the evidence available is  
6 consistent with all three (18, 31, 32). Although these systems are qualitatively distinct, their  
7 representations of common lexical concepts are strongly inter-correlated: patterns of word co-  
8 occurrence in natural language are driven in part by taxonomic and experiential similarities  
9 between the concepts to which they refer, and the taxonomy of natural categories is  
10 systematically related to the experiential attributes of the exemplars (33, 34). Consequently, the  
11 empirical evidence currently available is unable to discriminate between these theoretical  
12 accounts.

13 We addressed this issue by deriving quantitative predictions from each of these  
14 representational systems for the similarity structure of a large set of concepts and then using  
15 representational similarity analysis (RSA) with high-resolution functional MRI (fMRI) to  
16 evaluate those predictions. Unlike the more typical cognitive subtraction technique, RSA focuses  
17 on the information structure of the pattern of neural responses to a set of stimuli (35). For a given  
18 stimulus set (e.g., words), RSA assesses how well the representational similarity structure  
19 predicted by a model matches the neural similarity structure observed from fMRI activation  
20 maps (Figure 1). This allowed us to directly compare, in quantitative terms, predictions derived  
21 from the three representational systems.

## 1       **Results**

2           In two experiments, participants made familiarity judgments on a large number of lexical  
3       concepts, selected from a broad range of taxonomic categories, while undergoing fMRI (see  
4       Materials and Methods section for details). Written nouns were presented, one at a time, on a  
5       computer screen, and participants rated each one according to how often they encountered the  
6       corresponding entity or event in their daily lives, on a scale from 1 (“rarely or never”) to 3  
7       (“often”). RSAs were conducted for a set of cortical areas previously associated with concept  
8       representation (36–38): angular gyrus (AG), supramarginal gyrus (SMG), superior temporal  
9       gyrus (STG), middle temporal gyrus (MTG), inferior temporal gyrus (ITG), anterior temporal  
10      lobe (ATL, including temporal cortical areas anterior to  $y = -2$ ), parahippocampal gyrus (PHG),  
11      inferior frontal gyrus (IFG), caudal middle frontal gyrus (cMFG), superior frontal gyrus (SFG),  
12      precuneus (PCN), posterior cingulate gyrus (PCG), rostral anterior cingulate gyrus (rACG), and  
13      fusiform gyrus (FusG). These regions were anatomically defined following the Desikan-Killiany  
14      parcellation map (39). We also conducted RSA for a distributed, functionally defined region-of-  
15      interest (ROI) based on the voxel-based meta-analysis by Binder et al. (36) (Figure 1D;  
16      heretofore referred to as “semantic network ROI”). The neural similarity structure of concept  
17      representations in this ROI reflected not only information encoded in the activation patterns  
18      within each cortical area, but also in the pattern of activations *across* different areas.

19           From the fMRI data, we generated brain activation maps for each concept, reflecting the  
20      unique spatial pattern of neural activity for that concept (Figure 1). From these maps, a neural  
21      representational dissimilarity matrix (RDM) was generated for each ROI. RDMs consisted of all  
22      pairwise dissimilarities ( $1 - \text{correlation}$ ) between the vectorized activation patterns across voxels.  
23      For each representational model investigated, a model-based RDM was computed, and its

1 similarity to the neural RDM was evaluated via Spearman correlation. We evaluated six different  
2 representational models: two based on taxonomic information, two based on experiential  
3 information, and two based on distributional information (see details below). The resulting  
4 profile of relative model performances provided an assessment of the degree to which each type  
5 of information is reflected in the neural activation patterns corresponding to different concepts.  
6 Because the RDMs from different models were partly correlated with each other (Table S1), we  
7 also conducted partial correlation RSAs to evaluate the unique contribution of each model to  
8 neural concept representation. We stress that the representational models investigated here are  
9 models of *information content* (i.e., taxonomic, experiential, or distributional); they are not  
10 meant to model the neural architecture through which information is encoded in the brain (see  
11 Supplementary Materials for extended model descriptions).

12 **Taxonomic models.** *WordNet* is the most influential representational model based on  
13 taxonomic information, having been used in several neuroimaging studies to model semantic  
14 content (17, 28, 40, 41). It is organized as a knowledge graph in which words are grouped into  
15 sets of synonyms (“synsets”), each expressing a distinct concept. Synsets are richly  
16 interconnected according to taxonomic relations, resulting in a hierarchically structured network  
17 encompassing all noun concepts. Concept similarity is computed based on the shortest path  
18 connecting the two concepts in this network.

19 In contrast to *WordNet*, which provides a comprehensive taxonomy of lexical concepts, the  
20 *Categorical* model was customized to encode the particular taxonomic structure of the concept  
21 set in each study, based on a set of *a priori* categories. Therefore, the *Categorical* model ignores  
22 concept categories that were not included in the study, such as “furniture” or “clothing”. To  
23 reduce the level of subjectivity involved in the assignment of items to categories and in the

1 evaluation of inter-category similarities, we tested 18 *a priori* versions of the Categorical model,  
2 with different numbers of categories and different levels of hierarchical structure, for the  
3 concepts in Study 1 (Figure S1). Each version was tested via RSA against the fMRI data, and the  
4 best performing version was selected for comparisons against other types of models. The  
5 selected model for Study 1 (model N in Figure S1) consisted of 19 hierarchically structured  
6 categories: Abstract (Mental Abstract, Social Abstract, Social Event, Other Abstract), Event  
7 (Social Event, Concrete Event), Animate (Animal, Human, Body Part), Inanimate (Artifact  
8 [Musical Instrument, Vehicle, Other Artifact], Food, Other Inanimate), and Place.

