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High-level language processing regions are not engaged in action observation or imitation

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Journal of Neurophysiology

DOI:

[10.1152/jn.00222.2018](https://doi.org/10.1152/jn.00222.2018)

Published: 01/11/2018

Peer reviewed version

[Cyswllt i'r cyhoeddiad / Link to publication](#)

Dyfyniad o'r fersiwn a gyhoeddwyd / Citation for published version (APA):

Pritchett, B. L., Hoeflin, C., Koldewyn, K., Dechter, E., & Fedorenko, E. (2018). High-level language processing regions are not engaged in action observation or imitation. *Journal of Neurophysiology*, 120(5), 2555-2570. <https://doi.org/10.1152/jn.00222.2018>

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1 **Title**

2 High-level language processing regions are not engaged in action observation or
3 imitation

4

5 **Abbreviated title**

6 Action response in language regions

7

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24 **Author contributions**

25 E.F. and B.P. designed research, analyzed data, and wrote the manuscript; C.H. helped
26 design, collect data for, and analyze data for Experiments 3a and 3b; K.K. and E.D.

27 helped design and collect data for Experiment 1 and provided comments on the
28 manuscript.

29

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30

31 **Abstract (234 words)**

32

33 A set of left frontal, temporal, and parietal brain regions respond robustly during
34 language comprehension and production (e.g., Fedorenko et al. 2010; Menenti et al.
35 2011). These regions have been further shown to be selective for language relative to
36 other cognitive processes, including arithmetic, aspects of executive function, and music
37 perception (e.g., Fedorenko et al. 2011; Monti et al. 2012). However, one claim about
38 overlap between language and non-linguistic cognition remains prominent. In particular,
39 some have argued that language processing shares computational demands with action
40 observation and/or execution (e.g., Rizzolatti and Arbib 1998; Koechlin and Jubault
41 2006; Tettamanti and Weniger 2006). However, the evidence for these claims is indirect,
42 based on observing activation for language and action tasks within the same broad
43 anatomical areas (e.g., on the lateral surface of the left frontal lobe). To test whether
44 language indeed shares machinery with action observation/execution, we examined the
45 responses of language brain regions, defined functionally in each individual participant
46 (Fedorenko et al. 2010), to action observation (Experiments 1, 2, 3a) and action imitation
47 (Experiment 3b). With the exception of the language region in the angular gyrus, all
48 language regions, including those in the inferior frontal gyrus (within “Broca’s area”),
49 showed little or no response during action observation/imitation. These results add to the
50 growing body of literature suggesting that high-level language regions are highly
51 selective for language processing (see Fedorenko and Varley 2016 for a review).

52

53

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54 **New & Noteworthy** (75 words)

55 Many have argued for overlap in the machinery used to interpret language and others'
56 actions, either because action observation was a precursor to linguistic communication or
57 because both require interpreting hierarchically-structured stimuli. However, existing
58 evidence is indirect, relying on group analyses or reverse inference. We examined
59 responses to action observation in language regions defined functionally in individual
60 participants and found no response. Thus, language comprehension and action
61 observation recruit distinct circuits in the modern brain.

62

63 **Introduction**

64 Although brain regions that support high-level language processing have been shown to
65 be selective for language over various non-linguistic cognitive processes (e.g., Fedorenko
66 and Varley 2016), the idea of overlap between language processing and action
67 observation and/or execution remains prominent in the literature. Two lines of theorizing
68 have been used to argue for this overlap. The first stemmed from the discovery of mirror
69 neurons in the prefrontal cortex of rhesus macaques. These neurons fire both when a
70 monkey performs an action and when it observes the action performed (Rizzolatti et al.
71 1988). Rizzolatti & Arbib (1998; Arbib 2005, 2010; see also Petrides & Pandya 2009;
72 Corballis 2010) speculated that in our primate ancestors, mirror neurons were critical for
73 understanding one another's actions – a core component of social cognition. They argued
74 that, over time, basic manual actions grew more abstract, and eventually became signs,
75 which, in turn, became mouth movements/vocalizations. Thus, manual actions are argued
76 to be a fundamental precursor to linguistic communication, and action understanding and
77 language comprehension should share a common neural substrate because they share a
78 common functional ancestor.

79 Although the general idea that language arose from gesture finds substantial
80 support (e.g., Tomasello 2008; Corballis 2003; cf. Slocombe 2015), the role of mirror
81 neurons in the evolution of language remains debated (e.g., Hickok 2009). The existence
82 of brain cells / regions with properties of the macaque mirror neuron system in humans is
83 supported by a number of studies (e.g., Mukamel et al. 2010; see Molenberghs et al. 2012
84 for a meta-analysis) but has not gone unchallenged (e.g., Dinstein et al. 2007; Lingnau et
85 al. 2009). Regardless of these controversies, however, given the prominence of the

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86 gesture-based hypothesis of language evolution, it seems important to test whether any
87 parts of the language network in the modern human brain respond to action
88 observation/execution.

89 The second general line of reasoning is that both the language system and the
90 action observation system (possibly restricted to biological actions; e.g., Clerget et al.
91 2009; Fazio et al. 2009) rely on an amodal mechanism that recognizes and produces
92 hierarchical structure (e.g., Fiebach and Schuboltz 2006; Koechlin and Jubault 2006;
93 Tettamanti and Weniger 2006). This mechanism has been argued to reside in the inferior
94 frontal gyrus (IFG), in or around “Broca’s area” (we use quotations because the definition
95 of this brain region in the literature is extremely variable, and the term has been argued
96 by some to no longer be meaningful as a result; Tremblay & Dick, 2016). However, the
97 evidence for overlap between language and action observation in the IFG is problematic
98 because the IFG is among the most structurally (e.g., Amunts et al. 2010) and
99 functionally (e.g., Fedorenko et al. 2012a) heterogeneous brain regions. Further, lateral
100 frontal lobes are characterized by high inter-individual variability (e.g., Amunts et al.
101 1999; Tomaiuolo et al. 1999; Juch et al. 2005). Thus, activation overlap between
102 language and action observation in a traditional fMRI group analysis (e.g., Higuchi et al.
103 2009), where activations are averaged across individuals, can be misleading (e.g., Nieto-
104 Castañon and Fedorenko 2012), particularly in the aforementioned regions.

105 Further, some prior studies did not even include a direct within-experiment
106 comparison between a language and an action task (e.g., Binkofsky et al. 2000; Meister
107 and Iacoboni 2007; Clerget et al. 2009) and relied solely on the fallacious reverse
108 inference (Poldrack 2006, 2011) to interpret the frontal activations for action tasks. This

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109 approach is especially problematic in this case because frontal lobes, including “Broca’s
110 area” itself (Fedorenko et al. 2012a), contain both i) language-selective regions, and ii)
111 highly domain-general ones that belong to the fronto-parietal multiple demand (MD)
112 network (e.g., Duncan 2010) and are driven by diverse cognitive demands (e.g., Duncan
113 & Owen 2000; Fedorenko et al. 2013). Thus, interpreting frontal activations for an action
114 observation task as reflecting the recruitment of the language system is not justified.
115 Similarly, although many aphasic patients with frontal lesions exhibit deficits in action
116 observation/execution (e.g., Kimura 1977; Kimura et al. 1976; Papagno et al., 1993;
117 Saygin et al. 2004), these patients’ lesions are often extensive and plausibly affect two or
118 more functionally distinct regions (cf. Sirugu et al. 1998). Thus, arguing for overlap in
119 mechanisms that support language processing and action observation based on such data
120 is also not warranted.

121 To test – in the most direct way – whether action observation/execution relies on
122 some of the same neural mechanisms as high-level language processing, we examined
123 responses to action observation and imitation in the language regions functionally defined
124 in each individual. This analytic approach circumvents the problem of high inter-
125 individual variability in the precise locations of functional regions (e.g., Fischl et al.
126 2008; Frost and Goebel 2011; Tahmasebi et al. 2011) and thus stands a chance to
127 conclusively answer the question about whether language regions support some aspects
128 of action observation. It is worth noting that this question is conceptually distinct from
129 the question that is at the core of the embodiment debate (see Leshinskaya & Caramazza
130 2016 for a recent review): namely, whether concepts are “grounded” in sensory-motor
131 systems. We elaborate further on the relationship between these questions in the

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132 Discussion.

133

134 **Materials and Methods**

135 The general approach adopted here across the four experiments is as follows: first, we
136 identify the language network in each participant individually using a functional localizer
137 task based on a broad contrast between the reading of sentences vs. sequences of
138 nonwords (Fedorenko et al. 2010). Then, we examine the engagement of these language-
139 responsive voxels in action observation/imitation across several paradigms. This
140 approach has been previously shown to yield higher sensitivity and functional resolution
141 than traditional group-based analyses, as well as more accurate estimates of effect sizes
142 (e.g., Saxe et al. 2006; Nieto-Castañon and Fedorenko 2012). Further, this approach
143 makes the results directly comparable across the four experiments.

