

The Journal of Neuroscience

<http://jneurosci.msubmit.net>

JN-RM-1422-15R2

MEG multivariate analysis reveals early abstract action representations in lateral occipitotemporal cortex

Angelika Lingnau, University of Trento
Raffaele Tucciarelli, University of Trento
Luca Turella, University of Trento
Nikolaas Oosterhof, University of Trento
Nathan Weisz, Università degli Studi di Trento

Commercial Interest:

1

2

3 **MEG multivariate analysis reveals early abstract action representations in lateral**
4 **occipitotemporal cortex**

5

6 Raffaele Tucciarelli¹, Luca Turella¹, Nikolaas N. Oosterhof¹, Nathan Weisz^{1,2,3}, Angelika Lingnau^{1,2,4*}

7 1. Center for Mind/Brain Sciences (CIMEC), University of Trento, Rovereto, 38068, Italy

8 2. Department of Psychology and Cognitive Science, University of Trento, Rovereto, 38068, Italy

9 3. Centre for Cognitive Neuroscience, University of Salzburg, Salzburg, 5020, Austria

10 4. Department of Psychology, Royal Holloway University of London, TW20 0EX Egham, Surrey, UK

11

12 ***Corresponding author:**

13 Angelika Lingnau, angelika.lingnau@unitn.it; angelika.lingnau@rhul.ac.uk

14

15 **Conflict of interest:** nothing to declare

16

17 **Acknowledgements:** This research was supported by the Provincia Autonoma di Trento and the

18 Fondazione Cassa di Risparmio di Trento e Rovereto.

19 **Abstract**

20 Understanding other people's actions is a fundamental prerequisite for social interactions.
21 Whether action understanding relies on simulating the actions of others in the observers' motor
22 system or on the access to conceptual knowledge stored in non-motor areas is strongly debated. It
23 has been argued earlier that areas that play a crucial role in action understanding should (a)
24 distinguish between different actions, (b) generalize across the ways in which actions are
25 performed (e.g. Dinstein et al., 2008; Oosterhof et al., 2013; Caramazza et al., 2014), and (c) have
26 access to action information around the time of action recognition (Hauk et al., 2008). Whereas
27 previous studies focused on the first two criteria, little is known about the dynamics underlying
28 action understanding. We examined which **human** brain regions are able to distinguish between
29 pointing and grasping, irrespective of reach direction (left/ right) and effector (left/ right hand),
30 using multivariate pattern analysis (MVPA) of magnetoencephalography (MEG) data. We show
31 that the lateral occipitotemporal cortex (LOTC) has the earliest access to abstract action
32 representations, which coincides with the time point from which there was enough information to
33 allow discriminating between the two actions. By contrast, precentral regions, though recruited
34 early, have access to such abstract representations substantially later. Our results demonstrate
35 that in contrast to LOTC, the early recruitment of precentral regions does not contain the detailed
36 information that is required to recognize an action. We discuss previous theoretical claims of
37 motor theories and how they are incompatible with our data.

38 **Significance Statement**

39 It is debated whether our ability to understand other people’s actions relies on the simulation of
40 actions in the observers’ motor system, or whether it is based on access to conceptual knowledge
41 stored in non-motor areas. Here we examined where in the brain and at which point in time it is
42 possible to distinguish between pointing and grasping actions irrespective of the way in which
43 they are performed (effector, reach direction) using magnetoencephalography (MEG) in
44 combination with machine learning. We show that, in contrast to the predictions of motor
45 theories of action understanding, the lateral occipitotemporal cortex (LOT) has access to abstract
46 action representations substantially earlier than precentral regions.

47 **Introduction**

48 How do we assign meaning to actions performed by other people? One of the most dominant
49 views in the literature is the idea that action concepts are grounded in the motor system
50 (Rizzolatti et al., 2001; Kiefer and Pulvermüller, 2012). By contrast, according to classical cognitive
51 theories (Mahon and Caramazza, 2008; Caramazza et al., 2014), the ability to understand the
52 meaning of other people's actions draws on conceptual representations stored outside the motor
53 system, such as posterior temporal regions.

54 A region involved in action understanding should be able (a) to discriminate between different
55 actions (action specificity), and (b) to generalize across different possible instances of a particular
56 action (Dinstein et al., 2008; Oosterhof et al., 2013; Caramazza et al., 2014). For example, *grasping*
57 has the same meaning for an observer irrespective of whether the movement is performed with
58 the left or right hand, or towards the left or right side of visual space. In other words, a region
59 important for action understanding should represent the action while generalizing across concrete
60 instantiations such as the underlying effector or reach direction. Previous fMRI and TMS studies in
61 humans reported abstract action representations in parietal, frontal and occipital regions
62 (Hamilton and Grafton, 2006, 2008; Cattaneo et al., 2010; Oosterhof et al., 2010, 2013), making it
63 difficult to draw firm conclusions regarding the ongoing debate between motor and cognitive
64 theories. One important factor not well understood so far is the underlying temporal profile of
65 action understanding. Such information is crucial since the two theories lead to opposite
66 predictions: according to motor theories, motor areas should have the earliest access to abstract
67 action representations (Pulvermüller, 2005). By contrast, according to cognitive theories, areas
68 outside the motor system should have the earliest access to such abstract action representations.

69 Here we use MVPA of MEG data to examine where in the brain and at which point in time it is
70 possible to distinguish between observed pointing and grasping irrespective of reach direction
71 (left, right) or effector (left, right hand). In contrast to motor theories of action understanding, we
72 show that abstract action representations are encoded in lateral occipitotemporal cortex earlier
73 than in precentral regions.

74

75

76 **Material and Methods**

77 We carried out two separate experiments with two different groups of participants: one
78 behavioral experiment to identify the time point at which the videos contained enough
79 information to allow participants to discriminate between pointing and grasping, and an MEG
80 experiment. The same stimuli were used for the two experiments.

81 **Participants.** Fourteen students (7 females; mean age: 23.13; sd: 2.253; all right-handed) from the
82 University of Trento took part in the behavioral experiment and received a reimbursement of €6,-
83 at the end of the session. A different group of seventeen students (11 females; mean age: 23.3; sd:
84 2.1; all right-handed) from the University of Trento with normal or corrected-to-normal visual
85 acuity and with no neurological disorders took part in the MEG experiment. All participants
86 received a reimbursement of €25,- at the end of the MEG session. All of them gave informed
87 consent in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki. The experimental procedures were
88 approved by the Ethics Committee for research involving human participants at the University of
89 Trento.

90 **Stimuli.** Stimuli consisted of short video-clips (833 ms) depicting simple center-out hand
91 movements (Figure 1A). Each clip started with the hand of the actor touching the central object (a
92 polystyrene semi-sphere) with the index finger resting in the same position. After a variable
93 amount of time (median: 183 ms; range: [67 – 367 ms]), a center-out movement towards one of
94 the other semi-spheres started. Movement onset was defined as the time point in which the rest
95 position was released and hand preshaping was initiated. The video ended as soon as the hand
96 reached one of the peripheral semi-spheres (see Figure 1A for an example trial sequence). The
97 actions were recorded from four different actors (1 male) using a digital video camera. Only the
98 hands (and part of the forearm) of the actors were visible in the field of view. We instructed the
99 actors to keep the velocity and kinematics of the movements as similar as possible across the two
100 different movements. We discarded, based on our perceptual judgment, videos in which the
101 velocity or kinematics were too dissimilar from the others and videos in which the preshaping of
102 the hands before movement onset could give information regarding the upcoming action, keeping
103 a total of 80 videos (five exemplars for each combination of actor x movement type x direction).
104 We obtained movements performed with the left hand creating specular copies of the right hand
105 movement videos via software (Matlab, Mathworks, Natick, NA), for a total of 160 videos. On each
106 video, we superimposed a small white cross ($0.88 \times 0.88^\circ$) above the central semi-sphere to enable
107 fixation and thus to avoid possible noise in the MEG signal due to eye movements.

108

<< Figure 1>>

109 **Behavioral experiment**

110 **Procedure.** To identify the minimum video duration required to be able to distinguish between
111 observed pointing and grasping, we presented participants with videos depicting pointing or
112 grasping movements directed towards the left or right side, performed with the left or right hand.
113 The duration of the videos was parametrically varied (167, 200, 233, or 333 ms). Participants had
114 to classify the type of observed movement by pressing one of two possible buttons while ignoring
115 the other two dimensions (reach direction, effector). A trial started with a fixation period (white
116 cross) of 2 seconds. Then the video appeared for a variable duration. As soon as the video ended,
117 the fixation cross appeared again, and participants had to indicate by button press which
118 movement they had observed. Participants were instructed to respond as accurately as possible.
119 Video duration, type of movement, effector and reach direction were randomized. Each
120 participant completed four experimental runs of approx. 5.5 min, for a total of 512 trials (64
121 repetitions per conditions). Stimuli were presented on a CRT monitor (ViewSonic Grapic Series
122 G90fB; screen resolution: 1280x1024, refresh rate: 60 Hz) placed approx. 64 cm in front of the
123 participants.

124 **Statistical analysis.** The aim of the behavioral experiment was to individuate the point in time in
125 which the two actions started to perceptually diverge. To compute the accuracy for discriminating
126 between the two observed actions as a function of video duration, we divided the number of
127 correct classifications by the total number of trials, separately for each video duration and each
128 participant, collapsing across effector (left, right hand) and reach direction (left, right). We then
129 used a chi-squared test to assess at which video duration the accuracy was higher than chance
130 level (50%).

131

132 **MEG experiment**

133 **Procedure.** We presented participants (N = 17) with short videos (833 ms) of reach-to-point and
134 reach-to-grasp movements performed with either the left or right hand towards peripheral targets
135 on the left or right side (Figure 1A) while measuring their brain oscillatory activity. We used a
136 2x2x2 factorial design (Figure 1B), varying the type of movement (pointing/grasping), the effector
137 (left/right hand), and reach direction (left/right). Each trial consisted of the following events
138 (Figure 1A): a green fixation cross (blink phase: 800 ms), a white fixation cross (fixation phase:
139 randomly jittered within 2000-2500 ms), the video (video phase: 833 ms), and a white fixation
140 cross (resting phase: 1000 ms). Trial duration varied from 4633 ms to 5133 s depending on the
141 duration of the fixation phase. The blink phase at the beginning of each trial allowed participants
142 to blink during a controlled time window and thus reducing the probability of blinking during the
143 fixation phase or during video presentation. Participants were instructed to blink every time they
144 saw the green cross. During the fixation phase, participants had to maintain fixation on the white
145 cross. We jittered the fixation phase to avoid that participants could predict the appearance of the
146 video that could have caused anticipation of the neural response. When the video appeared,
147 participants were asked to keep fixating on the cross and to globally pay attention to the ongoing
148 movement. In particular, in contrast to the task used in the behavioral experiment, we asked them
149 to attend to all three dimensions we manipulated, i.e. movement type, effector, and reach
150 direction. During the resting phase, participants had to keep fixating and to wait for the green
151 cross that indicated the beginning of a new trial.

152 To ensure that participants were paying attention to the video, we introduced catch trials (10% of
153 all trials) during which we presented a question regarding one of the three dimensions (e.g. 'was
154 the direction to the left?'). Catch trials were presented occasionally with the following constraints:
155 1) if trial N was a catch trial, trial N+1 could not be a catch trial; 2) no catch trial during the first
156 trial of a run. A catch trial was identical to an experimental trial except for the question that
157 appeared at the end of the catch trial (1 sec after video offset). Since participants did not know
158 when a catch trial would appear, and what the question would be, they had to pay attention to
159 each video and to each of the three dimensions to perform the task correctly. The answer was
160 always binary (yes or no) and participants had MEG-compatible buttons for answering to the
161 questions. The assignment of the response to the two buttons changed randomly for each
162 question to avoid any potential confounds related to motor preparation. Eye movements were

163 monitored using the OEM system (OEM eye tracker, SMI; 60 Hz sampling rate). After each
164 response, feedback was provided (a cartoon smiling or a sad face).

165 Each participant performed 10 runs, consisting of 64 trials, plus 6 catch trials, for a total of 640
166 experimental trials and 60 catch trials. The number of repetitions for each factorial combination
167 (movement type x effector x reach direction) per participant was 80. Before entering the shielded
168 room, participants familiarized with the stimuli and the task. Each run lasted from 4.9 to 5.5
169 minutes, depending on the duration of the fixation phase, for a total duration of the session of
170 approximately 52 minutes. At the end of each run, participants were allowed to rest for a few
171 minutes before a new acquisition started.