9 In Study 2, the Categorical model consisted of 2 higher-level categories – Object and Event –  
10 each consisting of 4 sub-categories (Animal, Plant/Food, Tool, Vehicle; Sound Event, Social  
11 Event, Communication Event, Negative Event).

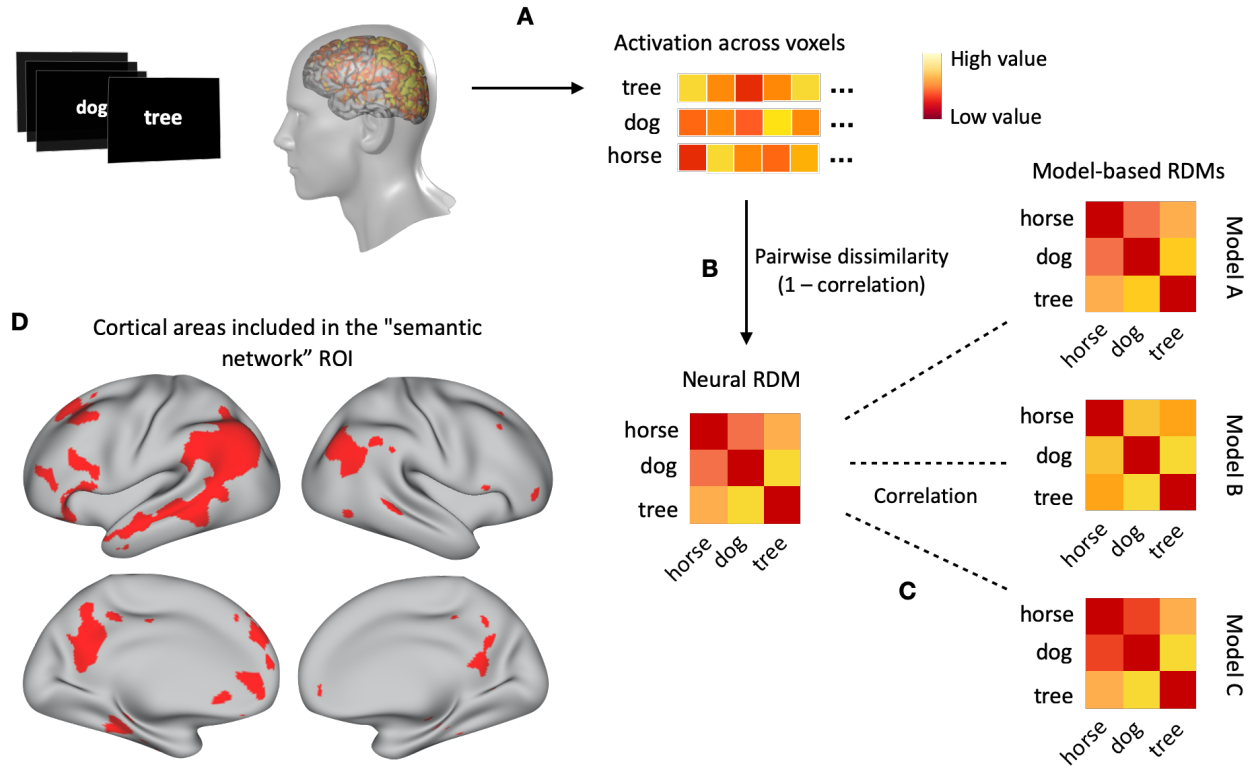
12 **Experiential models.** The *Exp48* model consists of 48 dimensions corresponding to distinct  
13 aspects of phenomenal experience, such as color, shape, manipulability, pleasantness, etc. (Table  
14 S2). This model is based on the experiential salience norms of Binder et al. (34), in which each  
15 dimension encodes the relative importance of an experiential attribute according to crowd-  
16 sourced ratings. *Exp48* encompasses all perceptual, motor, spatial, temporal, causal, valuation,  
17 and valence dimensions present in those norms.

18 The *SM8* model consists of a subset of the *Exp48* dimensions, focusing exclusively on  
19 sensory-motor information. These dimensions represent the relevance of each sensory modality  
20 (vision, audition, touch, taste, and smell) and of actions performed with each motor effector  
21 (hand, foot, and mouth) to the concept. The concept “apple”, for instance, has high values for  
22 vision, touch, taste, mouth actions, and hand actions, and low values for the other dimensions.



1           **Distributional models.** Distributional information was modeled with two of the most  
2 prominent distributional models available: *word2vec* (42) uses a deep neural network trained to  
3 predict a word based on a context window of a few words preceding and following the target  
4 word. In contrast, *GloVe* (43) is based on the *ratio* of co-occurrence probabilities between pairs  
5 of words across the entire corpus. In a comparative evaluation of distributional semantic models  
6 (12), *word2vec* and *GloVe* emerged as the two top performing models in predicting human  
7 behavior across a variety of semantic tasks.

8           Study 1 evaluated these six models with a set of 300 concepts spanning a wide variety of  
9 semantic categories, including animate objects (e.g., “elephant”, “student”), places (e.g.,  
10 “kitchen”, “beach”), artifacts (e.g., “comb”, “rocket”) and other inanimate objects (e.g., “cloud”,  
11 “ice”), events (e.g., “hurricane”, “election”), and highly abstract concepts (e.g., “fate”,  
12 “hygiene”) (Figure 2A, Tables S3-S4).