144 It is worth emphasizing that we here focus on *high-level* language processing
145 regions, i.e., brain regions that support lexico-semantic and combinatorial (semantic and
146 syntactic) processing (e.g., Fedorenko et al. 2012b; Bautista and Wilson 2016; Blank et al.
147 2016). These regions plausibly underlie our ability to infer meanings from others'
148 linguistic utterances during comprehension as well as to convert our thoughts into
149 linguistic forms during production. This high-level language network is distinct from
150 both lower-level *perceptual* regions that respond selectively to speech, but are not
151 sensitive to the meaningfulness of the speech signal (e.g., Overath et al. 2015; Norman-
152 Haignere et al. 2015) and lower-level *speech articulation* regions that respond robustly
153 when we produce speech sounds, but again are not sensitive to the meaningfulness of the
154 utterance (e.g., Bohland and Guenther, 2006; Flinker et al. 2015; Basilakos et al. 2017).

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155 Thus, our main conclusions pertain to the high-level component of the extended language
156 network. We return to this issue in the Results section.

157

158 **Participants.** Participants were recruited from MIT and the surrounding
159 Cambridge/Boston, MA community and were paid for their participation. Eleven
160 participants were tested in Experiment 1, 57 in Experiment 2, 13 in Experiment 3a, and
161 16 in Experiment 3b. Seven participants were excluded (3 for excessive motion – all in
162 Experiment 3b, 2 for equipment failure, 1 because an incorrect scanner sequence was
163 used, and 1 due to experimenter error), leaving 90 participants for analysis (10 in
164 Experiment 1, 54 in Experiment 2, 13 in Experiment 3a, and 13 in Experiment 3b). (The
165 number of participants in Experiment 2 was so large because this experiment was used
166 across multiple projects, and we decided to include here all the data available.) Due to
167 some overlap in participants across experiments (8 participated in both Experiment 2 and
168 3a, and 5 participated in both Experiment 2 and 3b), there were 77 unique individuals
169 (age 18-52, mean age 24, 43 females), 68 right-handed (as determined by the Edinburgh
170 handedness inventory, Oldfield 1971, for n=69, or self report). No participants were
171 excluded based on handedness because we would like to generalize our results to the
172 entire population, as opposed to only the right-handed participants (see Willems et al.
173 2014, for discussion). The nine left-handed participants all had a left-lateralized language
174 network, as determined by the language localizer task described below. To determine
175 lateralization, the number of language-contrast-activated voxels in the right hemisphere at
176 a fixed significance threshold was subtracted from the number of language voxels in the
177 left hemisphere at the same threshold, and the resulting value was divided by the sum of

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178 language voxels across hemispheres (see Mahowald & Fedorenko 2016 for further details
179 on this method). All were native speakers of English, had normal hearing and vision, and
180 no history of language impairment. The protocol for these studies was submitted to, and
181 approved by, MIT's Committee on the Use of Humans as Experimental Subjects
182 (COUHES). All participants gave written informed consent in accordance with the
183 requirements of this protocol.

184

185 **Design and procedure common to all four experiments.** Each participant completed a
186 language localizer task (Fedorenko et al. 2010) and an action observation/imitation task.
187 12 participants completed the localizer task in a separate scanning session; the remaining
188 78 participants performed the localizer and an action experiment in the same session,
189 along with one or two additional tasks for unrelated studies. The entire scanning session
190 lasted for approximately 2 hours. The task used to localize the language network is
191 described in detail in Fedorenko et al. (2010); the materials and scripts are available from
192 the Fedorenko Lab website (<https://evlab.mit.edu/funcloc>). Briefly, we used a reading
193 task contrasting sentences (e.g., THE SPEECH THAT THE POLITICIAN PREPARED
194 WAS TOO LONG FOR THE MEETING) and lists of unconnected, pronounceable
195 nonwords (e.g., LAS TUPING CUSARISTS FICK PRELL PRONT CRE POME
196 VILLPA OLP WORNIST CHO) in a standard blocked design with a counterbalanced
197 order across runs (for timing parameters, see Table 1). The sentences > nonwords
198 contrast targets brain regions that support lexico-semantic and combinatorial (semantic
199 and syntactic) processing. Stimuli were presented one word/nonword at a time. For 10
200 participants (in Experiment 1), each trial ended with a memory probe and they had to

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201 indicate, via a button press, whether or not that probe had appeared in the preceding
202 sequence of words/nonwords. The remaining participants instead read the materials
203 passively (we included a button-pressing task at the end of each trial, to help participants
204 remain alert). Importantly, this localizer has been shown to generalize across task
205 manipulations: the sentences > nonwords contrast, and similar contrasts between
206 language and a linguistically degraded control condition, robustly activates the fronto-
207 temporal language network regardless of the task, materials, and modality of presentation
208 (e.g., Fedorenko et al. 2010; Fedorenko 2014; Scott et al. 2016).

209 The action observation tasks included a variety of conditions – including hand
210 actions with (Experiment 1) or without (Experiment 3a) a manipulable object, actions
211 that involve different body parts including hands, but also arms, legs, feet, torso, and
212 head (Experiment 2), face actions (Experiments 2 and 3a), and specifically eye and
213 mouth actions (Experiment 3a); the action imitation task similarly included several
214 conditions (Experiment 3b). We describe each experiment in more detail below.

215

216 ***Experiment 1: Hand action observation***

217 Participants watched short videos where a small non-nameable 3D object was
218 manipulated in some way by a hand, in a blocked design, and performed a simple one-
219 back task designed to draw attention to the action or the object. (We used non-nameable
220 objects to avoid a potential confound of activating the names of common objects, which
221 would likely elicit some response in the language regions, but not due to overlap in
222 computational demands between language understanding and action observation.) In the
223 action condition, participants had to press a button when they saw the same action twice

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224 in a row, and in the object condition, they watched the same videos but had to press a
225 button when they saw the same object twice in a row. The task manipulation was
226 included in an effort to maximally focus the participants' attention on the actions in the
227 action condition.

228 *Materials*

229 There were 8 possible hand actions (e.g., push forward with back of the fingers, or pick
230 up with an index finger and a thumb) and 8 possible non-nameable objects, resulting in
231 64 unique stimuli (see Figure 1 for screenshots from sample stimuli). A short video was
232 created for each action/object combination. Each video started with the object sitting on a
233 table, and then the hand entered the frame (always from the same side), performed the
234 action, and exited the frame. Because objects take less time to identify than actions (given
235 that actions unfold over time), some steps were taken to make the conditions comparable
236 in difficulty. First, the videos were edited so that the action started as quickly as possible
237 after the onset of the video (on average, the action took about 250 ms to initiate). Second,
238 objects were grouped into “families” for presentation purposes such that objects within a
239 family were visually similar to one another. Conversely, actions were grouped in a way
240 such that actions within a set were visually dissimilar.

241 *Procedure*

242 Each video (trial) lasted 3 seconds, and trials were grouped into blocks of 8 trials each.
243 Each block was preceded by a 2-second instructions screen telling participants which
244 condition they were about to see. Each run consisted of 16 such experimental blocks (26
245 seconds each; 8 blocks per condition) and 5 fixation blocks (16 seconds each, placed at
246 the beginning of the run, and after each set of four blocks). Each run thus lasted 496

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247 seconds (8 min 16 sec). Each participant saw either 4 or 5 runs. The order of conditions
248 was counterbalanced across runs and participants.

249

250 *Experiment 2: Face and body action observation*

251 Participants passively watched silent videos of i) face actions, ii) body actions, iii)
252 driving through natural scenes, iv) moving man-made objects, and v) spatially scrambled
253 versions of these objects in a blocked design (see Pitcher et al., 2011, for a detailed
254 description). For the purposes of the current study, we examined the first two conditions:
255 face actions and body actions. Participants were instructed to watch attentively.

256 *Materials*

257 There were 60 unique stimuli per condition. The videos depicted children moving against
258 a black background. These children performed a variety of actions like dancing, walking,
259 and crawling (see Figure 1 for screenshots from sample stimuli). The face action videos
260 featured a child's face in motion – smiling, laughing, talking, or looking at someone off-
261 camera. The body action videos featured a child's moving body part – hands, arms, legs,
262 feet, torso, or back of the head – but did not include the face.

263 *Procedure*

264 Each trial consisted of a single video that lasted 3 seconds, and trials were grouped into
265 blocks of 6 trials each. Each run consisted of 10 experimental blocks (18 seconds each; 2
266 blocks per condition) and 3 fixation blocks (18 seconds each), placed at the beginning,
267 middle, and end of the run. Each run thus lasted 234 seconds (3 min 54 sec). Each
268 participant saw between 2 and 4 runs.