172 Stimuli were projected on a screen (1280 x 1024 pixels screen resolution, 60 Hz refresh rate) that
173 was placed about 130 cm in front of the participant. The screen was visible as a rectangular
174 aperture of about 21.7 x 13.16°. We controlled visual stimulation during the behavioral and the
175 MEG sessions using ASF (Schwarzbach, 2011), a toolbox for Matlab (Mathworks, Natick, MA) based
176 on the Psychtoolbox (Brainard, 1997).

177 **MEG data acquisition and analysis.** At the beginning of the MEG session, the head shape of each
178 participant was digitally acquired using the Polhemus system (Polhemus, Colchester, VT).
179 Moreover, we placed three coils at the participant's forehead and two behind the ears to acquire
180 the head position of each participant within the MEG helmet at the beginning of each run. Prior to
181 entering the shielded room containing the MEG system, participants were asked to remove all
182 magnetic materials that could distort the measurement.

183 We measured neuromagnetic brain activity using a 306-channels whole head MEG system
184 (Neuromag Elekta Oy, Helsinki Finland) at a sampling rate of 1000 Hz. The system consists of 204
185 planar gradiometers and 102 magnetometers arranged in a helmet configuration. Here, we are
186 reporting results of the gradiometers only. Triggers were sent at video onset to synchronize
187 stimulus presentation with neural activity. To check for the correct timing of the stimuli, and to
188 take into account possible delays of the stimulus presentation with respect to the triggers, we
189 used a photodiode on the stimulation screen inside the shielded room.

190 **MEG data preprocessing.** We analyzed data using the open source Matlab-based Fieldtrip toolbox
191 (Oostenveld et al., 2011). Continuous data were cut into epochs from -1 to 1.3 sec relatively to
192 video onset. Epochs were high-pass filtered at 1 Hz to remove very slow frequencies and Direct
193 Current (DC) offset. Frequencies due to the electrical system were also filtered out using a band-
194 stop filter (Butterworth IIR filter) at 50 Hz and its harmonics (100 and 150 Hz). Trials with blinks or

195 eye movements during the presentation of the video or during the baseline period were discarded
196 on the basis of the information from the eye tracker. In addition, we visually inspected trials for
197 artifacts, blind to the condition, and rejected trials that were clearly affected by external noise or
198 spike current. On average, we rejected 13% of the trials per participant. If a sensor was very noisy
199 for the entire experimental session, it was rejected. In order to have the same number of sensors
200 for each participant, missing sensors were reconstructed by interpolation of the neighbors.

201 **Time-frequency analysis.** To obtain a time-frequency representation of the oscillatory activity
202 associated with movement observation, we applied Fourier transformation to sliding time
203 windows with fixed length of 500 ms. The sliding window moved in steps of 50 ms; power was
204 calculated for frequencies in a range from 2 to 40 Hz in steps of 2 Hz. To avoid spectral leakage and
205 to control for frequency smoothing, a Hanning taper was applied prior to Fourier transformation.
206 Subsequently, for the univariate analysis only, power was averaged across effector and reach
207 direction, and the spectral power was normalized relative to baseline (-0.5 to -0.3 s with respect to
208 the onset of the video, i.e. during a sub-period of the fixation phase).

209 **Source analysis.** Neural sources were found using dynamic imaging of coherent sources (DICS), a
210 frequency domain beamforming technique (Gross et al., 2001). We chose the frequencies and
211 times of interest based on the sensor level analysis. Specifically, we considered the sensor with the
212 greatest accuracy of the classifier (multivariate analysis) to distinguish between pointing and
213 grasping, generalizing across effector and reach direction, in those frequency bands that survived
214 the multiple comparison tests. Note that, given the way the sensors were selected, source analysis
215 merely served as a visualization of the sources.

216 For each participant we used a volume conductor model using the single-shell method (Nolte,
217 2003). The models were built warping a dipole grid based on a MNI template brain to fit the
218 individual head shape of each participant. We proceeded with DICS for each separate condition
219 using a common spatial filter computed from the combination of the two conditions. In this way,
220 any difference between the two conditions cannot be ascribed to differences between the filters.

221 **MEG Statistical analysis (sensor level).** We carried out both uni- and multivariate analyses in
222 sensor space, followed by a beamforming analysis (Gross et al., 2001) to identify sources
223 explaining any observed effects. Univariate analysis was conducted in order to observe the
224 classical decrease in power in alpha and beta bands (Cochin et al., 1999; Pineda, 2005; Hari, 2006).
225 Importantly, to identify at which sensors and at which point in time it is possible to distinguish

226 between the two movements on the basis of the MEG signal, we applied multivariate analysis on
227 the computed power and the sources adopting an algorithm developed for the analysis of fMRI
228 data (Oosterhof et al., 2012a).

229 **Behavioral analysis (MEG experiment).** Participants' accuracy in answering the questions in the
230 catch trials during the MEG experiment was evaluated online by observing the feedback provided
231 after each catch trial. All participants were able to answer the questions and typically made two or
232 three mistakes within the entire session (mostly at the beginning of the experiment). We are thus
233 certain that participants were attending to the videos.

234 **Univariate analysis.** Note that in contrast to the multivariate analysis, in which we specifically
235 targeted regions that show movement selectivity *generalizing across effector and reach direction*,
236 the purpose of the univariate analysis was to identify areas with less specific properties. In
237 particular, as a quality control, we examined whether we obtain the typical decrease in the alpha
238 and beta band during action observation (Cochin et al., 1999; Pineda, 2005; Hari, 2006).
239 Furthermore, we aimed to determine which frequency bands and which sensors are modulated
240 differently during pointing and grasping when *collapsing across effector and reach direction*.

241 All the experimental conditions were baseline corrected by subtracting the fixation period (from -
242 0.5 to -0.3) from the post-stimulus period (from 0 to 1.3 s). To assess the difference between
243 pointing and grasping, we used a non-parametric method (permutation test), with a cluster
244 method for multiple comparison correction (Maris and Oostenveld, 2007) with participants as
245 units of observation. In brief, we computed *t* scores between the two movements for each sensor-
246 frequency-time bin. The *observed* cluster-level statistic was obtained by summing the *t* scores of
247 neighboring bins (in time, frequency and sensors) exceeding an a priori defined critical value
248 ($p < 0.05$). We repeated the procedure 1000 times by swapping the condition labels and we
249 obtained the distribution of *permuted* cluster-level statistics. At each iteration, the maximum
250 cluster-level statistic was considered to control for type I error. The *p* value was the proportion of
251 permuted cluster-level statistics that exceeded the *observed* cluster-level statistic. If the *p*-value
252 was less than 0.05, the cluster was taken as significant.

253 **Multivariate analysis.** The assumption behind multivariate analysis in MEG is that the processing
254 of each stimulus category is associated with a specific neural activity that induces an oscillatory
255 signal (or neural pattern) consisting of a unique combination of sensor, time, and/ or frequency.
256 Multivariate analyses exploit differences in terms of these patterns of activations. By contrast,

257 univariate analyses do not consider such patterns, but address whether two conditions differ in
258 terms of the average response of a single variable (e.g. averaged frequency over time). This is why
259 multivariate analyses are more *sensitive* than univariate analyses (Haxby et al., 2001; Kriegeskorte
260 et al., 2006). Importantly, multivariate analysis allows analyzing whether the *representational*
261 *content* of an area – examined via the underlying neural pattern - generalizes across low-level
262 features. In our case, we aimed to identify regions in which the unique neural patterns associated
263 with pointing and grasping generalized across effector (left or right hand) and reach direction (left
264 or right; for a schematic overview, see Figure 2). We trained a classifier to discriminate between
265 the two types of movements using the spatio-spectral-temporal MEG signal (for details, see next
266 paragraph) related to movements performed with one of the two effectors and towards one of
267 the two directions. We then tested on the opposite combination of effector and direction. For
268 example, we trained a classifier to distinguish between observed grasping and pointing actions
269 performed with the left hand towards the left, and tested the classifier to distinguish between
270 observed grasping and pointing performed with the right hand towards the right. In this way,
271 above chance classification could only be due to information related to the type of movement,
272 and not to low-level perceptual features.

273 Analyses were performed using CoSMoMVPA, an MVPA toolbox in Matlab (Oosterhof et al., **in**
274 **preparation**) The toolbox provides an adapted version of the multivariate searchlight approach
275 (Kriegeskorte et al., 2006), an information-based algorithm that allows analyzing the neural
276 contents adopting a multivariate approach at each location in the brain. In this analysis, we used
277 local ‘neighborhoods’ of features in channel-time-frequency space. We used a sensor radius of 1, a
278 time radius of 100 ms, and a frequency radius of 8Hz. For a given ‘center’ feature [a (sensor, time,
279 frequency)-triple], its neighbors consisted of features for which its sensor, time, and frequency
280 were all within the corresponding radii.

281 The main steps used in the multivariate analysis (for a schematic illustration, see Figure 2) were: 1)
282 compute the time-frequency representation separately for each sensor and each trial (Figure 2A);
283 2) select the ‘central’ feature and its neighbors in time-frequency-sensor space (dashed rectangles
284 in the insets in Figure 2A; for an enlarged view, see Figure 2B); 3) create a feature vector for each
285 trial by selecting all features in its neighborhood (Figure 2C) and normalize (z transform) the data;
286 4) create independent partitions for training and testing the classifier (see Table 1); 5) train the
287 classifier; 6) test the classifier. We repeated the steps from 2 to 5 for each sensor and for each time
288 and frequency bin, and the classification result for each center feature was assigned to its

289 corresponding location in time-frequency-sensor space. For classification, we used a Support
290 Vector Machine (SVM) algorithm, a type of classifier that looks for linear combinations of features
291 to create a decision boundary to discriminate between two classes or stimuli (e.g. Mur et al., 2009;
292 Pereira et al., 2009).

293 << Figure 2 >>

294

295 To create subsets of trials to feed the classifier with the aim of differentiating between neural
296 responses related with the observation of grasping and pointing actions irrespective of effector
297 and reach direction, for each subject we divided the dataset in two independent halves, each
298 containing only movements with a complementary combination of effector and reach direction.
299 The first half contained left hand movements to the right and right hand movements to the left,
300 and the second half left hand movements to the left and right hand movements to the right. We
301 further divided the data in independent *chunks*, each of which contained at least 136 trials
302 (depending on the number of trials remaining after artifact rejection) of a specific condition of
303 interest. Then, for each half, we adopted a leave-one-chunk-out cross-validation method. We used
304 3 chunks associated to a specific condition for training, and a corresponding chunk with the
305 complementary effector and direction for testing (cross-condition classification). This procedure
306 was repeated for all chunks. Note that within a chunk the only dimension that differed across trials
307 was the type of movement: grasping vs pointing. Thus, we assumed that the classifier learnt to
308 discriminate between these two classes of stimuli. For example, if the training dataset contained
309 the conditions grasping to the right with the right hand and pointing to the right with the right
310 hand, the testing dataset contained the conditions grasping to the left with the left hand and
311 pointing to the left with the left hand. For this type of classification, the classifier had to rely on
312 differences between the two types of movements. If the model was able to discriminate between
313 the two movements in the independent subset, this indicates that it had learnt the difference
314 between the two types of movements using the previous training subset, generalizing across
315 effector and reach direction. We adopted this approach for each possible factorial combination
316 (for a complete list, see Table 1).

317

318 << Table 1 >>

319

320 The testing phase provided accuracy maps for each participant reflecting the classifiers'
321 performance in discriminating between the two observed movements irrespective of effector and

322 reach directions [in a similar way as traditional fMRI searchlights (Kriegeskorte et al., 2006), except
323 that the features consist of (sensor, time, frequency)-triples rather than voxels]. We thus had
324 information regarding where, when, and at which frequency band it was possible to distinguish
325 between the abstract neural representations of the two movements.

326 In order to assess the reliability of the performance of the classifier, we used a non-parametric
327 method (permutation test, similar to the procedure described above for the univariate analysis;
328 see Maris and Oostenveld, 2007). In this case, we used the difference between the obtained
329 classification accuracy and chance level accuracy (the accuracy expected under the null-hypothesis
330 of no difference between the two conditions, meaning 50%) to compute the test statistic used in
331 the permutation steps (see univariate method).

332 Any effect observed at sensor level has to be generated by neural sources. To visualize the sources
333 underlying the cross-decoding effects for the frequency bands and time windows observed at the
334 sensor level, we conducted a multivariate analysis at the source level, adopting the same
335 searchlight approach as before (Kriegeskorte et al., 2006). Note that multivariate analysis was
336 necessary here to identify which regions of the brain represented actions at an abstract level (i.e.,
337 generalizing across effector and reach direction). We reconstructed the source activity for the
338 frequency bands and time windows that were significant at sensor level and expected to identify
339 which regions of the brain were able to decode between grasping and pointing across effector and
340 reach direction. We obtained estimates of frequency power at each grid point using a beamformer
341 algorithm (see previous section) on a single trial basis. A searchlight was defined taking the power
342 values at each grid point with its neighbors in a circle of 2 cm radius. For each participant, we
343 found the accuracy maps indicating the performance of the classifier in discriminating between
344 the two observed movements (irrespective of effector and reach direction). For descriptive
345 purposes, we are reporting the clusters showing the greatest classification accuracy.