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2

**Figure 1:** Representational similarity analysis. A. An fMRI activation map was generated for each concept presented in the study, and the activation across voxels was reshaped as a vector. B.

3

The neural representational dissimilarity matrix (RDM) for the stimulus set was generated by computing the dissimilarity between these vectors ( $1 - \text{correlation}$ ) for every pair of concepts. C.

4

A model-based RDM was computed from each model, and the similarity between each model's

5

RDM and the neural RDM was evaluated via Spearman correlation. D. Cortical areas included in the functionally defined semantic network ROI (36) (red).

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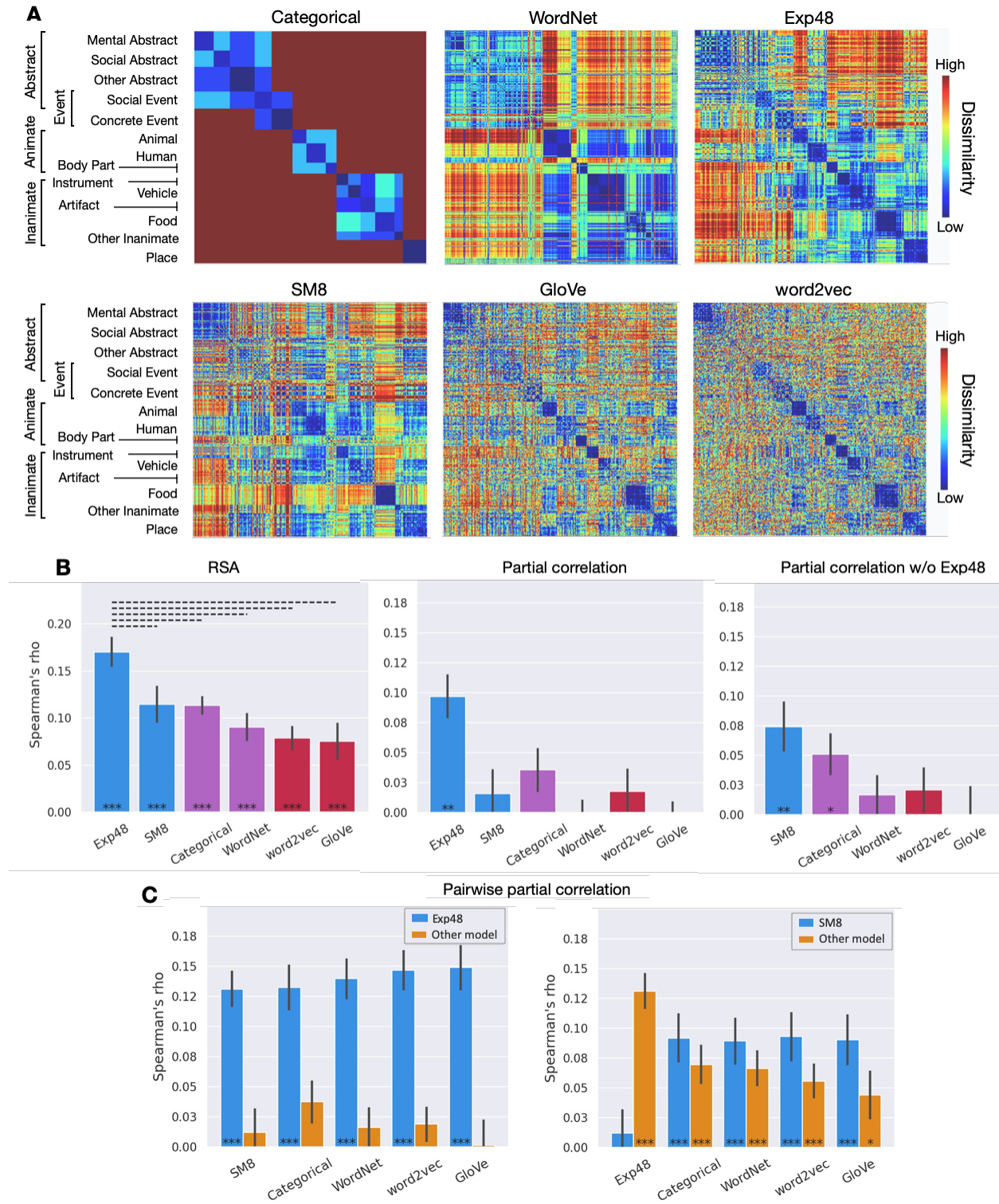
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1 **Figure 2:** Study 1. A. Dissimilarity matrices for the representational spaces tested. Rows and  
2 columns represent each of the 300 concepts used in the study, grouped according to the  
3 Categorical model to reveal taxonomic structure. B. RSA results for the semantic network ROI.  
4 Experiential (blue), taxonomic (purple), and distributional (red) models; Left: Correlations  
5 between the group-averaged neural RDM and each model-based RDM. Center: Partial  
6 correlation results for each model while controlling for its similarity with all other models. Right:  
7 Partial correlation results when Exp48 was excluded from the analysis. C. Pairwise partial  
8 correlations for the semantic network ROI, with blue bars representing Exp48 (left) or SM8  
9 (right) while controlling for its similarity to each of the other model-based RDMs; yellow bars  
10 correspond to each of the other model-based RDMs while controlling for their similarity to the  
11 model represented in blue. \*\*\*  $p < .0005$ , \*\*  $p < .005$ , \*  $p < .05$ , Mantel test; solid bar:  $p < .001$ ;  
12 dashed bar  $p < .05$ , permutation test. All  $p$  values are FDR-corrected for multiple comparisons ( $q$   
13 = .05). Error bars represent the standard error.