269

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270 *Experiment 3 a/b: Face, eye, mouth, and hand action observation / imitation*

271 Participants watched silent videos of an actress performing face actions, eye actions,
272 mouth actions, and hand actions. Additionally, the experiment included videos where the
273 actress pronounced consonant and vowel sounds, syllables, nonwords, and words in
274 English and German, and sang or hummed nonwords, all in a blocked design. For the
275 purposes of the current study, we examined the first four conditions: face actions, eye
276 actions, mouth actions, and hand actions. In the observation version of the experiment
277 (Experiment 3a), participants were asked to just watch attentively, and in the imitation
278 version (Experiment 3b), a different set of participants were instructed to imitate each
279 action while keeping their head as still as possible.

280 *Materials*

281 There were 8 unique stimuli per condition. The videos depicted a female actress against a
282 grey background. In the face, eye, and mouth action conditions, she was sitting facing the
283 camera, with the frame going from just below her shoulders to just above the top of her
284 head. Each video started and ended with the actress looking at the camera, with a neutral
285 expression. The face condition included actions like looking surprised or making a “fish”
286 face (see Figure 1 for screenshots from sample stimuli); the eye condition included
287 actions like moving the eyes up or to the lower left; and the mouth condition included
288 actions like touching the upper teeth with the tongue or pursing the lips to blow air out. In
289 the hand action condition, the hand rested on a wooden table, with the frame covering the
290 hand and a portion of the forearm. Each video started and ended with the hand resting on
291 the table. The hand condition included actions like pulling in the fingers or tapping a
292 finger or multiple fingers on the table.

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293 *Procedure – Experiment 3a (observation)*

294 Each video (trial) lasted 5 seconds, and trials were grouped into blocks of 3 trials each.

295 Each run consisted of 26 experimental blocks (15 seconds each; 2 blocks for each of

296 thirteen conditions) and 5 fixation blocks (14 seconds each), placed at the beginning and

297 end of each run, as well as after the 7th, 13th, and 20th blocks. Each run thus lasted 460

298 seconds (7 min 30 sec). Each participant saw between 4 and 6 runs.

299 *Procedure – Experiment 3b (imitation)*

300 The procedure was identical to that of Experiment 3a except that each video (trial) lasted

301 8 seconds (5 seconds for the video and 3 seconds for the participant to imitate the action;

302 note that although the videos lasted 5 seconds each, the actual action does not take longer

303 than ~3 seconds). Each run thus lasted 694 seconds (11 min 34 sec). Each participant saw

304 between 3 and 8 runs.

305

306 **fMRI data acquisition and preprocessing.** Structural and functional data were collected

307 on the whole-body 3 Tesla Siemens Trio scanner with a 32-channel head coil at the

308 Athinoula A. Martinos Imaging Center at the McGovern Institute for Brain Research at

309 MIT. T1-weighted structural images were collected in 128 axial slices with 1 mm

310 isotropic voxels (TR = 2530 ms, TE = 3.48 ms). Functional, blood oxygenation level

311 dependent (BOLD) data were acquired using an EPI sequence (with a 90 degree flip

312 angle and using GRAPPA with an acceleration factor of 2), with the following

313 acquisition parameters: thirty-one 4 mm thick near-axial slices, acquired in an interleaved

314 order with a 10% distance factor, 2.1 mm x 2.1 mm in-plane resolution; field of view of

315 200 mm in the phase encoding anterior to posterior (A > P) direction; matrix size of 96

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316 mm x 96 mm; TR of 2000 ms; and TE of 30 ms. Prospective acquisition correction
317 (Thesen et al. 2000) was used to adjust the positions of the gradients based on the
318 participant's motion from the previous TR. The first 10s of each run (before the start of
319 presentation of the stimuli) were excluded to allow for steady-state magnetization.

320 MRI data were analyzed using SPM5 and custom MATLAB and shell scripts.
321 Each participant's data were motion corrected, normalized into a common brain space
322 (MNI) and resampled into 2 mm isotropic voxels. The data were smoothed with a 4mm
323 Gaussian filter and high-pass filtered (at 200s). All task effects were estimated using a
324 General Linear Model (GLM) in which each experimental condition was modeled with a
325 boxcar function convolved with the canonical hemodynamic response function (HRF).

326

327 **Definition of group-constrained, subject-specific fROIs.** The critical analyses were
328 restricted to individually defined language fROIs (functional regions of interest). These
329 fROIs were defined using the Group-constrained Subject-Specific (GSS) approach
330 (Fedorenko et al. 2010; Julian et al. 2012) where a set of spatial parcels (binary masks
331 that correspond to locations where activation has been previously observed for the
332 relevant localizer contrast) is combined with each individual subject's localizer activation
333 map, to constrain the definition of individual fROIs. The parcels are sufficiently large to
334 encompass the extent of variability in the locations of individual activations. For the
335 critical language fROIs, we used a set of six parcels derived from a group-level
336 probabilistic activation overlap map for the sentences > nonwords contrast in 220
337 participants. These parcels (Figure 2) included three regions in the left frontal cortex: two
338 in the left inferior frontal gyrus (LIFG, LIFGorb), and one in the left middle frontal gyrus

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339 (LMFG), two in the left temporal lobe (LAntTemp and LPostTemp), and one extending
340 into the angular gyrus (LAngG). These parcels are similar to the ones originally reported
341 in Fedorenko et al. (2010) based on a probabilistic activation overlap map from 25
342 participants, except that the two anterior temporal parcels were grouped together (the
343 original LAntTemp merged with LMidAntTemp), and the two posterior temporal parcels
344 were grouped together (the original LMidPostTemp merged with LPostTemp). The
345 parcels are available for download from <https://evlab.mit.edu/funcloc>.

346 Within each parcel, we selected the top 10% most responsive voxels, based on the
347 *t* values for the sentences > nonwords contrast (see e.g., Figure 1 in Blank et al. 2014; or
348 Figure 1 in Mahowald and Fedorenko 2016, for sample fROIs). Statistical tests were
349 performed on these values.

350 In addition to the language fROIs, a set of control fROIs was defined in the
351 participants in Experiments 2, 3a, and 3b. In particular, we used 18 anatomical parcels
352 across the two hemispheres (Tzourio-Mazoyer et al. 2002) covering frontal and parietal
353 brain areas that belong to the so-called multiple demand (MD) network (Duncan 2010,
354 2013). This network has been linked to executive demands across domains (e.g., Duncan
355 and Owen 2000; Fedorenko et al. 2013; Hugdahl et al. 2015), but parts of this network
356 have also been implicated in the processing of actions (e.g., Culham and Valera 2006;
357 Gallivan and Culham 2015; Biagi et al. 2015; Caspers et al. 2010). We thus expected
358 some of these regions to respond to action observation and/or imitation. In particular, we
359 focused on a subset of 6 parcels (although the results were corrected for the total number
360 of regions that comprise this network, i.e., 18): the bilateral IFGop and PrecG fROIs in
361 the frontal cortex because those lie in close proximity to the language fROIs, and the

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362 bilateral SupPar fROIs in the parietal cortex because these regions have been implicated
363 in action observation in prior work (e.g., Johnson-Frey et al., 2005).

364 To define individual MD fROIs, we used a spatial working memory task where
365 participants keep track of locations within a grid (this MD localizer task was not included
366 in Experiment 1, hence this analysis could not be performed for those participants). The
367 task is described in detail in Fedorenko et al. (2013; see also Blank et al. 2014). Briefly,
368 on each trial, participants saw a 3×4 grid and kept track of eight (hard version) or four
369 (easy version) locations that were sequentially flashed two at a time or one at a time,
370 respectively. Then, participants indicated their memory for these locations in a two-
371 alternative, forced-choice paradigm via a button press. Feedback was provided after
372 every trial. Hard and easy conditions were presented in a standard blocked design (4 trials
373 in a 32s block, 6 blocks per condition per run) with a counterbalanced order across runs.
374 Each run included 4 blocks of fixation (16s each) and lasted a total of 448s. Within each
375 anatomical parcel, we selected the top 10% most responsive voxels, based on the *t* values
376 for the hard > easy spatial working memory contrast. Statistical tests were performed on
377 these values.

378 Finally, for some additional analyses reported in the Discussion, we examined i)
379 brain regions in the auditory cortex that support speech perception, and ii) brain regions
380 in the premotor cortex that support speech articulation. For the former, we used the
381 following anatomical parcels from the FSL atlas (Desikan et al. 2006): bilateral planum
382 polare (PP), planum temporale (PT), anterior superior temporal gyrus (ASTG), and
383 posterior superior temporal gyrus (PSTG). To define individual speech-responsive fROIs,
384 these anatomical parcels were masked with activation maps for a contrast between

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385 listening to nonwords and observing hand actions (in Experiment 3a). The responses
386 were then extracted to nonwords, and the four action observation conditions. To estimate
387 the responses to the nonwords and hand action observation conditions, an across-runs
388 cross-validation procedure was used so that the data to define the fROIs and estimate
389 their responses were independent (e.g., Kriegeskorte et al. 2011). In particular, all but one
390 run were used to define the fROIs and the responses were estimated in the left-out run;
391 this procedure was repeated leaving out each run in turn; the response estimates were
392 then averaged across runs to derive a single estimate per condition per fROI. This
393 procedure allows all of the data to be used while maintaining the independence between
394 the data used to define the fROIs and the data used to examine their responses (e.g.,
395 Nieto-Castañón & Fedorenko 2012).