346

347 **Results**

348 **Behavioral experiment**

349 We computed a chi-square test to evaluate at which time point participants' performance was
350 significantly higher than chance level (50%). We found that performance of the participants was
351 not different from chance level at 167 ms (X-squared = 11.7307, df = 13, p = 0.5498) and at 200 ms
352 (X-squared = 21.4835, df = 13, p = 0.0639). Performance was significantly higher than chance level
353 from 233 ms onwards (X-squared = 58.0318, df = 13, p = 1.178e-07). This means that participants
354 were unable to distinguish the two actions if videos were shorter than 233 ms. Since mean
355 movement onset in the videos (defined as the time point at which the rest position was released
356 and hand preshaping was initiated; see *Stimuli*) was 191 ms (SD: 90 ms; median: 183 ms), this
357 indicates that the two actions were perceptually indistinguishable before movement onset.

358

359

<< Figure 3 >>

360

361 **MEG experiment**

362 **Univariate analysis.** We first analyzed the MEG signal using classical univariate methods to assess
363 whether the stimuli induced a modulatory activity in the ongoing oscillations relative to rest. Low
364 frequency bands such as alpha- and beta-bands are typically characterized by a decrease in power
365 presumably due to neuronal activity synchronization in specific brain regions (Pfurtscheller and
366 Lopes da Silva, 1999), indicating neural processing of the stimulus. Univariate analyses comparing
367 the activation period (after video onset) with the baseline (before video onset) demonstrated that
368 passive observation of pointing and grasping modulates alpha- (8 – 12 Hz) and beta- (15 – 25 Hz)
369 band power over posterior, parietal and frontal sensors, as well as the theta-band (4 - 7 Hz). Figure
370 4A shows one central sensor for illustrative purposes. In the depicted sensor, the alpha and beta
371 rebounds related to post-observation processes are evident. Dotted lines approximately indicate
372 the different stages of the movement (see Figure captions for details).

373 The decrease in power that we observed in the alpha and beta bands is in line with previous
374 studies (Pineda, 2005; Hari, 2006) and has been suggested to reflect sensorimotor system activity.
375 Further, the increase in power in the theta- and low alpha- (4– 8 Hz) band has been observed
376 during memory tasks (Jensen and Tesche, 2002). In addition, these low frequencies have been

377 reported to be modulated during action observation, both in humans (Frenkel-Toledo et al., 2013;
378 Pavlidou et al., 2014a, 2014b) and monkeys (Caggiano et al., 2014; Kilner et al., 2014).

379 <<Figure 4>>

380 A direct comparison of grasping and pointing movements (collapsing over effector and reach
381 direction; see Materials and Methods, Univariate Analysis) showed a significant differential
382 modulatory activity in beta (central frequency: 24 Hz) and alpha (central frequency: 16 Hz) band
383 power over sensorimotor sensors at a late latency only (from around 750 to 1100 ms, and from
384 around 500 to 750 ms, respectively). Figure 4B illustrates this effect for the same representative
385 significant sensor as in Figure 4A over central regions. Bluish colors indicate that the power
386 decrease is greater for grasping than for pointing; reddish colors indicate the opposite. Figure 4C-
387 D shows the topography representations of the significant sensors in two selected subsets of
388 frequency bands and time windows that were all located over central and right central sensors.
389 These results show that (a) the brain processes the two actions as being different, and that (b)
390 sensorimotor areas might be involved. The fact that *grasping* induces a greater decrease than
391 pointing could be due to the higher complexity of this movement, which in turn is likely to recruit
392 more neural sources. However, this differential activity seems quite late (at around 600 ms), long
393 after the two movements were perceptually distinguishable. Thus, there must be another, earlier,
394 process that allows discriminating the two movements, which the univariate analysis did not
395 reveal.

396 **Multivariate analysis.** Figure 5A-C shows the results of the multivariate analysis at sensor level.
397 Two types of representations are provided: 1) a time-frequency representation, to show the
398 dynamics of all the considered frequencies at each time point in a specific subset of sensors (panel
399 A); 2) a topographical representation, to show the spatial information at specific time points and
400 frequency bands (panel B, C). The inset of Figure 5A shows the two time-frequency clusters that
401 survived the multiple comparisons correction. The lateral plots show the averaged t values over
402 the sensors highlighted on the two topoplots in the middle. We observed that the classifier was
403 able to significantly ($p < 0.05$; corrected for multiple comparisons using a cluster-based method;
404 maximum accuracy: 53.46%) discriminate between the two observed movements, generalizing
405 across effector (left and right hand) and reach direction (left and right) over posterior sensors as
406 early as 150 ms and lasting until 550 ms in the low alpha/theta range (see Figure 5A, left panel; for
407 a direct comparison with univariate analysis, see Figure 7). By contrast, significant discrimination

408 over more anterior sensors was possible only within a window of 550 – 1200 ms, i.e. at a late stage
409 of the video, when the hand interacts with the object (see Figure 5A, right panel). Figure 5B-C
410 show the topographies at different times and frequencies, selected according to the following
411 criteria:

412 1) As time of interest, we selected the central point of the time windows selected based on the
413 significant clusters that survived the significance test, i.e. 400 ms [200 - 600ms] for the cluster
414 obtained in the earlier time window, and 900ms [600 - 1200ms] for the cluster obtained in the
415 later time window.

416 2) Frequency bands were chosen based on previous studies showing a modulation of the low
417 alpha (8-10 Hz) and high-theta (6-8 Hz) bands (Frenkel-Toledo et al., 2013) and the high alpha- (8-
418 14 Hz) and beta- (15-25 Hz) bands during action observation (e.g. Pineda, 2005). For each time of
419 interest (400ms and 900ms), we selected the peak frequency within each considered frequency
420 band (i.e., 6, 8, 10, and 18Hz).

421 To examine the cortical sources of the effects shown in Figure 5A-C, we carried out another
422 multivariate analysis at source level, adopting the same cross-comparisons as we did for the
423 sensor analysis (see Materials and Methods for details). To find the sources at 400 ms for the
424 frequencies 6Hz and 8Hz, we used temporal smoothing of 4Hz and time windows of 150ms to
425 650ms and 212ms to 587ms, respectively. Figure 5D-E shows the decoding accuracies of all the
426 sources projected on surface template MNI brains, thresholded to retain only those voxels with
427 the 10% of the highest accuracies (for the corresponding mean and individual decoding accuracies,
428 see Figure 6). For the 6 Hz signal, the highest decoding accuracies were found bilaterally in the
429 LOTC, extending into the inferior temporal gyrus and the superior temporal gyrus in the right
430 hemisphere, and the left superior parietal cortex, extending into the inferior parietal cortex
431 (Figure 5D, left panel; see Table 2 for MNI coordinates of the peak voxel in each cluster). The
432 highest decoding accuracies for the 8Hz signal were located in the left LOTC (Figure 5D, right
433 panel), slightly anterior to the source identified at 6Hz.

434 Regarding the sources related to the decoding obtained in the late time window, we chose 900 ms
435 as time of interest for the frequencies 10Hz and 18Hz (time windows: 600-1200ms and 678-
436 112ms, respectively; smoothing: 3Hz). For the 10 Hz signal, we obtained the highest decoding
437 accuracies in right precentral gyrus (Figure 5E, left panel). For the 18Hz signal, we obtained highest
438 decoding accuracies in the right inferior frontal gyrus (Figure 5E, right panel).

439 << Figure 5 >>

440 << Figure 6 >>

441 << Table 2 >>

442 << Figure 7 >>

443 To show a complete overview of the temporal dynamics of the neural decoding at sensor space,
444 we plotted the decoding accuracy (expressed in t values) for separate time bins (50-150, 150-250,
445 250-350, 350-450, 450-550, 550-650 ms for the early observed decoding, Figure 8A; 350-450, 450-
446 550, 550-650, 650-750, 750-850, 850-950, 950-110 ms for the late observed decoding, Figure 8B),
447 averaged across frequency bands (theta: 2-6 Hz; low alpha: 7-9; alpha: 9-11; beta: 17-19). This
448 figure shows how the effect over posterior sensors evolves over time, and that anterior sensors do
449 not show up before around 700 ms.

450 << Figure 8 >>

451 To further evaluate the reliability of the classifier, we also used a simulation approach. Specifically,
452 we ran a Monte Carlo simulation to estimate the probability of finding an accuracy of 53.46%
453 under the null hypothesis of chance accuracy. The cross-validation partitioning scheme divided the
454 data into two independent halves (see Table 1 and Methods), with the first half containing left
455 hand rightwards and right hand leftwards trials, and the second half containing right hand
456 rightwards and left hand leftwards trials. In each independent half, there were two folds, with a
457 minimum of 136 trials (across participants and halves) after rejecting trials with artifacts and
458 balancing the partitions so that each of the two actions occurred equally often. For each
459 participant separately, we found that the correlation of classification accuracies for the test sets in
460 two folds to be $r=0.3289$ (median across participants and the two independent halves). Thus, in
461 our simulation we used the same value as follows. For each permutation, uniformly distributed (on
462 the interval $[0, 1]$) random data was generated for two independent halves, two folds, 136
463 samples, 17 participants. To assess the effect of dependency we used 3 sets of independently
464 normally distributed data i_1 , i_2 and i_{common} . To match the correlation between accuracies, for each
465 independent half of the data, data was made dependent through $d_1 = i_1 * \gamma + i_{\text{common}} * (1 - \gamma)$ and $d_2 =$
466 $i_2 * \gamma + i_{\text{common}} * (1 - \gamma)$, with $\gamma=0.415$ found through binary search to match the correlation ($r=0.3289$)
467 across dependent folds as observed in the original data. For each iteration, classification accuracy

468 was simulated by dividing the number of samples that exceeded 0.5 in d_1 and d_2 by the number of
469 samples. 0.5 was subtracted to obtain classification accuracies relative to chance.

470 To assess the effect of independence, we also ran the same analysis setting $\gamma=0$ (corresponding to
471 $r=0$, i.e. full independence between folds), and $\gamma=1$ (corresponding to $r=1$, i.e. full dependence
472 between folds).

473 We used 100,000 iterations and found that the maximum classification accuracies found in the
474 data (using $r=0.3289$ for fold correlation) was significant, $P_{MC,sensor, r=0.3289} < 0.00001$; for the latter,
475 no iteration showed a higher mean than that observed in the data (Figure 9). We obtained similar
476 results for the additionally simulated cases of fully independent folds ($r=0$), $p_{sensor, r=0.00} < 0.00001$,
477 and dependent folds ($r=1$), $p_{sensor, r=1.00} < 0.00001$.

478 << Figure 9 >>

479

480

481 **Discussion**

482 Using MVPA of MEG data, we found that LOTC has the earliest access to abstract action
483 representations. By contrast, precentral regions, though recruited relatively early, have access to
484 abstract action representations substantially later than LOTC. Behavioral data indicated that
485 participants were not able to distinguish between the two actions before 233 ms, and this latency
486 is comparable with the one observed in LOTC.

487 **Early abstract action representations in occipito-temporal and parietal regions**

488 Although MEG has a lower spatial resolution than fMRI, we can confidently say, based on the
489 topographical results and source analysis, that the source that accounted for the decoding effect
490 we found at the early stage was located within the left and right LOTC. LOTC hosts regions
491 sensitive to body parts, kinematics, body postures, manipulable objects, and observed movements
492 (Valyear and Culham, 2010; Downing and Peelen, 2011; Buxbaum et al., 2014; Pavlidou et al.,
493 2014a, 2014b; Lingnau and Downing, 2015). LOTC has been shown to be modulated when
494 participants are required to process the meaning, in comparison to the effector, involved in an
495 action (Lingnau and Petris, 2013). Moreover, LOTC is recruited during the semantic processing of
496 verbs (e.g. Papeo et al., 2014), and lesions to this region are associated with impairments in action
497 recognition (Kalénine et al., 2010; Urgesi et al., 2014). In line with this view, a recent lesion study
498 demonstrated that lesions to primary motor, somatosensory and inferior parietal lobule were
499 accompanied by impaired action performance. By contrast, lesions to posterior LOTC were
500 associated with impaired action recognition, whereas lesions to anterior LOTC were accompanied
501 by impairments in both tasks (Tarhan et al., 2015). Taken together, these studies suggest that
502 LOTC is well suited to integrate various sources of information that are crucial for action
503 understanding.