14

## 1 Study 1

2 Study1 revealed that all six models predicted the similarity structure of concept-related  
3 neural activation patterns in left AG, PCN, SFG, and IFG (Figures S2 and S3). In all of these  
4 areas, as well as in left and right PCG, left PHG, right IFG, and right SFG, the Exp48 model  
5 achieved the strongest correlation. SM8 did not perform as well as Exp48, and this difference  
6 reached significance in several ROIs, particularly in the left IFG. The same areas also showed a  
7 significant advantage for Exp48 over WordNet. The difference between Exp48 and the  
8 Categorical model reached significance in left AG, PCN, PC, and PHG, and in right IFG and  
9 SFG. There were no significant differences between Categorical and WordNet, although there  
10 was a trend toward higher correlations for Categorical in most areas. Relative to other models,  
11 the Categorical model performed best in the left IFG, STG, MTG, and SMG, and in the right  
12 AG. Several areas showed a trend toward lower performance for word2vec and GloVe relative to  
13 the other models, and in most areas these two models performed similarly, with two exceptions:  
14 in left IFG, GloVe significantly outperformed word2vec, while the inverse effect was found in  
15 right PCN. Intriguingly, in none of the ROIs was Exp48 significantly outperformed by another  
16 model, although Categorical was the only model to reach significance in the left STG and the  
17 right cMFG.

18 The functionally defined semantic network ROI reflected the overall pattern observed across  
19 the other ROIs, with overall stronger correlations (Figure 2B, left). Exp48 performed  
20 significantly better than any other model, with no other differences between models reaching  
21 significance. To investigate the unique contribution of each type of information to the similarity  
22 structure of neural activation patterns, we conducted partial correlation RSAs. These analyses  
23 assessed how well each model explained the neural data after controlling for its similarity to

1 other models. We conducted RSAs with the RDM of each model after regressing out the RDMs  
2 of all other models. As shown in Figure 2B (center), only Exp48 explained significant variance  
3 in the neural data after controlling for the other models. To verify whether Exp48 individually  
4 explains all of the variance accounted for by each of the other models, we performed pairwise  
5 partial correlation RSAs (Figure 2C, left). These analyses showed that no other model accounted  
6 for any measurable additional variance after controlling for their similarity to Exp48. In other  
7 words, Exp48 was the only model that made unique contributions to explaining the  
8 representational structure of lexical concepts in the semantic network ROI, while the other  
9 models only predicted the data to the extent that their similarity structure correlated with that of  
10 Exp48.

11 We then investigated whether information about the relative importance of eight sensory-  
12 motor modalities, by itself, successfully predicted the neural similarity structure of concepts after  
13 controlling for taxonomic and distributional information. The results showed that, when Exp48  
14 was not included in the partial correlation analysis, SM8 remained highly significantly correlated  
15 with the data after controlling for all other models, while WordNet, word2vec and GloVe did not  
16 (Figure 2B, right). Categorical was the only other model displaying a significant partial  
17 correlation, although numerically lower and less significant than that of SM8. Pairwise partial  
18 correlation RSAs showed that SM8 did not explain all the variance accounted for by WordNet,  
19 word2vec, or GloVe; however, there was a trend toward stronger correlations for SM8 than for  
20 any of the non-experiential models (Figure 2C, right). Together, these results suggest that  
21 experiential information – including but not restricted to sensory-motor information – plays a  
22 fundamental role in the neural representation of conceptual knowledge in heteromodal cortical

1 areas, while taxonomic and distributional representational spaces may contribute little, if any,  
2 independent information.

### 3 Study 2

4 Study 2 was designed to further investigate the information content of concept  
5 representations with a different set of concepts, a larger participant sample size, and matched  
6 subsets of object and event concepts. This study examined whether the pattern of model  
7 performances found in Study 1 would be observed independently for objects and events, or –  
8 given their markedly distinct ontological status – whether these two types of concepts would  
9 differ in the degree to which they encode experiential, taxonomic, and distributional information.  
10 The 320 concepts included in the study were selected to be typical exemplars of four categories  
11 of objects (animals, tools, plants/foods, and vehicles) and four categories of events (sounds,  
12 negative events, social events, and communication events). The larger sample size (36  
13 participants) allowed for statistical testing across participants as well as across stimuli (i.e.,  
14 words).

15 In all ROIs, RSAs based on the entire concept set (i.e., all categories included) revealed an  
16 advantage for experiential models relative to taxonomic and distributional models (Figures S4  
17 and S5). As in Study 1, correlations were particularly strong in the left IFG, AG, and PCN, with  
18 the IFG showing substantially stronger correlations than other ROIs. For all models, correlations  
19 were stronger in left hemisphere ROIs than in their right hemisphere homologs, consistent with  
20 left lateralization of lexical semantic representations. In almost all ROIs examined (28 out of 30),  
21 correlations were significantly stronger for the experiential models than for the taxonomic and  
22 distributional models. Nowhere did a taxonomic or distributional model perform significantly  
23 better than SM8 or Exp48. Exp48 significantly outperformed SM8 in left ATL, STG, PCG, AG,



1 MTG, IFG, FusG, cMFG, and SFG; and in right PCG, AG, SMG, cMFG, and SFG. No  
2 significant differences between the two experiential models were found in the other ROIs.