396 For the articulation regions, we used functional parcels derived from a group-level
397 probabilistic activation overlap map for the contrast between the production of difficult-
398 to-articulate nonwords and fixation in 20 participants, as reported in Basilakos et al.
399 (2017). We focused on the regions in the premotor cortices bilaterally: a region in the left
400 precentral gyrus, and two regions in the right precentral gyrus (see Figure 3 in Basilakos
401 et al. 2017). To define individual articulation-responsive fROIs, these parcels were
402 masked with activation maps for a contrast between imitating nonwords (repeating the
403 nonword produced by the actress) and imitating hand actions (in Experiment 3b). The
404 responses were then extracted to nonwords, and the four action imitation conditions. As
405 with the analyses of the speech-responsive regions, to estimate the responses to the
406 nonwords and hand action imitation conditions, an across-runs cross-validation procedure
407 was used so that the data to define the fROIs and estimate their responses were

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408 independent (e.g., Kriegeskorte et al. 2011).

409

410 **Analyses.** In the critical analyses that examined the responses of the language fROIs to
411 the different action observation / imitation conditions, we used two-tailed t -tests to
412 compare the responses to each action condition against i) the low-level fixation baseline,
413 ii) nonword processing, which serves as the control condition in the language localizer,
414 and iii) sentence comprehension. The resulting p values were corrected for the number of
415 language fROIs within each experiment (i.e., 6), using the False Discovery Rate
416 correction (Benjamini and Yekutieli 2001). If language comprehension and action
417 observation / imitation share computational demands, then the action conditions should
418 elicit a response that is as strong as the sentence comprehension condition, or, at least,
419 reliably stronger than the nonword processing condition.

420

421 **Results**

422 *Behavioral data*

423 Overt behavioral responses were only collected in Experiment 1, where participants
424 watched videos and performed a one-back task on the action or the object in the video, as
425 described in Methods. Accuracies were high in both conditions, but slightly and reliably
426 higher for the actions condition than the objects condition (94.9% and 87.5%,
427 respectively; two-tailed $t(9) = 3.18$, $p < 0.05$). Further, as expected (given that actions
428 take time to unfold), participants were faster in the objects condition than the actions
429 condition (1.37s vs. 1.71s; two-tailed $t(9) = 6.05$, $p \leq 0.0005$).

430 *Validation of the language fROIs*

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431 Replicating previous work (Fedorenko et al. 2010; Fedorenko et al. 2011), the sentences
432 > nonwords effect was highly reliable in each of six fROIs both i) across the entire set of
433 participants ($ts(76) > 10$, $ps < 0.0001$), and ii) in each experiment individually
434 (Experiment 1: $ts(9) > 4.43$, $ps < 0.001$, Experiment 2: $ts(53) > 8.39$, $ps < 0.0001$,
435 Experiment 3a: $ts(12) > 3.68$, $ps < 0.005$, and Experiment 3b: $ts(12) > 4.01$, $ps < 0.001$).
436 Here, and in validating the MD fROIs, an across-runs cross-validation procedure,
437 described above, was used so that data used to define the fROIs were independent of the
438 data used to estimate the responses.

439 *Reponses of the language fROIs to the action conditions*

440 The results are reported in Table 2 and Figure 2. Across experiments, none of the
441 language regions responded strongly and consistently to action observation or imitation.
442 In most fROIs, the action conditions failed to elicit a response above the fixation baseline
443 (except for Experiment 2, where both conditions elicited small but reliable above-
444 baseline responses in all language fROIs). Further, the response to the action
445 observation/imitation condition did not significantly differ from the nonword condition,
446 with the exception of the AngG fROI, which responded more strongly to some action
447 observation conditions than the nonword condition. Finally, again with the exception of
448 the AngG fROI, the response to the action observation/imitation condition was reliably
449 (in almost all cases, and always numerically) below that elicited by sentence
450 comprehension.

451 ***Experiment 1.*** When participants watched videos of a hand performing simple
452 manipulations of an object, there was no above-baseline response in any of the language
453 fROIs, regardless of whether participants were asked to focus on the objects ($ts(9) < 1.5$,

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454 n.s.) or actions ($ts(9) < 1.6$, n.s.). Further, neither of the action conditions elicited a
455 response that was reliably greater than the nonword condition, whereas the sentence
456 condition elicited a reliably greater response than either of the two action conditions
457 ($ts(9) > 2.75$, $ps < 0.05$).

458 **Experiment 2.** In this experiment, every language fROI showed a reliably above-baseline
459 response to both the face action observation condition ($ts(53) > 2.11$, $ps < 0.05$) and the
460 body action observation condition ($ts(53) > 2.86$, $ps < 0.01$). However, in all fROIs
461 except for the AngG fROI, this response was i) not reliably higher than that elicited by
462 the nonword condition ($ts(53) < 1.67$, $ps > 0.16$), and ii) reliably lower than that elicited
463 by the sentence condition ($ts(53) > 5.72$, $ps < 0.0001$). In the AngG language fROI, both
464 action observation conditions elicited a response that was reliably stronger than that
465 elicited by the nonword condition and that did not differ from that elicited by the
466 sentence condition. We come back to the AngG fROI in the Discussion.

467 **Experiment 3a.** Similar to Experiment 1, there was no above-baseline response in the
468 language fROIs to any of the four conditions, with the exception of the AngG fROI and
469 the MFG fROI, which showed reliably above-baseline responses to hand action
470 observation ($ts(12) > 2.82$, $ps < 0.05$), but only the AngG fROI responded reliably more
471 strongly to hand action observation (and mouth action observation) than to nonwords
472 ($ts(12) > 3.67$, $ps < 0.05$); in all other fROIs none of the action observation conditions
473 produced a stronger response than nonwords. Finally, in all language fROIs, except for
474 the AngG fROI, the sentence condition elicited a reliably greater response than each of
475 the four action observation conditions ($ts(12) > 3.30$, $ps < 0.01$). In the AngG fROI, the
476 response to the action observation conditions did not reliably differ in magnitude from

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477 the sentence condition.

478 **Experiment 3b.** In this experiment, where participants observed and imitated different
479 kinds of actions, there was no above-baseline responses except for the MFG fROI, which
480 responded reliably above baseline to the eye, mouth, and hand action conditions ($ts(12) >$
481 2.23 , $ps < 0.05$), and marginally to the face action condition ($t(12) = 3.09$, $p = 0.056$).
482 However, these responses did not significantly differ from the response elicited by the
483 nonword condition (see Fedorenko et al. 2011, for a similar pattern of results with other
484 non-linguistic tasks). Further, the sentence condition elicited a reliably or marginally
485 greater response than each of the four action conditions in all language fROIs, except for
486 the AngG fROI and some frontal fROIs for some of the conditions (see Table 2 for
487 details).

488 ***Validation of the control, multiple demand (MD), fROIs***

489 Replicating previous work (Fedorenko et al. 2013; Blank et al. 2014), the hard > easy
490 spatial working memory effect was highly reliable in each of six fROIs across
491 participants with 2 runs ($ts(47) > 7.8$, $ps < 0.0001$). Participants with 1 run only ($n=18$)
492 could not be included in this validation analysis because across-runs cross-validation
493 could not be performed; for those participants, we ensured that MD activations looked as
494 expected based on visual examination of whole-brain activation maps.

495 ***Responses of the control, multiple demand (MD), fROIs to the action conditions***

496 Unlike in the language fROIs, all action imitation conditions elicited reliably above-
497 baseline responses in almost all MD fROIs. Similarly, at least some action observation
498 conditions elicited reliable responses. The body action observation condition from
499 Experiment 2, and the eye and hand action observation conditions from Experiment 3a

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500 elicited the strongest responses. Strong responses to eye movement observation and
501 imitation could be related to prior claims about the role of this fronto-parietal system in
502 saccades (e.g., Pierrot-Deseilligny et al. 2004).

503 *Responses of speech perception and articulation regions to the action conditions*

504 As discussed at the beginning of the Methods section, we have here focused on high-level
505 language processing regions (e.g., Fedorenko et al. 2010), which plausibly store our
506 linguistic knowledge that we use to both interpret and generate meaningful utterances
507 (e.g., Menenti et al. 2011). These regions are distinct from lower-level speech perception
508 regions (e.g., Overath et al. 2015; Norman-Haignere et al. 2015) and from speech
509 articulation regions (e.g., Bohland and Guenther 2006; Flinker et al. 2015; Basilakos et al.
510 2017). Might some of this perceptual or motor speech machinery overlap with action
511 observation or imitation? Based on the available evidence, a tentative answer appears to
512 be ‘no’. In particular, the superior temporal regions that respond robustly to speech show
513 some response during speech articulation (e.g., Hickok et al. 2009; Basilakos et al. 2017),
514 but respond very little when participants produce even actions that involve speech
515 articulators, i.e., non-speech oral-motor movements (Basilakos et al. 2017). To shed
516 further light on this question, we performed an additional analysis on data from
517 Experiment 3a. We used a contrast between listening to nonwords and hand action
518 observation to define speech-responsive regions within the superior temporal cortex, and
519 then examined the responses of those regions to nonwords and hand action observation
520 (in data not used for fROI definition), as well as to face, eye, and mouth action
521 observation conditions. As Figure 4a clearly shows, the four action observation
522 conditions fail to elicit above-baseline responses, suggesting that these regions do not

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523 support action observation.