504 Neuroimaging studies using MPVA of fMRI data have recently shown that LOTC also contains
505 abstract representations of observed actions, e.g. action representations that generalize from
506 action execution to action observation and vice versa (Oosterhof et al., 2010), that generalize
507 across viewpoint (first person, third person; see Oosterhof et al., 2012a), kinematics (Wurm &
508 Lingnau, 2015), and the object involved in the action (Wurm & Lingnau, 2015; Wurm, Ariani,
509 Greenlee, & Lingnau, 2015). Importantly, our study shows that such abstract representations are
510 available before observing this kind of representation in precentral regions, around the time when
511 there is enough information in the stimuli to distinguish between the two types of actions. Our
512 findings are compatible with cognitive theories of action understanding that predict the earliest

513 encoding of the meaning of an action outside the motor system. By contrast, our results are not
514 compatible with motor theories of action understanding that would predict the earliest access to
515 abstract action representations in precentral regions.

516 The fact that we observed abstract action representations in LOTC earlier than in precentral
517 regions is compatible with a framework suggested by Kilner (2011). According to this view, the
518 middle temporal gyrus (MTG) in the LOTC and the anterior portion of the IFG (aIFG) encode the
519 most likely goal or intention of an action (e.g. grasping an object), which is communicated to the
520 posterior portion of the IFG, where the most likely action is selected. In this framework, the role of
521 the posterior IFG would be to generate a concrete instance of the action (e.g. grasping an object
522 on the left using the right hand) through motor simulation. In contrast to motor theories of action
523 understanding, the role of this motor simulation would not be to provide access to the meaning of
524 the action, but rather to contribute to the generation of the predicted sensory consequences of
525 the most likely action.

526 We observed abstract action representations at around 400 ms in the left SPL as well, extending
527 into the inferior parietal lobule (IPL). This result is in line with previous monkey (Fogassi et al.,
528 2005; Rizzolatti et al., 2014) and human fMRI studies (Grafton and Hamilton, 2007; Oosterhof et
529 al., 2010, 2012b; Leshinskaya and Caramazza, 2015; Wurm and Lingnau, 2015; Wurm et al., 2015)
530 suggesting that, similar to LOTC, this region contains abstract action representations. The
531 observation that IPL/SPL has access to abstract action earlier than precentral regions, raises the
532 possibility that this region might play an intermediate role between LOTC and precentral regions
533 (see also Wurm et al., 2015). In line with this view, Pavlidou et al (2014b) demonstrated that the
534 difference between plausible and implausible actions is first obtained over left temporal sensors,
535 followed by parieto-occipital and sensorimotor sensors.

536 **Late abstract action representations in precentral regions**

537 The contrast *observation vs baseline* showed a modulation of the high alpha and beta frequency
538 bands over central sensors during passive action observation (Figure 4E), an effect that has been
539 suggested to be related to sensorimotor processing in motor and premotor regions (Pineda, 2005).
540 Although we observed an early modulation of high alpha and beta frequencies in precentral
541 regions for observation versus baseline, these regions had access to abstract representations of
542 the observed actions substantially later than the time at which the actions were distinguishable.
543 This finding makes a determinant role of precentral regions in action understanding implausible. In

544 line with this view, damage to precentral regions does not necessarily impair the ability to
545 understand actions (Negri et al., 2007; Kalénine et al., 2010; but see Pazzaglia et al., 2008). If
546 precentral regions do not play a determinant role in action understanding, what could be the
547 alternative role of the late abstract action representations we obtained in these regions? Since
548 LOTC and precentral regions are functionally interconnected (Kilner, 2011; Nelissen et al., 2011;
549 Turken and Dronkers, 2011; Engel et al., 2013; Papeo et al., 2014), higher-level representations in
550 precentral regions have been suggested to be a result of information spreading throughout the
551 network (Mahon and Caramazza, 2008). Instead of providing access to the meaning of an action,
552 precentral regions thus might be recruited to plan an appropriate movement in response to the
553 observed action as a consequence or in parallel to the process of action understanding.

554 **Potential caveats**

555 One potential limitation regarding the interpretation of our results is related with the fact that one
556 of the main distinctions between pointing and grasping, next to the pre-shaping of the hand, is the
557 number of fingers involved. It is therefore difficult to disentangle whether our classification is
558 based on the number of fingers involved in the movement, the pre-shaping of the hand while
559 approaching the target, or a combination of the two. Note that pointing and grasping movements
560 are defined both by the number of fingers involved and by the hand configuration; in other words,
561 understanding actions could rely on the number of used fingers as well as on an examination of
562 the pre-shaping of the hand.

563 Another possible criticism could be that we were able to distinguish between the two movements
564 based on the MEG signal as early as 150 ms, which seems counterintuitive given that the mean
565 movement onset in the videos was around 191 ms. There are several not mutually exclusive
566 explanations for this observation. First, movements started before 150 ms in 43.8% of the videos
567 (see Material and Methods). By contrast, the peak of decoding from the MEG signal was obtained
568 at around 300 ms. Second, we had to apply a certain amount of temporal smoothing during time-
569 frequency computation and during the searchlight analysis (see Materials and Methods).
570 Consequently, when the algorithm analyzes the time bin at 150 ms, it also considers information
571 present at 200 and 250 ms, which contained more information about movement type. This means
572 that the absolute latency at which the two actions can be distinguished based on the MEG signal
573 has to be interpreted with a grain of salt. Importantly, we do not aim to draw strong conclusions
574 regarding the *absolute* onset at which movements can be decoded in the different regions, but
575 rather about the *relative* difference between putative regions involved in action understanding.

576 Thus, our conclusion still holds: LOTC encodes abstract representation of actions earlier than
577 precentral regions.

578 One might argue that although we observed the strongest source in the early time window within
579 LOTC, the source analysis also revealed a small left frontal region. This frontal source is very likely
580 generated by a single temporal source, in line with the observation that no frontal sensors showed
581 significant decoding in this early time window (Figure 8). Note that the absence of a frontal source
582 in the early time window does not prove that such a source does not exist. What we can state with
583 a certain confidence, though, is that the same analysis that revealed a strong and reliable source in
584 LOTC did not reveal any frontal source in the early time window.

585 **Conclusion**

586 Our results demonstrate that LOTC has access to abstract action representations substantially
587 earlier than precentral regions, in line with the idea that action understanding occurs outside the
588 motor system, with subsequent activation of precentral regions due to information provided from
589 LOTC. Our results therefore provide important constraints for biologically plausible models of
590 action understanding.

591

592 **References**

- 593 Brainard DH (1997) The Psychophysics Toolbox. *Spat Vis* 10:433–436.
- 594 Buxbaum LJ, Shapiro AD, Coslett HB (2014) Critical brain regions for tool-related and imitative
595 actions: a componential analysis. *Brain* 137:1971–1985.
- 596 Caggiano V, Giese M, Thier P, Casile A (2014) Encoding of point of view during action observation
597 in the local field potentials of macaque area F5. *Eur J Neurosci*:1–11.
- 598 Caramazza A, Anzellotti S, Strnad L, Lingnau A (2014) Embodied Cognition and Mirror Neurons: A
599 Critical Assessment. *Annu Rev Neurosci* 37:1–15.
- 600 Cattaneo L, Sandrini M, Schwarzbach J (2010) State-dependent TMS reveals a hierarchical
601 representation of observed acts in the temporal, parietal, and premotor cortices. *Cereb*
602 *Cortex* 20:2252–2258.
- 603 Cochin S, Barthelemy C, Roux S, Martineau J (1999) Observation and execution of movement:
604 similarities demonstrated by quantified electroencephalography. *Eur J Neurosci* 11:1839–
605 1842.
- 606 Dinstein I, Thomas C, Behrmann M, Heeger DJ (2008) A mirror up to nature. *Curr Biol* 18:R13–R18.
- 607 Downing PE, Peelen M V (2011) The role of occipitotemporal body-selective regions in person
608 perception. *Cogn Neurosci* 2:186–203.
- 609 Engel AK, Maye A, Kurthen M, König P (2013) Where’s the action? The pragmatic turn in cognitive
610 science. *Trends Cogn Sci* 17.
- 611 Fogassi L, Ferrari PF, Gesierich B, Rozzi S, Chersi F, Rizzolatti G (2005) Parietal lobe: from action
612 organization to intention understanding. *Science* 308:662–667.
- 613 Frenkel-Toledo S, Bentin S, Perry A, Liebermann DG, Soroker N (2013) Dynamics of the EEG power
614 in the frequency and spatial domains during observation and execution of manual
615 movements. *Brain Res* 1509:43–57.
- 616 Grafton ST, Hamilton AFDC (2007) Evidence for a distributed hierarchy of action representation in
617 the brain. *Hum Mov Sci* 26:590–616.
- 618 Gross J, Kujala J, Hamalainen M, Timmermann L, Schnitzler A, Salmelin R (2001) Dynamic imaging
619 of coherent sources: Studying neural interactions in the human brain. *PNAS* 98:694–699.
- 620 Hamilton AFDC, Grafton ST (2006) Goal representation in human anterior intraparietal sulcus. *J*
621 *Neurosci* 26:1133–1137.
- 622 Hamilton AFDC, Grafton ST (2008) Action outcomes are represented in human inferior
623 frontoparietal cortex. *Cereb Cortex* 18:1160–1168.
- 624 Hari R (2006) Action-perception connection and the cortical mu rhythm. *Prog Brain Res* 159:253–
625 260.

- 626 Hauk O, Shtyrov Y, Pulvermüller F (2008) The time course of action and action-word
627 comprehension in the human brain as revealed by neurophysiology. *J Physiol Paris* 102:50–
628 58.
- 629 Haxby J V, Gobbini MI, Furey ML, Ishai A, Schouten JL, Pietrini P (2001) Distributed and overlapping
630 representations of faces and objects in ventral temporal cortex. *Science* 293:2425–2430.
- 631 Jensen O, Tesche CD (2002) Frontal theta activity in humans increases with memory load in a
632 working memory task. *Eur J Neurosci* 15:1395–1399.
- 633 Kalénine S, Buxbaum LJ, Coslett HB (2010) Critical brain regions for action recognition: lesion
634 symptom mapping in left hemisphere stroke. *Brain* 133:3269–3280.
- 635 Kiefer M, Pulvermüller F (2012) Conceptual representations in mind and brain: theoretical
636 developments, current evidence and future directions. *Cortex* 48:805–825.
- 637 Kilner JM (2011) More than one pathway to action understanding. *Trends Cogn Sci* 15:352–357.
- 638 Kilner JM, Kraskov A, Lemon RN (2014) Do monkey F5 mirror neurons show changes in firing rate
639 during repeated observation of natural actions ? *J Neurophysiol* 111:1214–1226.
- 640 Kriegeskorte N, Goebel R, Bandettini P (2006) Information-based functional brain mapping. *PNAS*
641 103:3863–3868.
- 642 Leshinskaya A, Caramazza A (2015) Abstract categories of functions in anterior parietal lobe.
643 *Neuropsychologia*:1–13.
- 644 Lingnau A, Downing PE (Bangor U/ S of P (2015) The lateral occipitotemporal cortex in action.
645 *Trends Cogn Sci*.
- 646 Lingnau A, Petris S (2013) Action understanding within and outside the motor system: the role of
647 task difficulty. *Cereb Cortex* 23:1342–1350.
- 648 Mahon BZ, Caramazza A (2008) A critical look at the embodied cognition hypothesis and a new
649 proposal for grounding conceptual content. *J Physiol Paris* 102:59–70.
- 650 Maris E, Oostenveld R (2007) Nonparametric statistical testing of EEG- and MEG-data. *J Neurosci*
651 *Methods* 164:177–190.
- 652 Mur M, Bandettini P a, Kriegeskorte N (2009) Revealing representational content with pattern-
653 information fMRI--an introductory guide. *Soc Cogn Affect Neurosci* 4:101–109.
- 654 Negri GAL, Rumiati RI, Zadini A, Ukmar M, Mahon BZ, Caramazza A (2007) What is the role of
655 motor simulation in action and object recognition? Evidence from apraxia. *Cogn*
656 *Neuropsychol* 24:795–816.
- 657 Nelissen K, Borra E, Gerbella M, Rozzi S, Luppino G, Vanduffel W, Rizzolatti G, Orban G a (2011)
658 Action observation circuits in the macaque monkey cortex. *J Neurosci* 31:3743–3756.
- 659 Nolte G (2003) The magnetic lead field theorem in the quasi-static approximation and its use for