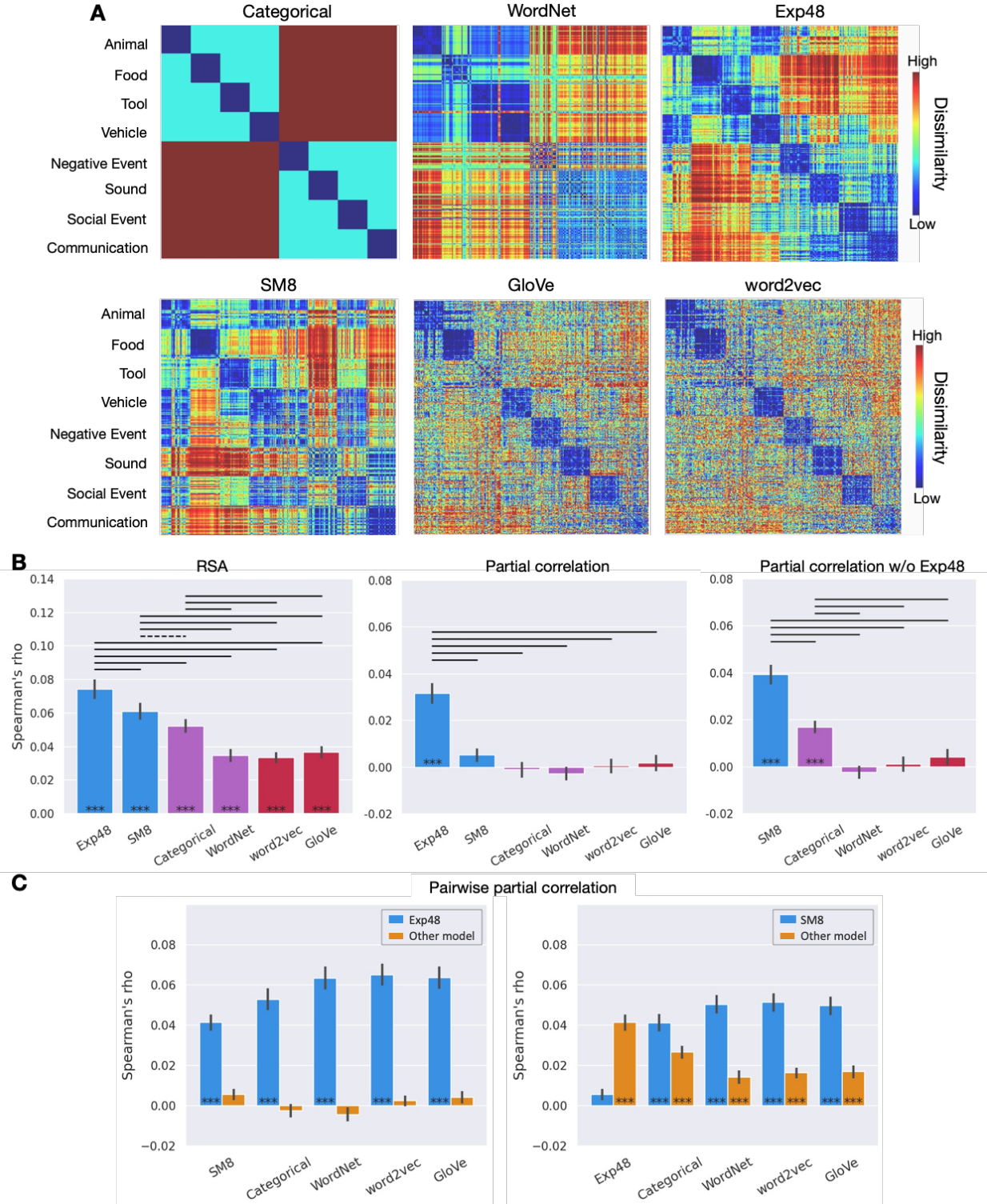
3 In the semantic network ROI, Exp48 outperformed all other models when tested across  
4 participants and across words (Figures 3B, left and S6, left), and, in both analyses, it was the  
5 only model that retained explanatory power after controlling for the predictions of all other  
6 models (Figure 3B, center, and S6, center). SM8 also performed significantly better than all non-  
7 experiential models, and Categorical outperformed WordNet, word2vec, and GloVe.

8 Partial correlation RSAs revealed that Exp48 accounted for all the variance explained by the  
9 other models (Figure 3B, center and 3C, left). When Exp48 was left out of the analysis, SM8 and  
10 Categorical together accounted for all the variance explained (Figure 3B, right), with SM8  
11 performing significantly better than Categorical. Confirming the main findings of Study 1, these  
12 results indicate that lexical concepts are encoded in high-level heteromodal cortical areas  
13 primarily in terms of experiential information.

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1       **Figure 3.** Study 2. A. Dissimilarity matrices for the representational spaces tested. Rows and  
2       columns have been grouped according to the Categorical model to reveal taxonomic structure.  
3       B. RSA results across participants for the semantic network ROI. Group mean values of the  
4       correlations between each participant's neural RDM and the model-based RDMs. Full RSA  
5       correlations (left) and partial correlations with Exp48 included (center) and excluded (right). C.  
6       Pairwise partial correlations, with blue bars representing Exp48 (left) or SM8 (right) while  
7       controlling for its similarity to each of the other models; yellow bars correspond to each of the  
8       other models while controlling for their similarity to the model represented in blue. \*\*\*  $p <$   
9       .0005, \*\*  $p <$  .005, \*  $p <$  .05; solid bar:  $p <$  .001; dashed bar  $p <$  .05; Wilcoxon signed-rank tests.  
10      All  $p$  values are FDR-corrected for multiple comparisons ( $q = .05$ ). Error bars represent the  
11      standard error of the mean.