524 What about regions that support speech articulation? Basilakos et al. (2017) report
525 quite robust responses to the production of non-speech oral-motor movements in
526 premotor articulation regions. We performed an additional analysis on data from
527 Experiment 3b to examine the responses of those articulation regions to action imitation
528 more broadly. We used a contrast between imitating nonwords (repeating the nonword
529 produced by the actress) and hand actions to define articulation-responsive regions within
530 ventral premotor cortex, and then examined the responses of those regions to nonwords
531 and hand action imitation (in data not used for fROI definition), as well as to face, eye,
532 and mouth action imitation. As Figure 4b shows, the mouth action imitation condition
533 elicits as strong a response as, or a stronger response than, articulation, replicating
534 Basilakos et al. (2017). The face condition (which also includes some mouth movements)
535 also elicits a strong response. However, the hand and eye action imitation conditions
536 elicit much lower responses. This relative selectivity for speech and oral-motor/face
537 actions is in line with the idea that these regions contain a map of our articulatory
538 apparatus (e.g., Bouchard et al. 2013; Guenther 2016), arguing against broad engagement
539 in action imitation, as well as with prior findings of somatotopic organization in the
540 motor areas (e.g., Watkins et al. 2003; Pulvermuller et al. 2006; D'Ausilio et al. 2009;
541 Murakami et al. 2011).

542 Thus, similar to high-level language processing regions, speech perception
543 regions do not appear to support action observation, and speech articulation regions do
544 not appear to support action imitation.

545

546 **Discussion**

547 We asked whether any part(s) of the language network – a set of brain regions that
548 support high-level language processing (e.g., Fedorenko et al. 2010; Fedorenko &
549 Thompson-Schill, 2014) – respond to action observation and/or imitation. Neural
550 machinery that supports both language processing and some aspects of action
551 observation/imitation has been postulated based on two distinct ideas. First, inspired by
552 the discovery of mirror neurons in macaques (Rizzolatti et al. 1988), some have argued
553 that manual actions served as a fundamental precursor to linguistic communication in the
554 evolution of our species (e.g., Arbib 2005; but see e.g., Tomasello 2008; Corballis 2003,
555 for arguments for gesture-based origins of language that do not hinge on the mirror-
556 neuron-based theorizing). Second, some have postulated an amodal hierarchical
557 processor in the left frontal cortex (in or near “Broca’s area”) that is hypothesized to
558 support both language processing and action perception/planning (e.g., Tettamanti and
559 Weniger 2006; Fiebach and Schuboltz 2006; Koechlin and Jubault 2006).

560 Across three experiments (77 participants, 90 scanning sessions), we examined
561 neural responses of functionally defined language regions to a broad range of *action*
562 *observation* conditions, including hand actions with (Experiment 1) or without
563 (Experiment 3a) a manipulable object, but also actions that involve the face or face parts
564 (Experiments 2 and 3a) and body parts other than the hands (Experiment 2). In the fourth
565 experiment (13 participants), we further examined responses of language regions to
566 *action imitation*, again involving different face and body parts.

567 The key result is that – with a single exception discussed below – none of the
568 language regions responded strongly and consistently to action observation or imitation.

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569 In most language regions, the action conditions did not elicit a response above the
570 fixation baseline, which suggests that the language regions are as active during action
571 observation/imitation as they are when we are looking at a blank screen. Further, in most
572 language regions, the response to the action observation/imitation conditions i) did not
573 significantly differ from the response elicited by the nonword condition (the control
574 condition in the language localizer task), and ii) was reliably lower than the response
575 elicited by the sentence condition. These results suggest that language regions are
576 selective for language processing, in line with earlier work that established selectivity for
577 language relative to arithmetic, executive processing, music perception, and social
578 cognition (e.g., Fedorenko and Varley 2016). This conclusion is also consistent with
579 lesion studies that have reported dissociations between linguistic deficits and deficits in
580 action observation/production (e.g., Sirigu et al. 1998), and with a recent fMRI study that
581 showed that the degree of lateralization for language appears to be unrelated to the degree
582 of lateralization for action observation (Häberling et al. 2016).

583 The only exception was the language fROI in the angular gyrus. This region
584 responded more strongly to some action observation conditions than to nonwords, and, in
585 some cases, the response to action observation was not significantly lower than the
586 response to sentences. Evidence is accumulating that this region differs functionally from
587 the rest of the language network. In particular, it shows relatively low functional
588 correlations with other language regions during naturalistic cognition (e.g., Blank et al.
589 2014), including when using dynamic network modeling (Chai et al. 2016), and it shows
590 lower correlations in effect sizes and lateralization (e.g., Mahowald and Fedorenko 2016).
591 It also differs from the other language regions in sensitivity to linguistic and non-

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592 linguistic manipulations. For example, the AngG language fROI was the only region that
593 did not show sensitivity to syntactic complexity (Blank et al. 2016), and it was the only
594 region that did not respond more strongly to sentences than photographs matched for
595 semantic content (Amit et al. 2017). The latter result suggests that the AngG language
596 fROI may respond to visual stimuli in general, as opposed to action observation
597 specifically. However, the precise role of this region in human cognition remains to be
598 discovered. One current hypothesis (formulated not specifically about the language-
599 responsive portion of the angular gyrus, but about the broad anatomical area) is that it is
600 “involved in all aspects of semantic processing” and contributes to “behaviors requiring
601 fluent conceptual combination” (e.g., Binder et al. 2009; cf. Lambon Ralph et al. 2017).

602 We now touch on four theoretical issues that the current results bear on.

603

604 **Gestural origins of language**

605 Just because in the modern human brain, language processing and action observation
606 appear to recruit non-overlapping machinery does not imply that our linguistic
607 communication system could not have arisen from the manual modality. In fact, this
608 possibility is still perhaps the most plausible (e.g., Tomasello 2008; Corballis 2003; cf.
609 Slocombe 2015; Shepherd & Freiwald, 2018). However, once humans began to develop
610 an extensive set of vocal communication signals, they plausibly had to allocate some
611 portions of the association cortices – massively expanded in the human brain (e.g.,
612 Buckner and Krienen 2013) – to store these form-meaning mappings (see also Häberling
613 et al., 2016). Given the differences between linguistic and non-linguistic communication
614 signals (including both discrete, categorical speech-accompanying gestures and

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615 continuous, mimetic facial expressions and body language) – it is perhaps to be expected
616 that these different forms of communication would recruit distinct cognitive (e.g.,
617 Goldin-Meadow and Brentari 2016; McNeill 1992) and neural (e.g., Häberling et al.
618 2016) machinery given the distinct computational demands they place on the mind and
619 brain. It is worth noting that a few prior neuroimaging studies have argued that gesture
620 processing does recruit the same brain regions as language comprehension (e.g.,
621 Villarreal et al. 2008; Xu et al. 2009; Enrici et al. 2011; Andric et al. 2013; Redcay et al.
622 2016; see Willems & Hagoort 2007; Marstaller & Burianová 2014; Yang et al. 2015, for
623 reviews). However, those studies typically used symbolic gestures, pantomime, or
624 “emblems” (e.g., wave, hold out hand for a shake, etc.). Given that such gestures are
625 clearly associated with particular meanings, their processing may lead to the activation of
626 the corresponding linguistic representations. Thus, the overlap may be explained by the
627 engagement of linguistic resources during the processing of gestures rather than by the
628 shared computational demands like communicative intent or abstract conceptual
629 processing.

630

631 **Amodal hierarchical processor in “Broca’s area”?**

632 Although our action observation/imitation conditions did not include a manipulation of
633 hierarchical complexity, we would argue that – to the extent that an amodal hierarchical
634 processor exists in the human brain – it does not reside within the high-level language
635 network. We have previously made this argument based on non-overlap between
636 language processing and music perception (e.g., Fedorenko et al. 2011; Fedorenko et al.
637 2012c; Norman-Haignere et al. 2015). Music is another domain that has been argued to

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638 recruit such an amodal hierarchical processor (e.g., Maess et al. 2001; Koelsch et al.
639 2002). However, as Fedorenko & Varley (2016) have argued, the most compelling
640 evidence for overlap comes from structure-violation paradigms, and in those paradigms,
641 violations of structure appear to elicit similar responses to those elicited by low-level
642 oddball manipulations (e.g., Corbetta and Shulman 2002) and plausibly arise within the
643 domain-general multiple demand (MD) network due to increased processing effort
644 associated with unexpected events (Duncan 2010, 2013). Similarly, some manipulations
645 of hierarchical complexity in the action domain (e.g., Koechlin and Jubault 2006)
646 plausibly engage parts of the MD network because more complex action plans are
647 associated with greater working memory and cognitive control demands. Although parts
648 of the MD system have been argued to be particularly sensitive to hierarchical demands
649 (e.g., Badre and D'Esposito 2007, 2009; Badre 2008) or to the level of abstractness of the
650 to-be-processed information (e.g., Koechlin et al. 2003; Koechlin and Summerfield 2007),
651 these proposals have not gone unchallenged (e.g., Crittenden and Duncan 2012;
652 Pischedda et al. 2017). Thus, whether an amodal hierarchical processor exists anywhere
653 in the human brain remains an open question, but to the extent that it does, it exists
654 outside the boundaries of the high-level language network.