- 660 magnetoencephalography forward calculation in realistic volume conductors. *Phys Med Biol*
661 48:3637–3652.
- 662 Oostenveld R, Fries P, Maris E, Schoffelen J-M (2011) FieldTrip: Open source software for advanced
663 analysis of MEG, EEG, and invasive electrophysiological data. *Comput Intell Neurosci*
664 2011:156869.
- 665 Oosterhof NN, Connolly AC, Haxby J V. (in preparation) CoSMoMVPA: multi-modal multivariate
666 pattern analysis of neuroimaging data in Matlab / GNU Octave. Toolbox available from
667 <http://cosmomvpa.org>.
- 668 Oosterhof NN, Tipper SP, Downing PE (2012a) Viewpoint (in)dependence of action
669 representations: an MVPA study. *J Cogn Neurosci* 24:975–989.
- 670 Oosterhof NN, Tipper SP, Downing PE (2012b) Visuo-motor imagery of specific manual actions: a
671 multi-variate pattern analysis fMRI study. *Neuroimage* 63:262–271.
- 672 Oosterhof NN, Tipper SP, Downing PE (2013) Crossmodal and action-specific: neuroimaging the
673 human mirror neuron system. *Trends Cogn Sci* 17:311–318.
- 674 Oosterhof NN, Wiggett AJ, Diedrichsen J, Tipper SP, Downing PE (2010) Surface-based information
675 mapping reveals crossmodal vision-action representations in human parietal and
676 occipitotemporal cortex. *J Neurophysiol* 104:1077–1089.
- 677 Papeo L, Lingnau A, Agosta S, Pascual-Leone A, Battelli L, Caramazza A (2014) The Origin of Word-
678 related Motor Activity. *Cereb Cortex*:1–8.
- 679 Pavlidou A, Schnitzler A, Lange J (2014a) Interactions between visual and motor areas during the
680 recognition of plausible actions as revealed by magnetoencephalography. *Hum Brain Mapp*
681 35:581–592.
- 682 Pavlidou A, Schnitzler A, Lange J (2014b) Distinct spatio-temporal profiles of beta-oscillations
683 within visual and sensorimotor areas during action recognition as revealed by MEG. *Cortex*
684 54:106–116.
- 685 Pazzaglia M, Smania N, Corato E, Aglioti SM (2008) Neural underpinnings of gesture discrimination
686 in patients with limb apraxia. *J Neurosci* 28:3030–3041.
- 687 Pereira F, Mitchell TM, Botvinick MM (2009) Machine learning classifiers and fMRI: a tutorial
688 overview. *Neuroimage* 45:S199–S209.
- 689 Pfurtscheller G, Lopes da Silva F (1999) Event-related EEG/MEG synchronization and
690 desynchronization: basic principles. *Clin Neurophysiol* 110:1842–1857.
- 691 Pineda J a (2005) The functional significance of mu rhythms: translating “seeing” and “hearing”
692 into “doing”. *Brain Res Brain Res Rev* 50:57–68.
- 693 Pulvermüller F (2005) Brain mechanisms linking language and action. *Nat Rev Neurosci* 6:576–582.
- 694 Rizzolatti G, Cattaneo L, Fabbri-Destro M, Rozzi S (2014) Cortical mechanisms underlying the

695 organization of goal-directed actions and mirror neuron-based action understanding. *Physiol*
696 *Rev* 94:655–706.

697 Rizzolatti G, Fogassi L, Gallese V (2001) Neurophysiological mechanisms underlying the
698 understanding and imitation of action. *Nat Rev Neurosci* 2:661–670.

699 Schwarzbach J (2011) A simple framework (ASF) for behavioral and neuroimaging experiments
700 based on the psychophysics toolbox for MATLAB. *Behav Res Methods* 43:1194–1201.

701 Tarhan LY, Watson CE, Buxbaum LJ (2015) Shared and Distinct Neuroanatomic Regions Critical for
702 Tool-related Action Production and Recognition: Evidence from 131 Left-hemisphere Stroke
703 Patients. *J Cogn Neurosci*:1–21.

704 Turken AU, Dronkers NF (2011) The neural architecture of the language comprehension network:
705 converging evidence from lesion and connectivity analyses. *Front Syst Neurosci* 5:1.

706 Tzourio-Mazoyer N, Landeau B, Papathanassiou D, Crivello F, Etard O, Delcroix N, Mazoyer B, Joliot
707 M (2002) Automated anatomical labeling of activations in SPM using a macroscopic
708 anatomical parcellation of the MNI MRI single-subject brain. *Neuroimage* 15:273–289.

709 Urgesi C, Candidi M, Avenanti A (2014) Neuroanatomical substrates of action perception and
710 understanding: an anatomic likelihood estimation meta-analysis of lesion-symptom mapping
711 studies in brain injured patients. *Front Hum Neurosci* 8:344.

712 Valyear KF, Culham JC (2010) Observing learned object-specific functional grasps preferentially
713 activates the ventral stream. *J Cogn Neurosci* 22:970–984.

714 Van Essen DC (2005) A Population-Average, Landmark- and Surface-based (PALS) atlas of human
715 cerebral cortex. *Neuroimage* 28:635–662.

716 Van Essen DC, Drury HA, Dickson J, Harwell J, Hanlon D, Anderson CH (2001) An Integrated
717 Software Suite for Surface-based Analyses of Cerebral Cortex. *J Am Med Informatics Assoc*
718 8:443–459.

719 Wurm MF, Ariani G, Greenlee MW, Lingnau A (2015) Decoding Concrete and Abstract Action
720 Representations During Explicit and Implicit Conceptual Processing. *Cereb Cortex*:bhv169.

721 Wurm MF, Lingnau A (2015) Decoding Actions at Different Levels of Abstraction. *J Neurosci*
722 35:7727–7735.

723

724 **Figure Legends**

725 **Figure 1. Example of a trial sequence and experimental design.** **A:** During MEG recording, N = 17
726 participants watched video clips of simple ‘reach-to-point’ or ‘reach-to-grasp’ movements
727 (duration: 833 ms). Participants were instructed to fixate on a central fixation cross while
728 attentively observing the entire video without performing any movements. To ensure that
729 participants paid attention to the videos, different types of questions were asked during
730 occasional catch trials that were later discarded from the analysis (for details, see Material and
731 Methods). The green fixation cross indicated the period during which participants were allowed
732 to blink. Eye movements were recorded using an MEG-compatible eye-tracker. **B:** We used a
733 2x2x2 design, manipulating the type of movement (pointing/ grasping), reach direction (left/
734 right), and effector (left/right hand).

735 **Figure 2. Feature selection.** Schematic representation of the method we adopted for selecting the
736 features used for the multivariate analysis. Here we show one specific step of the algorithm
737 with the selected central sensor (black dotted circle) with one neighboring sensor only (gray
738 dotted circle) for illustrative purpose. Panel A shows the time-frequency representations (colors
739 indicate power intensity) in the posterior sensors of the MEG helmet in two conditions of
740 interest (condition A and B). The arrows starting from the circles indicate the corresponding
741 magnified sensors. Panel B shows enlarged views of the two example sensors for condition A
742 and B. The dotted rectangles illustrate an example time-frequency bin (2 neighboring bins per
743 side for the time dimension; 4 neighboring bins per side for the frequency dimension; see the
744 Methods section for details). For feature selection, for each time-frequency bin, we scanned
745 each individual sensor with its 10 neighboring sensors. Panel B shows a matrix representation
746 of the specific sensor/frequency/time bins. We then rearranged the dimensions of the matrix
747 from 3D to 1D to obtain the corresponding feature vectors for condition A and B (Panel C). The
748 feature vectors were used as input for the decoding analysis over sensors, frequency, and time.
749 Specifically, the feature vectors were partitioned in independent chunks and used for training
750 and testing the classifier. In the depicted example, each feature within the matrices was
751 assigned with a number to show the same feature within the feature vectors for visualization
752 purposes.

753 **Figure 3. Behavioral results.** Behavioral performance (% correct) for categorizing the two
754 observed movements (grasping, pointing) as a function of video duration, collapsed across

755 effector and reach direction. As expected, participants responded more accurately with
756 increasing video duration. Statistical analysis confirmed that participants reached above chance
757 performance in classifying the two movements from 233ms onwards (for details, see Material
758 and Methods, Statistical Analysis: Behavioral Experiment). Each dot represents data from a
759 single participant. The continuous line indicates the linear model that best fits the data.

760 **Figure 4. Theta-, alpha- and beta-band activity during action observation and univariate**
761 **contrast. A,** Time-frequency representation of the difference (expressed in t scores) between
762 grasping and pointing (collapsed across effector and reach direction) for the sensor highlighted
763 in the head model. The four dotted lines indicate the following events, from left to right: (1)
764 video onset, (2) median movement onset, (3) approximate time at which the hand touches the
765 object (around 550 ms), (4) video offset (833 ms). **B,** Same as **A**, but those time-frequency bins
766 that did not survive the permutation test with Monte Carlo and cluster-based method for
767 multiple comparisons correction were set to zero. **C, D,** Topography representation of the two
768 frequency-bands observed in **B. E,** Power change during action observation relative to baseline
769 (fixation cross) over a representative sensor. The power change was calculated as $(activation -$
770 $baseline)/baseline$, such that 1 indicates 100% increase respect to baseline and -1 indicates
771 100% decrease respect to baseline. The classical power decrease in alpha and beta bands
772 following observed movement onset (at $t=0s$) is evident.

773

774 **Figure 5. Results of the neural spatiotemporal decoding.** To identify abstract action
775 representations of the observed actions (e.g. observing “grasping” irrespective of whether it
776 was performed with the left or the right hand), we trained the MVPA classifier to discriminate
777 between pointing and grasping using one effector (e.g. the left hand) and one reach direction
778 (e.g. towards the left), and tested the performance of the classifier using an independent data
779 set, using pointing and grasping movements performed with the other hand towards the
780 opposite reach direction. We decoded the observed movements over time bins, frequency bins
781 and sensors using a time-frequency-channel searchlight analysis. **A,** The lateral plots show the
782 time-frequency representation of the decoding in sensors depicted in the inset topoplots.
783 Reddish colors indicate higher classification. Sensors were selected on the basis of the highest
784 decoding accuracy at the frequency of interest. The central inset shows the two clusters that
785 survived the correction for multiple comparisons (cluster obtained at early time point: 200 to

786 600ms; cluster obtained at late time point: 600 to 1200ms). **B**, Topography of the decoding at
787 400 ms and low frequencies (6Hz and 8Hz; smoothing: 4Hz). **C**, Topography of the decoding at
788 900 ms and higher frequencies (10Hz and 18Hz; smoothing: 3Hz). **D-E**, Sources accounting for
789 the decoding effect found at sensor level, thresholded to retain only those voxels with the 10%
790 highest decoding accuracies. For sensor level analysis only, significant differences were
791 computed using permutation analysis and Monte Carlo methods and results are cluster
792 corrected for multiple comparisons. Maps were projected on the PALS atlas (Van Essen, 2005),
793 using Caret software (Van Essen et al., 2001).

794 **Figure 6. Maximum accuracy within each region.** Within each identified source, the voxel with the
795 maximum mean accuracy was selected and plotted with individual accuracies (black dots). Left
796 MTG: Middle Temporal Gyrus (MNI: -50 -64 12); Left SPL: Superior Parietal Lobule (MNI: -20 -56
797 48); Right PCG: Precentral Gyrus (MNI: 28 -6 28); Right IFG: Inferior Frontal Gyrus (MNI: 20 24
798 28). Refer also to Table 2.

799 **Figure 7. Comparison between univariate and multivariate analyses.** Comparison between
800 univariate (top row) and multivariate (bottom row) analyses in two time windows ([200 –
801 600ms] and [600 – 1200ms]). The upper topoplots show the sensors that survived the
802 permutation test when comparing grasping vs pointing (collapsing across effector and reach
803 direction). The lower topoplots show the sensors that survived the permutation test when
804 comparing the observed accuracy of the classifier to distinguish between pointing and grasping
805 (generalizing across effector and reach direction) against chance level (50%). Multivariate
806 analysis was more sensitive in detecting the subtle differences between the neural signals
807 induced by observation of the two movement types in the earlier time window. All shown
808 clusters are corrected for multiple comparisons ($p < 0.05$).

809 **Figure 8. Neural decoding over time.** The topoplots show the dynamics of above-chance accuracy
810 (expressed as t scores) of the classifier in discriminating observed grasping and pointing
811 (generalizing across effector and reach direction) for specific frequency bands (theta: 5-7 Hz;
812 low alpha: 7-9 Hz; alpha: 9-11 Hz; beta: 17-19 Hz). The earliest significant decoding occurs in the
813 posterior part of the configuration helmet in the lower frequency bands.