12



1        **Figure 4.** Results for object concepts (left column) and event concepts (right column) for the  
2        semantic network ROI in Study 2 (across participants). A. RSA results. B. Partial correlations. C.  
3        Pairwise partial correlations for Exp48. D. Partial correlations with Exp48 excluded from the  
4        analysis. E. Pairwise partial correlations for SM8. Color and symbol conventions as in Figure 3.  
5

1 Separate analyses for objects and events revealed two main differences between these two  
2 types of concepts (Figures 4, S7-S10). First, RSA correlations were substantially higher for  
3 events than for objects, across all three types of representational models, in almost all ROIs. This  
4 result reflects the higher variability of pairwise similarities for the neural representations of event  
5 concepts, as evidenced by the higher noise ceiling in this condition (mean noise ceiling across  
6 anatomical ROIs, lower bound = 0.17) relative to object concepts (0.14). Inspection of the neural  
7 RDM (Figure S11) reveals a more pronounced categorical structure for events than for objects,  
8 with particularly high pairwise similarities for communication events and social events.

9 Except for the left AG, WordNet appears to perform worse for events than for objects in all  
10 other ROIs, both in absolute terms and in relation to other models. This is likely due to  
11 taxonomic trees for events being relatively shallower in this model (mean tree depth for objects  
12 and events is 10.6 and 8.1, respectively), resulting in a narrower range of possible pairwise  
13 similarities. Apart from WordNet, the overall profile of relative model performances was similar  
14 across objects and events. For both types of concepts, experiential models achieved the strongest  
15 RSA correlations in most anatomical regions, with no ROIs showing significantly stronger  
16 correlations for any taxonomic or distributional model. Partial correlation RSAs in the semantic  
17 network ROI showed that, for object concepts, Exp48 accounted for all the variance explained  
18 by any other model (Figure 4, B and C). For events, SM8 and GloVe maintained relatively weak  
19 but statistically significant correlations after controlling for Exp48. SM8 was second to Exp48 in  
20 explaining the most variance for both objects and events (Figure 4, D and E).

## 21 **Discussion**

22 We conducted a quantitative assessment of the degree to which three different kinds of  
23 information are encoded in the neural representations of lexical concepts. We found that Exp48 –

1 a representational model based on 48 distinct experiential dimensions grounded in known  
2 neurocognitive systems – consistently outperformed taxonomic and distributional models in  
3 predicting the neural similarity structure of a large number of lexical concepts (524 across both  
4 studies), spanning a wide variety of semantic categories. Additionally, a model based on eight  
5 sensory-motor dimensions, reflecting the relative importance of neural systems dedicated to  
6 vision, hearing, touch, taste, and smell, as well as motor control of the hands, mouth, and feet,  
7 matched or exceeded the performance of the best performing taxonomic and distributional  
8 models in all ROIs associated with concept representation (except for the left IFG in Study 1,  
9 where the Categorical model performed better). These results provide compelling evidence that  
10 experiential information grounded in sensory, motor, spatial, temporal, affective, and reward  
11 neural systems plays a fundamental role in the neural representation of concepts – not only in  
12 sensory-motor cortical areas, as shown in previous studies – but also in high level association  
13 areas.

14 In both experiments, Exp48 was the only model whose predictions correlated with the neural  
15 similarity structure of the entire concept set when controlling for the predictions of all other  
16 models, and in Study 2 this was also true for object concepts in particular. For event concepts,  
17 SM8 was the only other model that independently accounted for variance in the neural data. The  
18 fact that taxonomic and distributional models did not predict the neural RDM when controlling  
19 for the predictions of Exp48 alone (Figures 2C and 3C, left panel) indicates that those models  
20 provide no measurable additional information about concept similarity structure. This suggests  
21 that taxonomic information, while seemingly central to the organization of conceptual  
22 knowledge, may be represented only indirectly, via its interdependency with experiential  
23 information (34).

1           One limitation of the present study is that the representational spaces used to model  
2 experiential information content are relatively coarse. Neural concept representations must  
3 encode detailed information about aspects of the phenomenal experience associated with  
4 different lexical concepts, such as particular colors, shapes, or motor schemas, but Exp48 and  
5 SM8 only encode the relative importance of each kind of experience. In other words, these  
6 models represent information about how much the neural system underlying a particular process  
7 (e.g., color perception, motor control of the hand) contributes to a lexical concept representation,  
8 but it contains no information about the particular representations contributed by each system  
9 (e.g., different hues or different motor schemas). This coarseness, which results from practical  
10 limitations in obtaining participant ratings about fine-grained experiential attributes, imposes  
11 limitations on our ability to detect experiential information in the neural data. Nevertheless, it is  
12 still surprising that these models performed so well compared to some of the most sophisticated  
13 taxonomic and distributional models available, pointing to the development of more detailed  
14 experiential models as a promising direction for future work.

15           Together, the present results indicate that concept representations in heteromodal cortical  
16 areas primarily encode information about features of phenomenal experience grounded in  
17 sensory-motor, spatiotemporal, affective, and reward systems. While other studies have shown  
18 that areas involved in sensory perception and motor control are activated during concept retrieval  
19 (8, 22, 24), our results imply that information pertaining to these systems is directly encoded in  
20 high-level association areas during concept retrieval. The idea that concepts are neurally  
21 represented as amodal symbols whose representational code is independent of modality-specific  
22 systems has a long history (18, 31); however, the finding that taxonomic and distributional  
23 information did not make any measurable independent contribution to the neural representation

1 of concepts in high-level cortical areas challenges that view. Instead, it supports a view in which  
2 concept representations emerge from the multimodal integration of signals originating in  
3 modality-specific systems during concept acquisition (9, 24). In this framework, concept  
4 retrieval consists of the transient activation of a neuronal cell assembly distributed across the  
5 heteromodal cortical hubs that make up the semantic network, with possible downstream  
6 activation of the relevant modality-specific assemblies depending on contextual demands.  
7 Further research is required to determine the extent to which different experiential features  
8 contribute to concept representation in different parts of the semantic network, and how their  
9 relative importance varies across ontological categories.