655

656 **Possibly similar computations across domains in spite of non-overlapping brain** 657 **regions**

658 The existence of distinct brain regions that support information processing in different
659 domains – like language vs. action observation vs. action production – does not imply
660 that the basic computations (that operate over those domain-specific representations) are

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661 different. In fact, neural circuits across the cortex share many core properties (e.g.,
662 Douglas et al. 1989; Douglas and Martin 2004; Harris and Shepherd 2015), suggesting
663 that the basic computations may be the same or similar across different cortical areas. It is
664 also easy to come up with intuitive-level descriptions of potential parallels between
665 domains. For example, in the domain of language, we have a large store of form-meaning
666 mappings and knowledge about the relationships among them. We can use this
667 knowledge to interpret linguistic signals, and to generate new utterances, by combining
668 these basic building blocks into sequences. In the domain of actions, we may have a
669 similar “vocabulary” of actions for each of our effectors associated with particular
670 contexts of use, and information about how these actions can be combined (e.g., Hommel
671 et al. 2001; Rosenbaum et al. 2001; Schack 2004). And we can refer to this stored
672 knowledge to interpret others’ actions as well as generate our own action sequences as
673 needed for goal-directed behavior (e.g., Flash and Bizzi 2016). As we make progress in
674 developing fleshed-out mechanistic-level hypotheses about what actually goes on when
675 we understand and produce language, or as we perceive and generate motor actions, it is
676 important to keep in mind both that i) the linguistic and action/motor representations
677 appear to be stored in non-overlapping brain areas, but that ii) the computations may be
678 fundamentally similar between these (and possibly other domains of perception, action,
679 and cognition).

680

681 **(Ir)relevance of the current results to the embodiment debate**

682 As noted in the Introduction, the question investigated here – i.e., whether high-level
683 language processing brain regions are engaged when we observe or produce motor

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684 actions – is distinct from the much-debated question of the *nature of our conceptual*
685 *representations*. In particular, for many years now, some have advocated an “embodied”
686 view of meanings whereby concepts are “grounded” in sensory-motor modalities (e.g.,
687 Barsalou et al. 2003; Tranel et al. 2003; Simmons et al. 2007). Embodiment proposals
688 vary widely in the scope of their claims (see Leshinskaya and Caramazza 2016, for a
689 recent review of the key issues in this debate), from a complete denial of the existence of
690 abstract / amodal conceptual representations (e.g., Barsalou et al. 2003; Barsalou 2008;
691 Pulvermüller and Fadiga 2010; cf. Caramazza et al. 1990) to more moderate positions
692 where abstract representations interact in some way with the sensory/motor ones (e.g.,
693 Meteyard et al. 2012). The reason that the work reported here might, on the surface,
694 appear to be relevant to the embodiment debate is that action verbs have received a lot of
695 attention in that literature (e.g., see Bedny and Caramazza 2011, for a review). However,
696 the link is superficial: whether or not sensory and/or motor brain regions are active (to
697 some extent) when we understand the meanings of verbs like “kick” or “punch” (e.g.,
698 Hauk et al. 2004) is orthogonal to the question of whether the regions of the language
699 network – that we *know* are engaged when we process word meanings (e.g., Fedorenko et
700 al., 2012b) – play a role in the processing or execution of motor actions. We here show
701 that the answer to the latter question is no.

702

703 Before concluding, it is worth noting that, in general, the construct of “actions” is
704 complex and heterogeneous, and different researchers have different notions and scope in
705 mind when they talk about “actions”. The conditions we included in our study have
706 spanned goal-directed/transitive actions (e.g., manipulating an object in Experiment 1)

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707 and intransitive ones (e.g., tapping a finger in Experiment 3a), as well as actions
708 performed by different effectors (hand, feet, eyes, mouth, face). There are plausibly other
709 dimensions of actions that affect their representation and processing (e.g., Tarhan &
710 Konkle, 2017): e.g., whether the action is directed toward an animate entity vs. an object,
711 whether the action has communicative intent, whether the action maps onto a linguistic
712 label, etc. Our study leaves open the possibility that actions that have some specific
713 property/-ies may elicit responses in the language cortex. However, to evaluate this
714 possibility, we need clear testable hypotheses that would formally specify the relevant
715 features of actions that may lead to the recruitment of the same machinery as language
716 comprehension.

717

718 To conclude, action observation and action imitation do not recruit the left-lateralized
719 high-level language processing network, providing further evidence for the selectivity of
720 this network for language processing (e.g., Fedorenko and Varley 2016). However, this
721 separability is still compatible with hypotheses about the gestural origins of human
722 language (e.g., Tomasello 2008; Corballis 2003). Further, given the general similarity of
723 neural circuits across the neocortex (e.g., Harris and Shepherd 2015), research in the
724 domains of action perception or motor control may inform our understanding of the
725 computations that support language comprehension and production, domains where we
726 don't have the luxury of animal models to richly characterize neural response properties
727 and their interactions.

728

729

730 **Acknowledgements**

731

732 We would like to acknowledge the Athinoula A. Martinos Imaging Center at the
733 McGovern Institute for Brain Research at MIT, and its support team (Steve Shannon,
734 Atsushi Takahashi, and Sheeba Arnold). We also thank i) Nancy Kanwisher for helpful
735 discussions of the design of Experiment 1; ii) Anastasia (Stacey) Vishnevetsky for her
736 help in creating the materials for Experiment 1 and Michael Behr for his help with the
737 early versions of the script for Experiment 1; iii) EvLab members for their help with data
738 collection; iv) Matt Siegelman for his help with creating the webpage for this manuscript;
739 and v) Leyla Tarhan for her comments on the draft of the manuscript. E.F. was supported
740 by NIH award R00-HD057522 and R01-DC016607, and by a grant from the Simons
741 Foundation to the Simons Center for the Social Brain at MIT.

742

743 **Conflict of interest**

744

745 The authors declare no competing financial interests.

746

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1071 **TABLES**1072 **Table 1.** Timing parameters for the different versions of the language localizer task.

	Version		
	A	B	C
Number of participants	5	5	80
Task: Passive Reading or Memory?	M	M	PR
Words / nonwords per trial	8	12	12
Trial duration (ms)	4,800	6,000	6,000
Fixation	300	300	100
Presentation of each word / nonword	350	350	450
Fixation	---	---	500
Memory probe	1,350	1,000	---
Fixation	350	500	---
Trials per block	5	3	3
Block duration (s)	24	18	18
Blocks per condition (per run)	8	8	8
Conditions	Sentences	Sentences	Sentences
	Nonwords	Nonwords	Nonwords
Fixation block duration (s)	16	18	14
Number of fixation blocks	5	5	5
Total run time (s)	464	378	358
Number of runs	2	2	2

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Table 2. Results for each experiment and condition for the six language fROIs. Note that although in Figure 2, we plot the language localizer responses across the entire set of participants in the current study, all the comparisons between the action conditions and the conditions of the language localizer experiment were performed within each experiment separately using two-tailed paired-samples *t*-tests. In columns 2 and 3, significance values indicate whether the action observation/imitation condition elicited a response reliably above the baseline (column 2) or reliably above the nonword condition (column 3). In column 4, significance values indicate whether the action observation/imitation condition elicited a response reliably below the sentence condition.