814 **Figure 9. Simulation analysis.** Illustration how ‘low’ classification accuracy (53.46% for sensor
815 data; 50% is chance level) can be highly significant, using normal distribution probability plots

816 of Monte Carlo simulated classification accuracy distribution (relative to chance, 50%). The
817 simulation uses the same parameters as used in the study (17 participants, minimum after trial
818 rejection 544 trials per participant, same cross-validation scheme as used in original data).
819 Dependency across cross-validation folds was set to $r=0.3289$ (green crosses) to match the
820 value observed in the original data; for comparison, also results are shown for the cases of no
821 dependence ($r=0.00$; blue) and full dependence ($r=1.00$; orange). The maximum classification
822 accuracy above chance as observed in the original data is indicated by a black line.

823

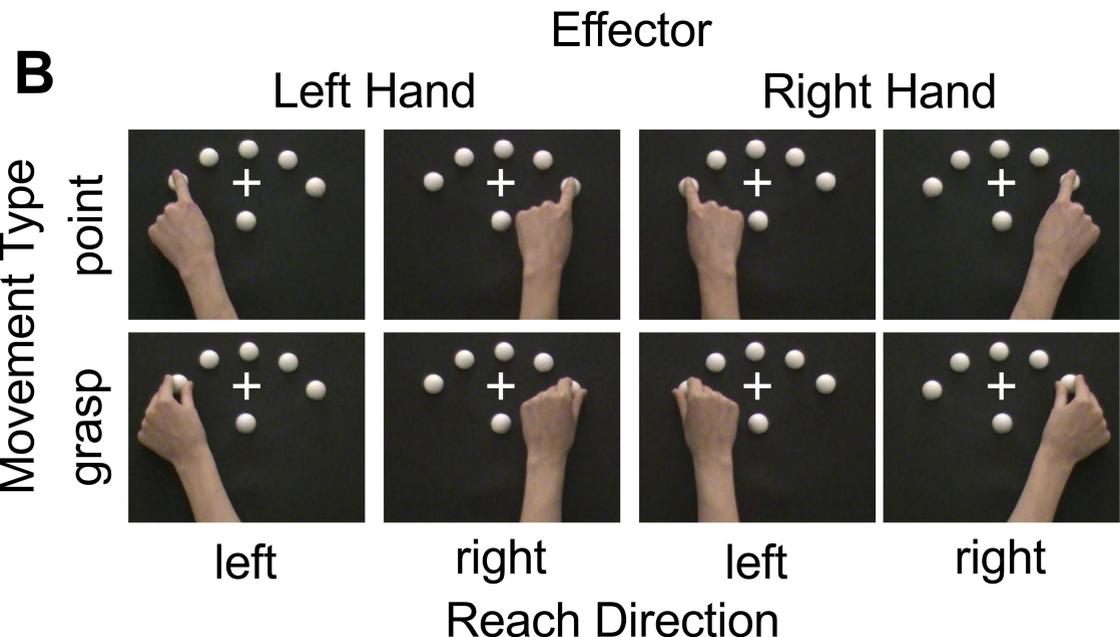
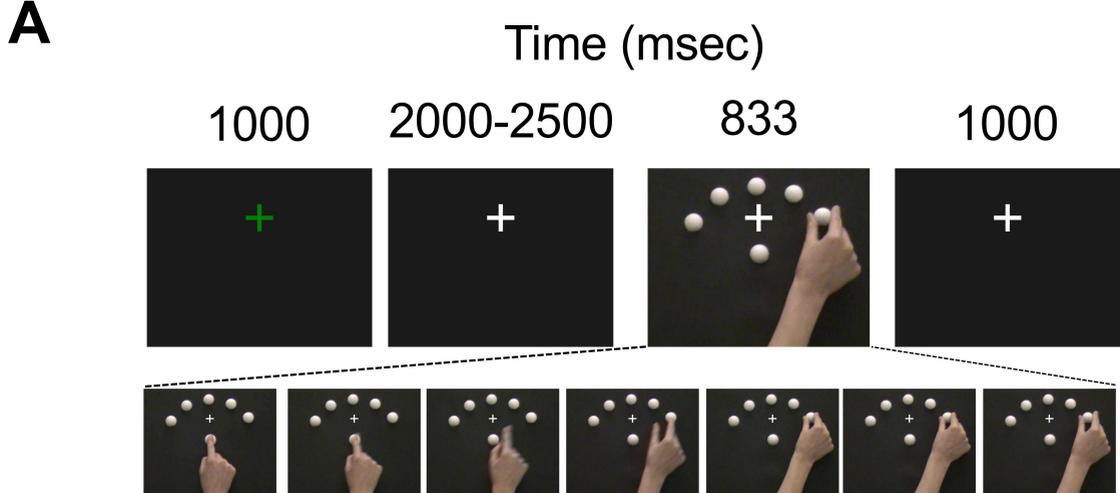
824 **Tables**

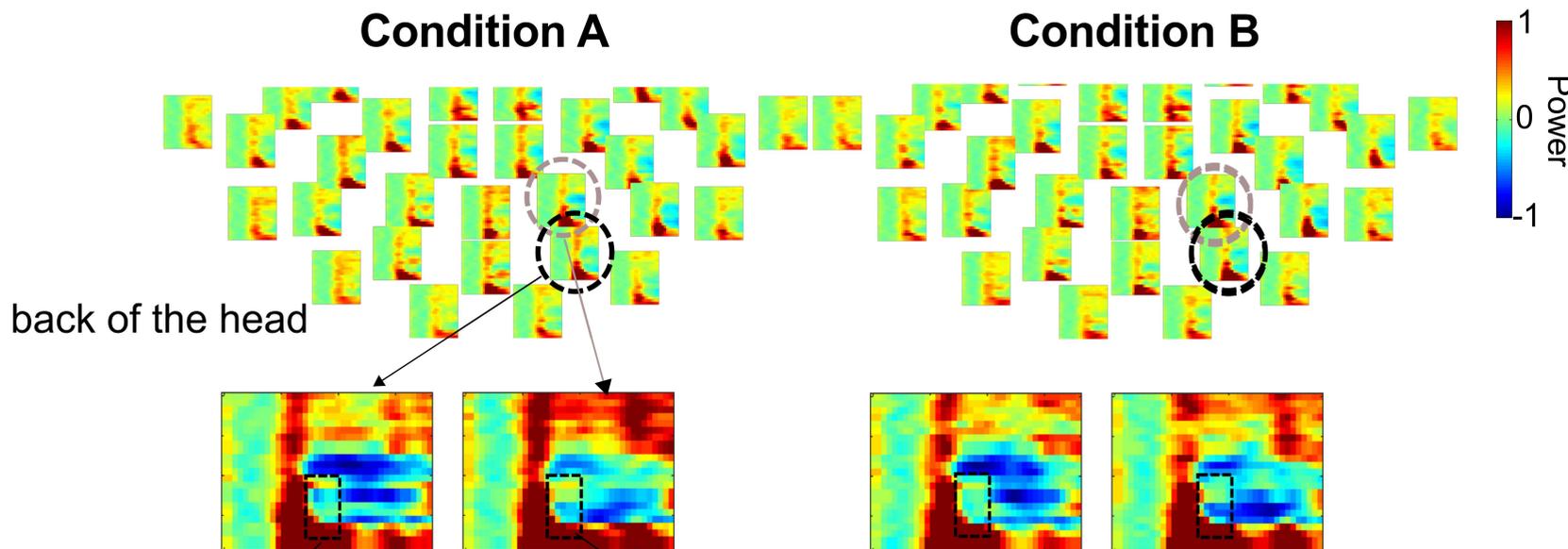
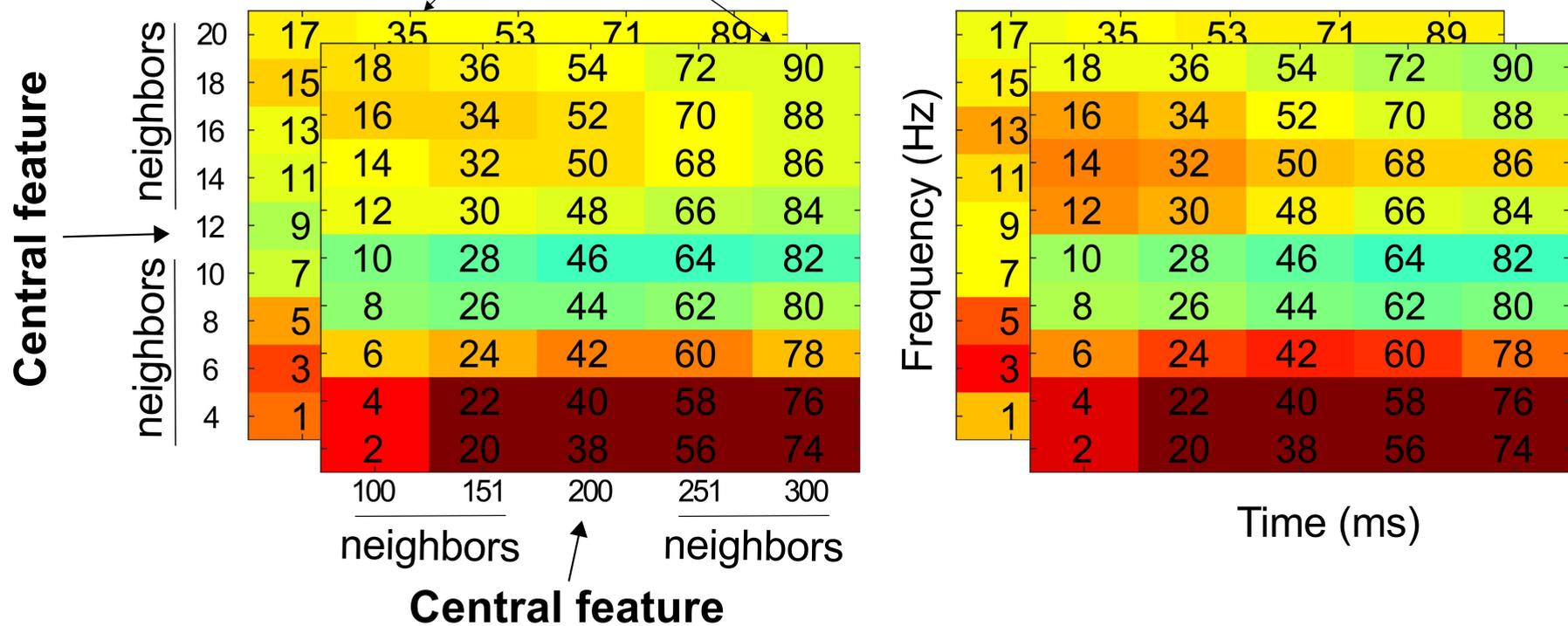
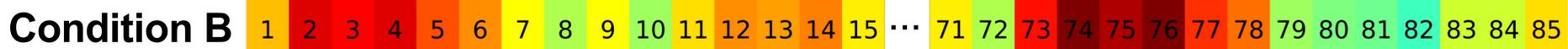
	<i>Training: pointing vs grasping</i>	<i>Testing: pointing vs grasping</i>
1	left hand, rightwards	right hand, leftwards
2	right hand, rightwards	left hand, leftwards
3	left hand, leftwards	right hand, rightwards
4	right hand, leftwards	left hand, rightwards