10 In addition to their implications for the nature of the neural code underlying conceptual  
11 knowledge, the present results are also relevant to computational approaches to natural language  
12 processing in the field of artificial intelligence. They suggest that incorporating experiential  
13 information into computational models of word meaning could lead to more human-like  
14 performance. These findings can also inform the development of brain-machine interface  
15 systems by demonstrating that information about the experiential content of conceptual thought  
16 can be decoded from the spatial distribution of neural activity throughout the cortex.

## 17 **Materials and Methods**

### 18 Study 1

19 **Participants:** 8 native speakers of English (4 women), ages 19-37 (mean = 28.5) took part in  
20 Study 1. Participants were all right-handed according to the Edinburgh Handedness Scale (44),  
21 had at least a high school education, and had no history of neurological or psychiatric conditions.  
22 All participants provided written informed consent following procedures approved by the  
23 Medical College of Wisconsin Institutional Review Board.



1           **Stimuli:** Stimuli included 300 English nouns of various categories, including concrete and  
2 abstract concepts. Nouns were relatively familiar, with mean log-transformed HAL frequency of  
3 8.7 (range 4.0–12.7) and mean age of acquisition of 6.7 years (range 2.7–13.8; English Lexicon  
4 Project (<https://ellexicon.wustl.edu>) (45); Tables S3-S4).

5           **Task:** Participants rated each noun according to how often they encountered the  
6 corresponding entity or event in their daily lives, on a scale from 1 (“rarely or never”) to 3  
7 (“often”). The task was designed to encourage semantic processing of the word stimuli without  
8 emphasizing any particular semantic features or dimensions. Participants indicated their response  
9 by pressing one of three buttons on a response pad with their right hand. On each trial, a noun  
10 was displayed in written form on the center of the screen for 500 ms, followed by a 3.5-second  
11 blank screen. Each trial was followed by a central fixation cross with variable duration between 1  
12 and 4 s (mean = 2 s). The entire stimulus set was presented 6 times over the course of the study.  
13 In each presentation, the order of the stimuli was randomized. Each presentation was split into 3  
14 runs of 100 trials each. The task was performed over the course of 3 scanning sessions on  
15 separate days, with 2 presentations (6 runs) per session. Each run started and ended with an 8-  
16 second fixation cross.

17           **Equipment:** Scanning was performed on a GE Healthcare Discovery MR750 3T MRI  
18 scanner at the Medical College of Wisconsin’s Center for Imaging Research. Stimulus  
19 presentation and response recording were performed via E-prime 2.0 software running on a  
20 Windows desktop computer and a Psychology Software Tools Serial Response Box. Stimuli  
21 were back-projected on a screen positioned behind the scanner bore and viewed through a mirror  
22 attached to the head coil.

1           **Scanning protocol:** MRI scanning was conducted over 3 separate sessions on different days.  
2           Each session consisted of a structural T1-weighted MPRAGE scan, a structural T2-weighted  
3           CUBE scan, 3 pairs of T2-weighted spin echo echo-planar scans (5 volumes each) acquired with  
4           opposing phase-encoding directions (for correction of geometrical distortions in the functional  
5           images), and 6 gradient echo echo-planar runs using simultaneous multi-slice acquisition (8x  
6           multiband, TR = 1200 ms, TE = 33.5 ms, 512 volumes, flip angle = 65, matrix = 104 x 104, slice  
7           thickness = 2.0 mm, axial acquisition, 72 slices, field-of-view = 208 mm, voxel size = 2 x 2 x 2  
8           mm).

9           **Data analysis:** Functional MRI images were pre-processed (slice timing correction, motion  
10           correction, distortion correction, volume alignment) using AFNI (46). Statistical analyses were  
11           conducted in each participant's original coordinate space. Activation (beta) maps were generated  
12           for each noun relative to the mean signal across all other nouns using AFNI's 3dDeconvolve.  
13           Response time z scores and head motion parameters were included as regressors of no interest.  
14           Anatomically defined ROIs were created based on the probabilistic Desikan-Killiany parcellation  
15           atlas included in AFNI (TT\_desai\_dk\_mpm). The ATL ROI was created by the union of STG,  
16           MTG, ITG, temporal pole, and entorhinal cortex ROIs, cropped to exclude voxels posterior to y  
17           = -2 (37). The functionally defined semantic network ROI corresponded to the 1% most  
18           consistently activated voxels in an activation likelihood estimate (ALE) meta-analysis of 120  
19           neuroimaging studies of semantic language processing (36) (main text Figure 1D). All ROI  
20           masks were created in MNI coordinate space and non-linearly aligned to each participant's  
21           anatomical scan using AFNI's 3dQwarp. Neural RDMs were computed for each ROI as the  
22           Spearman correlation distance ( $1 - \rho$ ) for all pairs of concepts. A group-averaged neural RDM  
23           was computed by averaging the neural RDMs of all participants. A model-based RDM was

1 computed from each model (except WordNet) as the cosine distance (1 – cosine) for all pairs of  
2 concept vectors. The WordNet RDM was based on the Wu & Palmer similarity metric (WPsim),  
3 which relies on the depth of the two synsets in the taxonomic tree and that of their Least  
4 Common Subsumer (LCS, i.e., their most specific common hypernym):

$$\text{WPsim} = 2 \times \frac{\text{depth}(\text{LCS}(s1, s2))}{(\text{depth}(s1) + \text{depth}(s2))}$$

5  
6 We used the package Natural Language Toolkit (NLTK 3.4.5; <https://www.nltk.org>) to  
7 compute WPsim; WordNet dissimilarity was computed as 1 – WPsim.