Experiment	Condition	ROI	Action condition vs. fixation	Action condition vs. nonwords	Action condition vs. sentences
Expt. 1	hand action observation (attention to action)	<i>LIFGorb</i>	$t(9) = -2.29, p = 0.143$	$t(9) = -1.33, p = 0.357$	$t(9) = 4.18, p < 0.005$
		<i>LIFG</i>	$t(9) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(9) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(9) = 3.31, p < 0.05$
		<i>LMFG</i>	$t(9) = 1.59, p = 0.294$	$t(9) = -1.66, p = 0.357$	$t(9) = 5.67, p < 0.005$
		<i>LAntTemp</i>	$t(9) = -3.32, p = 0.053$	$t(9) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(9) = 3.88, p < 0.01$
		<i>LPostTemp</i>	$t(9) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(9) = -1.26, p = 0.357$	$t(9) = 4.65, p < 0.005$
		<i>LangG</i>	$t(9) = -1.08, p = 0.463$	$t(9) = 2.33, p = 0.271$	$t(9) = 2.76, p < 0.05$
	hand action observation (attention to object)	<i>LIFGorb</i>	$t(9) = -4.35, p < 0.01$	$t(9) = -2.10, p = 0.130$	$t(9) = 5.42, p < 0.001$
		<i>LIFG</i>	$t(9) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(9) = -1.41, p = 0.288$	$t(9) = 4.24, p < 0.005$
		<i>LMFG</i>	$t(9) = 1.54, p = 0.234$	$t(9) = -2.45, p = 0.110$	$t(9) = 5.82, p < 0.001$
		<i>LAntTemp</i>	$t(9) = -5.82, p < 0.005$	$t(9) = -1.16, p = 0.291$	$t(9) = 4.72, p < 0.005$
		<i>LPostTemp</i>	$t(9) = -1.40, p = 0.234$	$t(9) = -2.52, p = 0.110$	$t(9) = 6.10, p < 0.001$

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	<i>LangG</i>	$t(9) = -2.87, p < 0.05$	$t(9) = 1.12, p = 0.291$	$t(9) = 4.75, p < 0.005$		
Expt. 2	Face action observation	<i>LIFGorb</i>	$t(53) = 3.30, p < 0.005$	$t(53) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(53) = 6.19, p < 0.0001$	
		<i>LIFG</i>	$t(53) = 3.28, p < 0.005$	$t(53) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(53) = 7.98, p < 0.0001$	
		<i>LMFG</i>	$t(53) = 2.12, p < 0.05$	$t(53) = -3.48, p < 0.005$	$t(53) = 9.36, p < 0.0001$	
		<i>LAntTemp</i>	$t(53) = 3.41, p < 0.005$	$t(53) = 1.66, p = 0.157$	$t(53) = 8.89, p < 0.0001$	
		<i>LPostTemp</i>	$t(53) = 4.14, p < 0.0005$	$t(53) = -1.65, p = 0.157$	$t(53) = 9.69, p < 0.0001$	
		<i>LangG</i>	$t(53) = 4.98, p < 0.0001$	$t(53) = 4.52, p < 0.0005$	$t(53) < 1 , n.s.$	
	Body action observation	<i>LIFGorb</i>	$t(53) = 4.16, p < 0.0005$	$t(53) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(53) = 5.73, p < 0.0001$	
		<i>LIFG</i>	$t(53) = 3.56, p < 0.005$	$t(53) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(53) = 7.76, p < 0.0001$	
		<i>LMFG</i>	$t(53) = 3.46, p < 0.005$	$t(53) = -3.57, p < 0.005$	$t(53) = 10.50, p < 0.0001$	
		<i>LAntTemp</i>	$t(53) = 2.87, p < 0.01$	$t(53) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(53) = 9.64, p < 0.0001$	
		<i>LPostTemp</i>	$t(53) = 3.23, p < 0.005$	$t(53) = -2.22, p = 0.061$	$t(53) = 10.31, p < 0.0001$	
		<i>LangG</i>	$t(53) = 6.66, p < 0.0001$	$t(53) = 6.00, p < 0.0001$	$t(53) = -1.83, p = 0.073$	
	Expt. 3a	Face action observation	<i>LIFGorb</i>	$t(12) = 1.76, p = 0.156$	$t(12) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(12) = 4.74, p < 0.001$
			<i>LIFG</i>	$t(12) = 2.53, p = 0.146$	$t(12) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(12) = 3.31, p < 0.01$
<i>LMFG</i>			$t(12) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(12) = -2.11, p = 0.169$	$t(12) = 5.17, p < 0.001$	
<i>LAntTemp</i>			$t(12) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(12) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(12) = 5.24, p < 0.001$	
<i>LPostTemp</i>			$t(12) = 1.97, p = 0.146$	$t(12) = -1.10, p = 0.582$	$t(12) = 4.78, p < 0.001$	
<i>LangG</i>			$t(12) = 2.19, p = 0.146$	$t(12) = 2.65, p = 0.126$	$t(12) = 1.13, p = 0.282$	
Eye action observation		<i>LIFGorb</i>	$t(12) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(12) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(12) = 4.03, p < 0.005$	
		<i>LIFG</i>	$t(12) = 2.25, p = 0.263$	$t(12) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(12) = 3.64, p < 0.005$	
		<i>LMFG</i>	$t(12) = 1.40, p = 0.562$	$t(12) = -1.20, p = 0.509$	$t(12) = 4.33, p < 0.005$	
		<i>LAntTemp</i>	$t(12) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(12) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(12) = 6.95, p < 0.0001$	
		<i>LPostTemp</i>	$t(12) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(12) = -1.37, p = 0.509$	$t(12) = 5.20, p < 0.001$	
		<i>LangG</i>	$t(12) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(12) = 1.66, p = 0.509$	$t(12) = 1.62, p = 0.131$	
Mouth action observation		<i>LIFGorb</i>	$t(12) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(12) = -2.11, p = 0.113$	$t(12) = 5.72, p < 0.0005$	
		<i>LIFG</i>	$t(12) = 1.29, p = 0.440$	$t(12) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(12) = 4.10, p < 0.005$	
		<i>LMFG</i>	$t(12) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(12) = -2.54, p = 0.078$	$t(12) = 5.11, p < 0.001$	
		<i>LAntTemp</i>	$t(12) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(12) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(12) = 6.93, p < 0.0001$	
		<i>LPostTemp</i>	$t(12) = 1.77, p = 0.328$	$t(12) = -1.20, p = 0.383$	$t(12) = 4.69, p < 0.001$	
		<i>LangG</i>	$t(12) = 1.73, p = 0.328$	$t(12) = 3.68, p < 0.05$	$t(12) = 1.04, p = 0.318$	
Hand action observation		<i>LIFGorb</i>	$t(12) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(12) = -1.14, p = 0.353$	$t(12) = 4.80, p < 0.001$	
		<i>LIFG</i>	$t(12) = 2.04, p = 0.127$	$t(12) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(12) = 4.24, p < 0.005$	
		<i>LMFG</i>	$t(12) = 2.83, p < 0.05$	$t(12) = -1.81, p = 0.190$	$t(12) = 5.13, p < 0.0005$	
		<i>LAntTemp</i>	$t(12) = -1.55, p = 0.220$	$t(12) = -1.10, p = 0.353$	$t(12) = 5.84, p < 0.0005$	
		<i>LPostTemp</i>	$t(12) = 1.15, p = 0.326$	$t(12) = -2.92, p < 0.05$	$t(12) = 6.48, p < 0.0005$	
		<i>LangG</i>	$t(12) = 3.31, p < 0.05$	$t(12) = 4.38, p < 0.01$	$t(12) < 1 , n.s.$	
Expt. 3b	Face action imitation	<i>LIFGorb</i>	$t(12) = 2.06, p = 0.123$	$t(12) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(12) = 2.06, p = 0.075$	
		<i>LIFG</i>	$t(12) = 1.08, p = 0.455$	$t(12) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(12) = 3.27, p < 0.05$	
		<i>LMFG</i>	$t(12) = 3.09, p = 0.056$	$t(12) = -2.11, p = 0.169$	$t(12) = 2.52, p < 0.05$	
		<i>LAntTemp</i>	$t(12) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(12) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(12) = 4.62, p < 0.005$	
		<i>LPostTemp</i>	$t(12) = 2.37, p = 0.107$	$t(12) = -1.10, p = 0.582$	$t(12) = 4.10, p < 0.005$	
		<i>LangG</i>	$t(12) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(12) = 2.65, p = 0.126$	$t(12) = 1.77, p = 0.101$	
	Eye action imitation	<i>LIFGorb</i>	$t(12) = 1.26, p = 0.386$	$t(12) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(12) = 1.78, p = 0.101$	
		<i>LIFG</i>	$t(12) = 1.03, p = 0.386$	$t(12) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(12) = 3.17, p < 0.05$	
		<i>LMFG</i>	$t(12) = 3.39, p < 0.05$	$t(12) = -1.47, p = 0.335$	$t(12) = 2.25, p = 0.053$	
		<i>LAntTemp</i>	$t(12) = -1.04, p = 0.386$	$t(12) = -2.17, p = 0.304$	$t(12) = 6.06, p < 0.0005$	
		<i>LPostTemp</i>	$t(12) = 1.44, p = 0.386$	$t(12) = -1.7, p = 0.335$	$t(12) = 5.16, p < 0.001$	
		<i>LangG</i>	$t(12) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(12) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(12) = 3.23, p < 0.05$	
	Mouth action imitation	<i>LIFGorb</i>	$t(12) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(12) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(12) = 2.84, p < 0.05$	
		<i>LIFG</i>	$t(12) = 1.27, p = 0.274$	$t(12) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(12) = 3.01, p < 0.05$	
		<i>LMFG</i>	$t(12) = 3.24, p < 0.05$	$t(12) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(12) = 2.52, p < 0.05$	
		<i>LAntTemp</i>	$t(12) = 2.04, p = 0.144$	$t(12) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(12) = 7.24, p < 0.0001$	