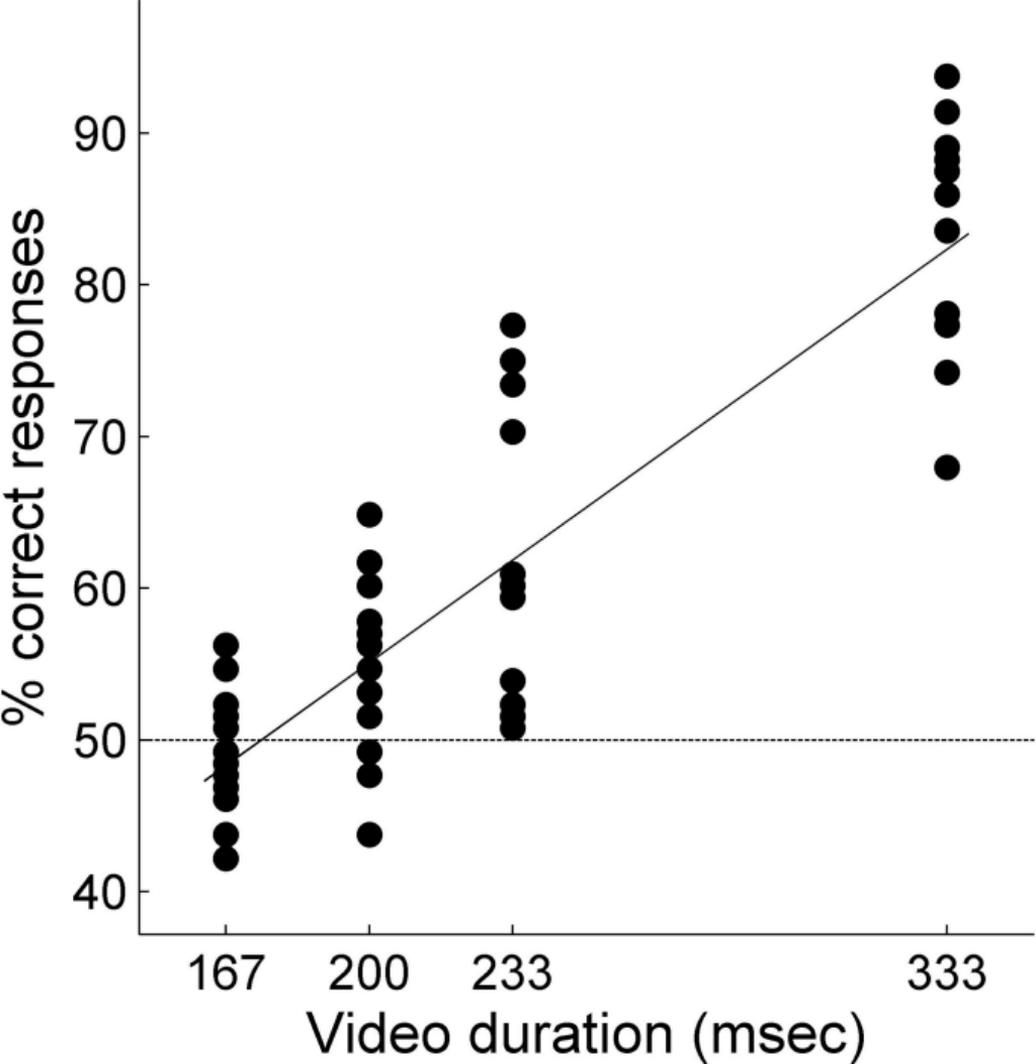
825 **Table 1. Cross-comparisons used for training and testing.** Classifiers were trained and tested in
826 the following cross-comparisons: (1) training: distinguish between observed grasping and pointing
827 actions performed with the left hand towards the left; testing: distinguish between observed
828 grasping and pointing actions performed with the right hand towards the right; (2) training:
829 distinguish between observed grasping and pointing actions performed with the right hand
830 towards the right; testing: distinguish between observed grasping and pointing actions performed
831 with the left hand towards the left; (3) training: distinguish between observed grasping and
832 pointing actions performed with the right hand towards the left; testing: distinguish between
833 observed grasping and pointing actions performed with the left hand towards the right; (4)
834 training: distinguish between observed grasping and pointing actions performed with the left hand
835 towards the right; testing: distinguish between observed grasping and pointing actions performed
836 with the right hand towards the left. In this way, the classifiers could use information related to
837 the type of movement only. The four accuracies determined with 1), 2), 3), and 4) were then
838 averaged.
839

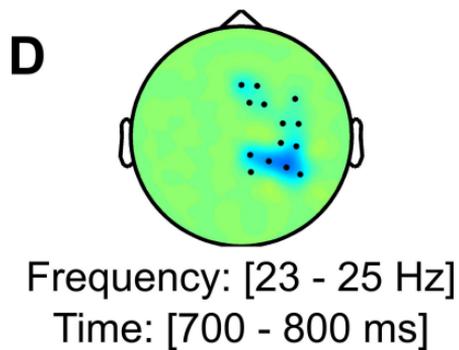
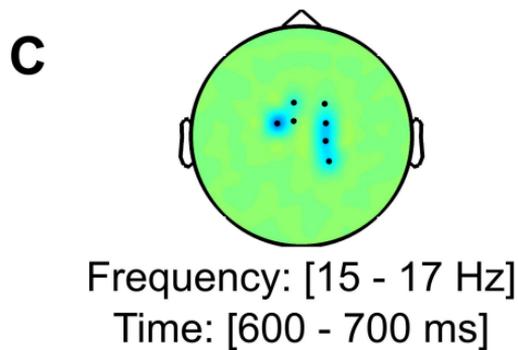
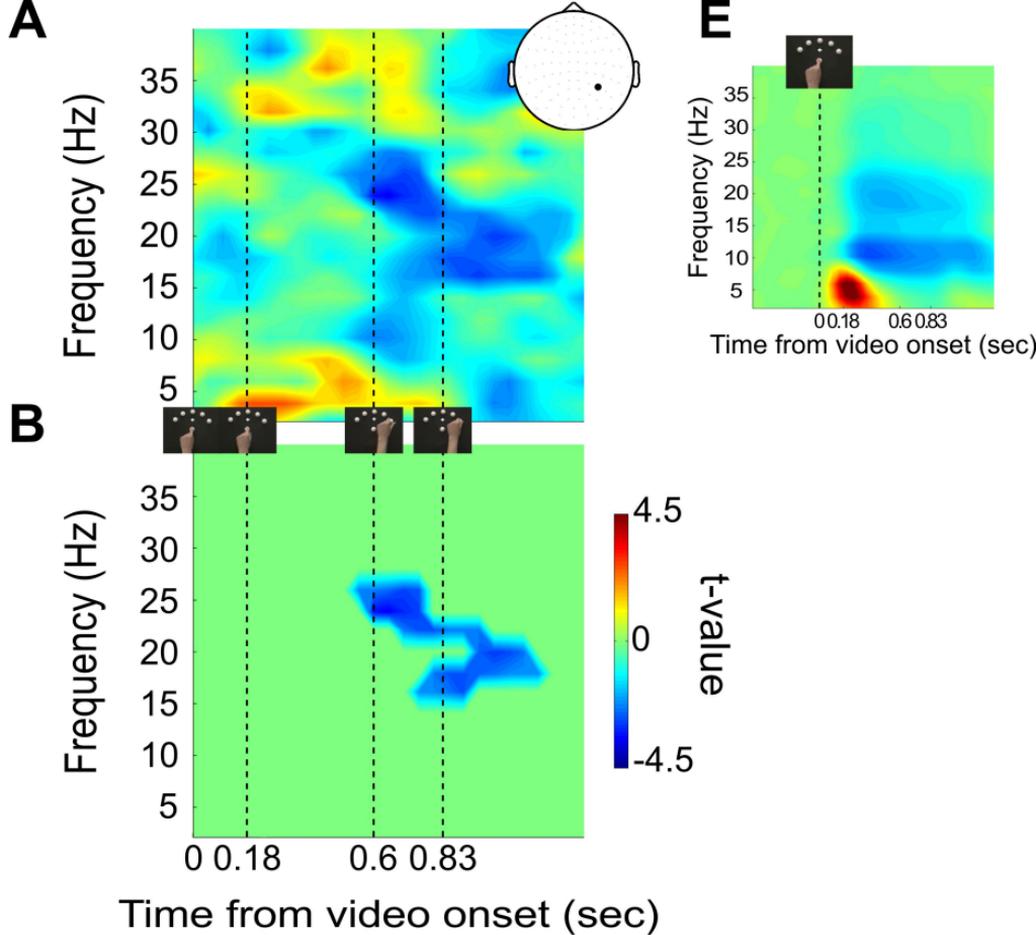
<i>Area</i>	<i>Frequency (Hz)</i>	<i>Time (msec)</i>	<i>X</i>	<i>Y</i>	<i>Z</i>
Left pITG	6	200	-52	-56	-12
Left SPL	6	400	-20	-56	48
Left pMTG	8	400	-50	-64	12
Right PCG	10	900	28	-6	28
Right IFG	18	900	20	24	28

841 **Table 2. MNI coordinates of the sources.** MNI coordinates of the sources (clusters) found in the
842 two different frequency bands, with the respective labels taken from the Anatomical Automatic
843 Labeling (AAL) database (Tzourio-Mazoyer et al., 2002). **pITG**: posterior portion of the Inferior
844 Temporal Gyrus; **pMTG**: posterior portion of the Middle Temporal Gyrus; **SPL**: Superior Parietal
845 Lobule; **IFG**: Inferior Frontal Gyrus (triangular part); **PCG**: Precentral Gyrus.

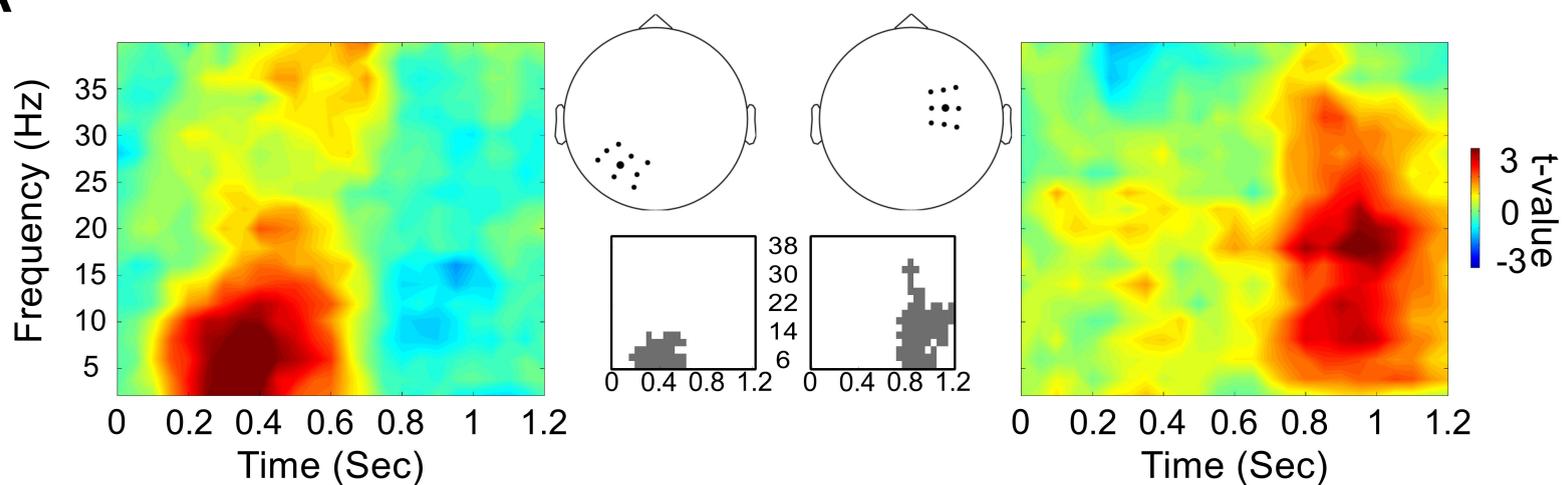
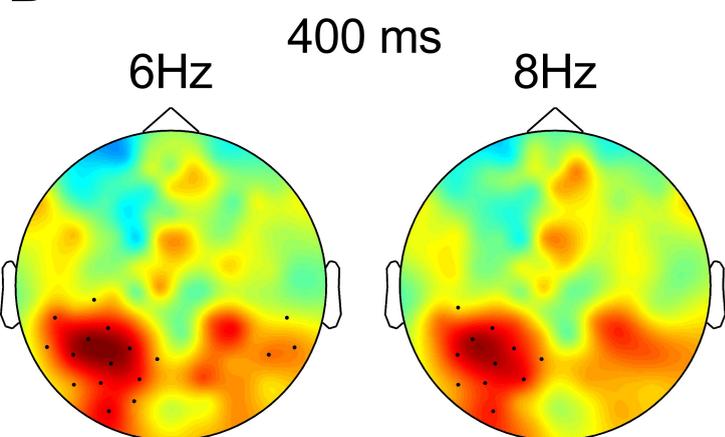
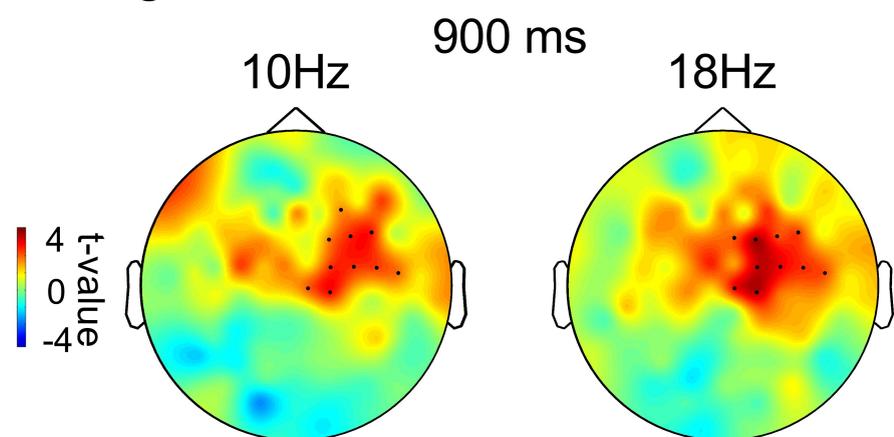
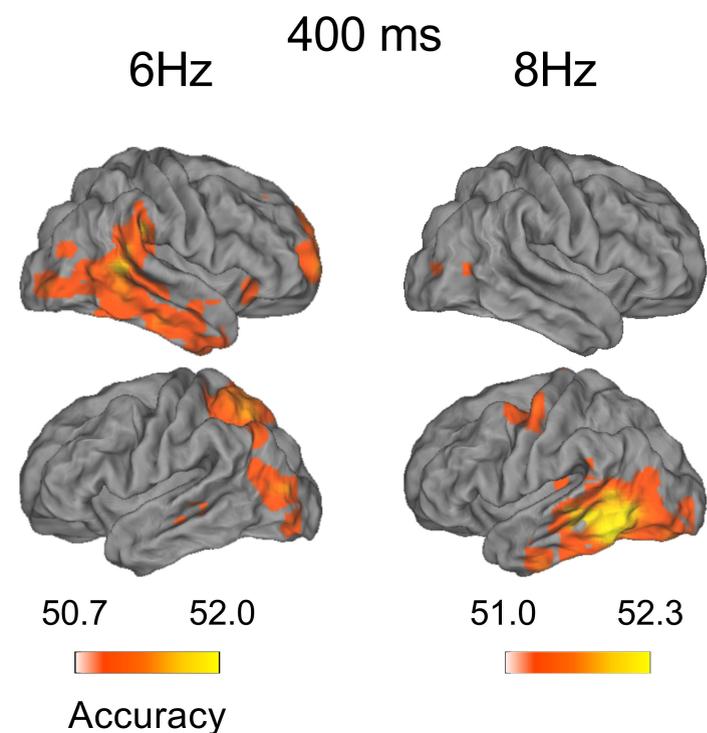
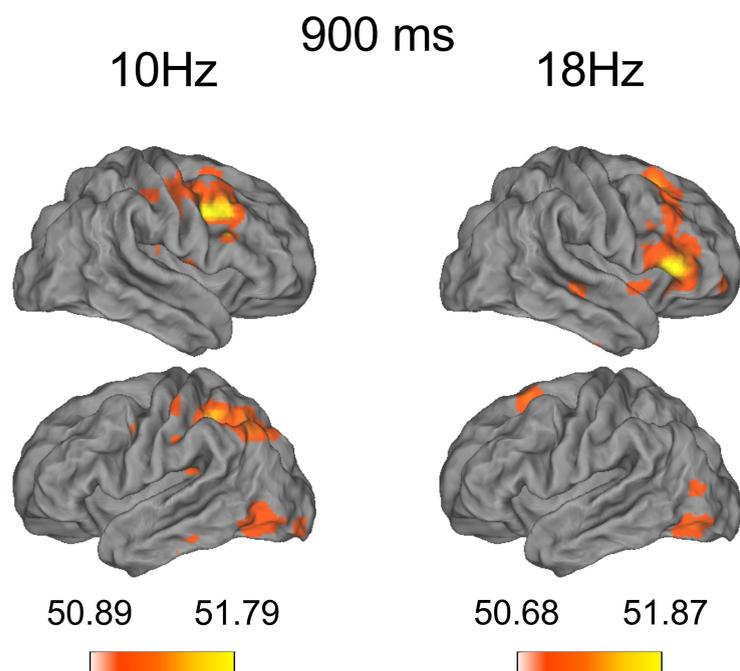