8 The RSAs computed the Spearman correlation between the group-averaged neural RDMs  
9 and each model-based RDM. Statistical significance was tested using the Mantel test with 10,000  
10 permutations. Differences in RSA correlations between models were assessed for significance  
11 via permutation tests. Significance was controlled for multiple comparisons via false discovery  
12 rate (FDR) with  $q = .05$ . Since the model-based RDMs can be strongly correlated between  
13 models (Table S1), these analyses were supplemented with partial correlation analyses to reveal  
14 the unique contribution of each model after controlling for other models.

## 15 Study 2

16 **Participants:** 36 native speakers of English (21 women), ages 20-41 (mean = 28.7) took part  
17 in Study 2. Participants were all right-handed according to the Edinburgh Handedness Scale (44),  
18 had at least a high school education, and had no history of neurological or psychiatric conditions.  
19 None of the participants took part in Study 1.

20 **Stimuli:** Stimuli included 160 object nouns (animals, foods, tools, and vehicles – 40 of each)  
21 and 160 event nouns (social events, verbal communication events, non-verbal sound events,

1 negative events – 40 of each) (Tables S5-S6). Of the 320 concepts included in Study 2, 62  
2 objects and 34 events were also used in Study 1.

3 **Task:** Task instructions were identical to Study 1. On each trial, a noun was displayed in  
4 written form on the center of the screen for 500 ms, followed by a 2.5-second blank screen. Each  
5 trial was followed by a central fixation cross with variable duration between 1 and 3 s (mean =  
6 1.5 s). The entire stimulus set was presented 6 times over the course of the study in randomized  
7 order. Each presentation was split into 4 runs of 80 trials each. The task was performed over the  
8 course of 3 scanning sessions on separate days, with 2 presentations (8 runs) per session. Each  
9 run started and ended with an 8-second fixation cross.

10 **Equipment:** Scanning was performed on a GE Healthcare Premier 3T MRI scanner at the  
11 Medical College of Wisconsin’s Center for Imaging Research. Stimulus presentation and  
12 response recording were performed with Psychopy 3 software (47) running on a Windows  
13 desktop computer and a Celeritas fiber optic response system (Psychology Software Tools, Inc.).  
14 Stimuli were displayed on an MRI-compatible LCD screen positioned behind the scanner bore  
15 and viewed through a mirror attached to the head coil.

16 **Scanning protocol:** MRI scanning was conducted on 3 separate visits. Each session  
17 consisted of a structural T1-weighted MPRAGE scan, a structural T2-weighted CUBE scan, 3  
18 pairs of T2-weighted spin echo echo-planar scans (5 volumes each) acquired with opposing  
19 phase-encoding directions, and 8 gradient echo echo-planar functional scans (4x multiband, TR =  
20 1500 ms, TE = 23 ms, 512 volumes, flip angle = 50, matrix = 104 x 104, slice thickness = 2.0  
21 mm, axial acquisition, 72 slices, field-of-view = 208 mm, voxel size = 2 x 2 x 2 mm).

1           **Data analysis:** Data preprocessing and statistical analysis were performed as described in  
2 Study 1. RDMs for the models tested in Study 2 are depicted in Figure 3 (main text), and inter-  
3 model correlations are displayed in Table S1.

4           RSAs were conducted in two ways. In the analysis across stimuli (i.e., words), voxel-based  
5 RDMs from all participants were combined into a group-averaged neural RDM, and, for each  
6 model, a single correlation was computed between this RDM and the model-based RDM. These  
7 correlations were tested for significance via the Mantel test with 10,000 permutations. In the  
8 analysis across participants, a correlation was computed, for each model, between each  
9 participant's neural RDM and the model-based RDM. The Fisher Z-transformed correlation  
10 coefficients were then averaged across participants to compute the group mean rho, and  
11 significance tested via Wilcoxon's Signed Rank test.

12           Differences in RSA correlations between models were tested across words via permutation  
13 test (Mantel) and across participants via Wilcoxon's Signed-Rank test. Significance was  
14 controlled for multiple comparisons via false discovery rate (FDR) with  $q = .05$ .

15           **Acknowledgments:** The authors wish to thank Elizabeth Awe for assistance with data collection  
16 and management, and Jia-Qin Tong for assistance with preprocessing of fMRI data. **Funding:**  
17 This project was supported by grants NIH/NIDCD R01-DC016622 to J.R.B. and AHW Project  
18 #5520462 to Brian-Fred Fitzsimmons. **Author contributions:** L.F. conceived the study,  
19 coordinated data acquisition, analyzed the data, prepared figures and tables, and wrote the initial  
20 draft; C.J.H. contributed software tools for data acquisition; J.R.B. and L.L.C. developed the  
21 stimulus set and reviewed/edited the manuscript; J.R.B supervised the project and acquired  
22 financial support. **Competing interests:** Authors declare no competing interests.

23



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