Action response in language regions

Hand action imitation	<i>LPostTemp</i>	$t(12) = 1.85, p = 0.144$	$t(12) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(12) = 5.10, p < 0.001$
	<i>LAngG</i>	$t(12) = 1.81, p = 0.144$	$t(12) = 1.89, p = 0.495$	$t(12) = 1.22, p = 0.247$
	<i>LIFGorb</i>	$t(12) = 1.32, p = 0.319$	$t(12) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(12) = 1.52, p = 0.163$
	<i>LIFG</i>	$t(12) = 1.78, p = 0.263$	$t(12) = 1.15, p = 0.549$	$t(12) = 1.77, p = 0.163$
	<i>LMFG</i>	$t(12) = 3.80, p < 0.05$	$t(12) = 1.34, p = 0.549$	$t(12) = 1.49, p = 0.163$
	<i>LAntTemp</i>	$t(12) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(12) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(12) = 4.76, p < 0.005$
	<i>LPostTemp</i>	$t(12) = 1.62, p = 0.263$	$t(12) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(12) = 4.16, p < 0.005$
	<i>LAngG</i>	$t(12) < 1 , n.s.$	$t(12) = 1.23, p = 0.549$	$t(12) = 1.49, p = 0.163$

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1085 **Table 3.** Results for each experiment (for Experiments 2 and 3a/b; no MD localizer was

1086 included in Experiment 1) and condition for the six MD fROIs. Significance values

1087 indicate whether the action observation/imitation condition elicited a response reliably

1088 above the baseline.

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Experiment	Condition	ROI	Action condition vs. fixation
Expt. 2	Face action observation	<i>LIFGop</i>	$t(54) < 1 , n.s.$
		<i>RIFGop</i>	$t(54) = 1.15, p = 0.521$
		<i>LPrecG</i>	$t(54) < 1 , n.s.$
		<i>RPrecG</i>	$t(54) = 2.25, p = 0.169$
		<i>LParSup</i>	$t(54) = -1.66, p = 0.449$
		<i>RParSup</i>	$t(54) = -1.28, p = 0.521$
	Body action observation	<i>LIFGop</i>	$t(54) = 1.58, p = 0.197$
		<i>RIFGop</i>	$t(54) = 1.89, p = 0.521$
		<i>LPrecG</i>	$t(54) = 3.06, p < 0.05$
		<i>RPrecG</i>	$t(54) = 4.51, p < 0.0005$
		<i>LParSup</i>	$t(54) = 4.82, p < 0.0005$
		<i>RParSup</i>	$t(54) = 4.22, p < 0.001$
Expt. 3a	Face action observation	<i>LIFGop</i>	$t(12) = 1.27, p = 0.516$
		<i>RIFGop</i>	$t(12) = 1.46, p = 0.514$
		<i>LPrecG</i>	$t(12) = 1.40, p = 0.514$
		<i>RPrecG</i>	$t(12) = 1.97, p = 0.514$
		<i>LParSup</i>	$t(12) = 1.36, p = 0.514$
		<i>RParSup</i>	$t(12) < 1 , n.s.$
	Eye action observation	<i>LIFGop</i>	$t(12) = 2.52, p = 0.081$
		<i>RIFGop</i>	$t(12) = 3.68, p < 0.05$
		<i>LPrecG</i>	$t(12) = 3.40, p < 0.05$
		<i>RPrecG</i>	$t(12) = 4.66, p < 0.01$
		<i>LParSup</i>	$t(12) = 3.15, p < 0.05$
		<i>RParSup</i>	$t(12) = 2.03, p = 0.141$
	Mouth action observation	<i>LIFGop</i>	$t(12) = 2.32, p = 0.349$
		<i>RIFGop</i>	$t(12) = 1.40, p = 0.507$
		<i>LPrecG</i>	$t(12) = 1.89, p = 0.499$
		<i>RPrecG</i>	$t(12) = 2.47, p = 0.349$
		<i>LParSup</i>	$t(12) = 1.37, p = 0.507$
		<i>RParSup</i>	$t(12) < 1 , n.s.$
	Hand action observation	<i>LIFGop</i>	$t(12) = 2.00, p = 0.207$
		<i>RIFGop</i>	$t(12) = 2.38, p = 0.126$
		<i>LPrecG</i>	$t(12) = 2.67, p = 0.091$
		<i>RPrecG</i>	$t(12) = 3.91, p < 0.05$
		<i>LParSup</i>	$t(12) = 2.80, p = 0.091$
		<i>RParSup</i>	$t(12) = 1.83, p = 0.236$

Action response in language regions

Expt. 3b	Face action imitation	<i>LIFGop</i>	$t(12) = 2.87, p < 0.05$
		<i>RIFGop</i>	$t(12) = 3.23, p < 0.05$
		<i>LPrecG</i>	$t(12) = 4.50, p < 0.005$
		<i>RPrecG</i>	$t(12) = 7.56, p < 0.0005$
		<i>LParSup</i>	$t(12) = 5.23, p < 0.001$
		<i>RParSup</i>	$t(12) = 3.29, p < 0.05$
	Eye action imitation	<i>LIFGop</i>	$t(12) = 2.09, p = 0.117$
		<i>RIFGop</i>	$t(12) = 2.71, p < 0.05$
		<i>LPrecG</i>	$t(12) = 2.78, p < 0.05$
		<i>RPrecG</i>	$t(12) = 3.64, p < 0.05$
		<i>LParSup</i>	$t(12) = 3.05, p < 0.05$
		<i>RParSup</i>	$t(12) = 1.80, p = 0.164$
	Mouth action imitation	<i>LIFGop</i>	$t(12) = 3.97, p < 0.01$
		<i>RIFGop</i>	$t(12) = 3.26, p < 0.05$
		<i>LPrecG</i>	$t(12) = 4.43, p < 0.005$
		<i>RPrecG</i>	$t(12) = 4.69, p < 0.005$
		<i>LParSup</i>	$t(12) = 4.17, p < 0.005$
		<i>RParSup</i>	$t(12) = 2.05, p = 0.088$
	Hand action imitation	<i>LIFGop</i>	$t(12) = 3.38, p < 0.01$
		<i>RIFGop</i>	$t(12) = 4.44, p < 0.005$
		<i>LPrecG</i>	$t(12) = 4.50, p < 0.005$
		<i>RPrecG</i>	$t(12) = 4.83, p < 0.005$
		<i>LParSup</i>	$t(12) = 4.24, p < 0.005$
		<i>RParSup</i>	$t(12) = 4.50, p < 0.005$

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1096 **Figure legends**

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1098 **Figure 1:** Sample stimuli for each experiment and condition. *Experiment 1.* a. Example

1099 objects, grouped vertically by family. b. Example family of dissimilar actions.

1100 *Experiment 2.* c. Example body action stimuli. d. Two sample face action stimuli.

1101 *Experiment 3a/b.* e. Example face actions. f. Example eye actions. g. Example mouth

1102 actions. h. Example hand actions.

1103

1104 **Figure 2:** Response to the language localizer conditions (estimated in data not used for

1105 fROI definition, as described in Methods) and action conditions across experiments. Next

1106 to each bar graph, we show the language parcels used to constrain the selection of

1107 individual language fROIs; the individual fROIs constitute 10% of each parcel (see

1108 Methods for details). Error bars indicate standard errors of the mean over participants.

1109

1110 **Figure 3:** Responses in multiple-demand regions to the action conditions in Experiments

1111 2 and 3a/b. Next to each bar graph, we show the MD parcels used to constrain the

1112 selection of individual MD fROIs; the individual fROIs constitute 10% of each parcel

1113 (see Methods for details). Error bars indicate standard errors of the mean over

1114 participants.

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1116 **Figure 4:** a. Responses in speech-responsive functional regions of interest (fROIs) in the

1117 auditory cortex (defined by nonword perception > hand action observation contrast in

1118 Experiment 3a, see Methods for details) to the nonword condition and the four action

1119 observation conditions in Experiment 3a. Responses are estimated using data not used for

Action response in language regions

1120 fROI definition (see Methods). Error bars indicate standard error of the mean over
1121 participants. Abbreviations, from left to right: L/R PP – left/right planum polare, L/R PT
1122 – left/right planum temporale, L/R ASTG – left/right anterior superior temporal gyrus,
1123 L/R PSTG – left/right posterior superior temporal gyrus.

1124 b. Responses in articulation-responsive fROIs in the premotor cortex (defined by the
1125 nonword imitation > hand action imitation contrast in Experiment 3b, see Methods for
1126 details) to the nonword imitation condition and the four action imitation conditions in
1127 Experiment 3b. Responses are estimated using data not used for fROI definition (see
1128 Methods). Error bars indicate standard error of the mean over participants. Abbreviations,
1129 from left to right: LPrCG – left precentral gyrus, RiPrCG – right inferior precentral gyrus,
1130 RsPrCG – right superior precentral gyrus.

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