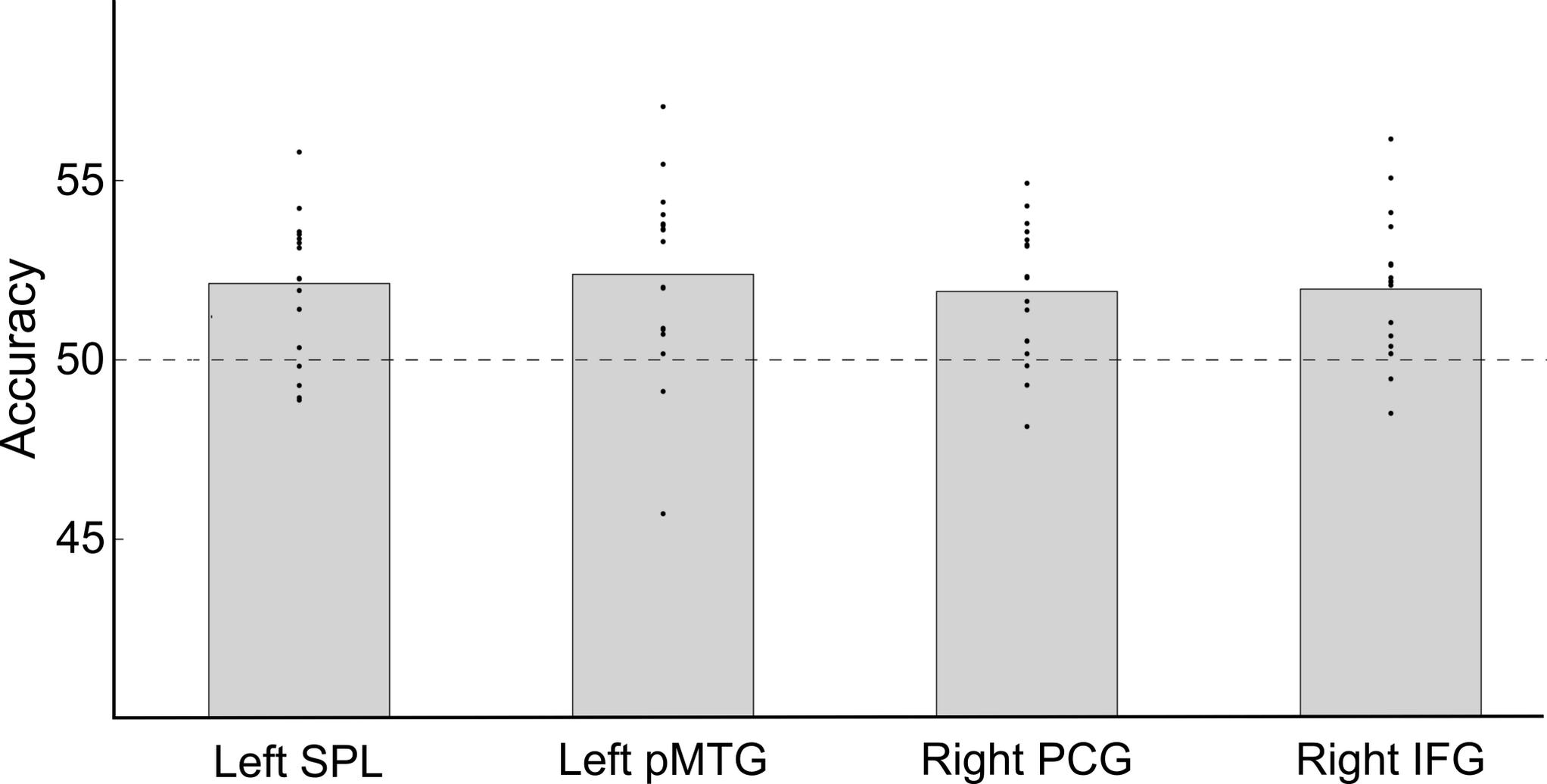
A**Sensor space****B****C****Feature vectors**





Abstract action representations: Where and When

A**B****C****D****E**

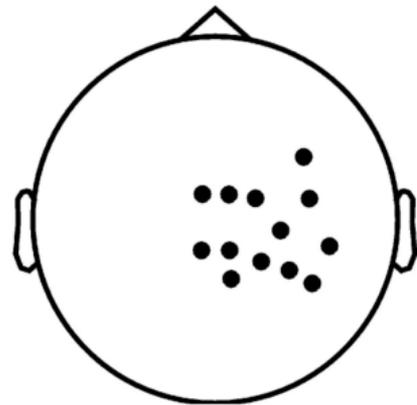
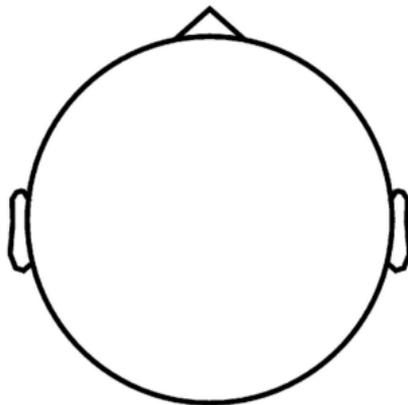


1 - 10 Hz
400 ms

10 - 20 Hz
900 ms

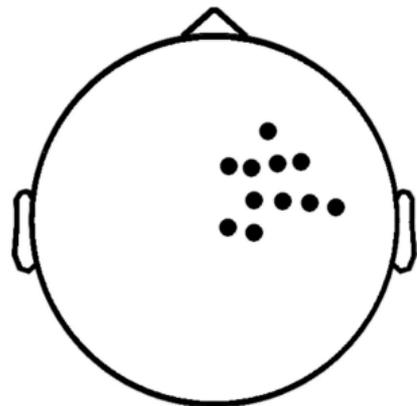
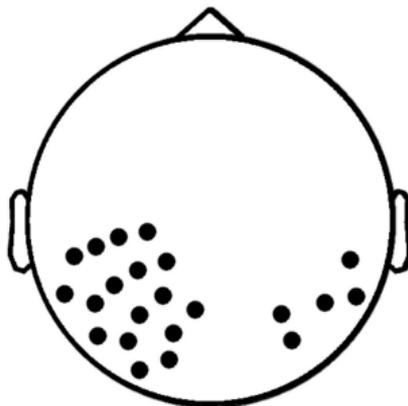
Univariate Analysis

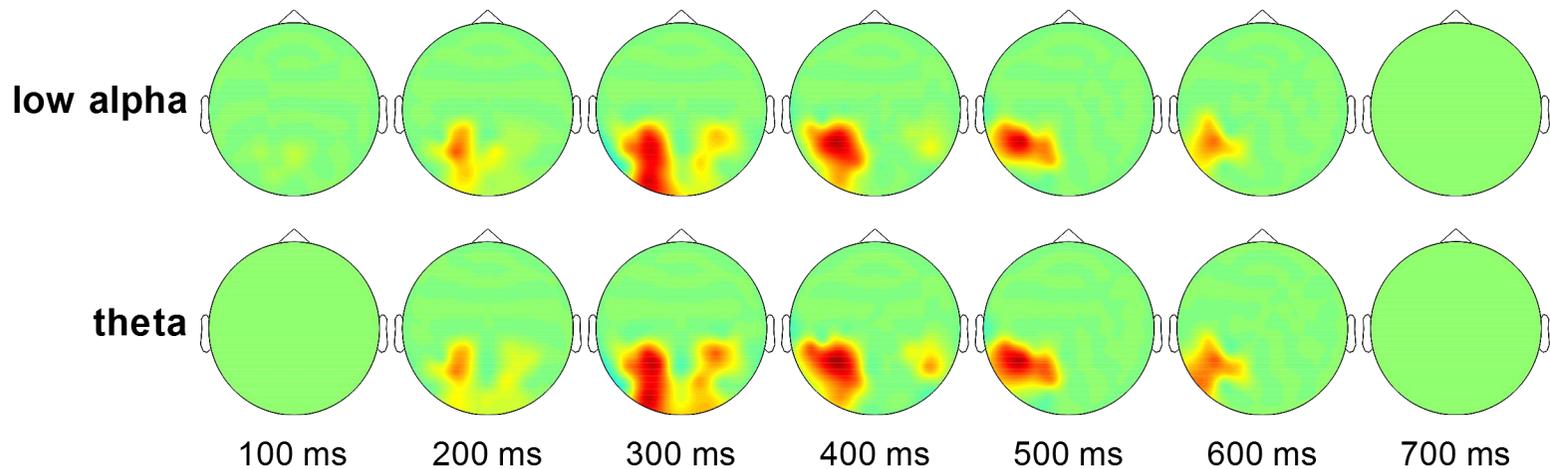
Grasping vs Pointing,
collapsing across
effector and reach direction



Multivariate Analysis

Grasping vs Pointing,
generalizing across
effector and reach direction



A**Early decoding****B****Late decoding**