

Vitality forms processing in the insula during action observation: a multivoxel pattern analysis.

Giuseppe Di Cesare¹, Giancarlo Valente², Cinzia Di Dio³, Emanuele Ruffaldi⁴, Massimo Bergamasco⁴, Rainer Goebel², Giacomo Rizzolatti^{1*}

¹Neuroscience, university of parma, Italy, ²Cognitive Neuroscience, Faculty of Psychology and Neuroscience, Netherlands, ³Psychology, Università Cattolica del Sacro Cuore, Italy, ⁴TeCiP Institute, PERCRO, Scuola Superiore Sant'Anna, Italy

Submitted to Journal:
Frontiers in Human Neuroscience

ISSN:
1662-5161

Article type:
Original Research Article

Received on:
08 Mar 2016

Accepted on:
20 May 2016

Provisional PDF published on:
20 May 2016

Frontiers website link:
www.frontiersin.org

Citation:
Di_cesare G, Valente G, Di_dio C, Ruffaldi E, Bergamasco M, Goebel R and Rizzolatti G(2016) Vitality forms processing in the insula during action observation: a multivoxel pattern analysis.. *Front. Hum. Neurosci.* 10:267. doi:10.3389/fnhum.2016.00267

Copyright statement:
© 2016 Di_cesare, Valente, Di_dio, Ruffaldi, Bergamasco, Goebel and Rizzolatti. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the [Creative Commons Attribution License \(CC BY\)](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/). The use, distribution and reproduction in other forums is permitted, provided the original author(s) or licensor are credited and that the original publication in this journal is cited, in accordance with accepted academic practice. No use, distribution or reproduction is permitted which does not comply with these terms.

Provisional

1 **Vitality forms processing in the insula during action observation: a**
2 **multivoxel pattern analysis.**

3 G. Di Cesare¹, G. Valente², C. Di Dio³, E. Ruffaldi⁴, M. Bergamasco⁴, R. Goebel², G. Rizzolatti^{1,5*}

4
5 1 University of Parma, Department of Neuroscience, via Volturmo 39/E, 43100 Parma, Italy.

6 2 Department of Cognitive Neuroscience, Faculty of Psychology and Neuroscience, Maastricht
7 University, 6200 MD Maastricht, The Netherlands.

8 3 Department of Psychology, Università Cattolica del Sacro Cuore, Milan, Italy.

9 4 Scuola Superiore Sant'Anna, TeCiP Institute, PERCRO, Pisa, Italy.

10 5 IIT (Italian Institute of Technology) Brain Center for Social and Motor Cognition, via Volturmo
11 39/E, 43100 Parma, Italy.

12
13 ***Correspondence:**

14 Giacomo Rizzolatti

15 Department of Neuroscience, University of Parma

16 Via Volturmo 39/E

17 43100 Parma, Italy

18 Phone: + 39-0521-903880

19 Email: giacomo.rizzolatti@unipr.it

26 **Abstract**

27 Observing the style of an action done by others allows the observer to understand the cognitive state
28 of the agent. This information has been defined by Stern “vitality forms”. Previous experiments
29 showed that the dorso-central insula is selectively active both during vitality form observation and
30 execution. In the present study we presented participants with videos showing hand actions
31 performed with different velocities and asked them to judge either their vitality form (gentle,
32 neutral, rude) or their velocity (slow, medium, fast). The aim of the present study was to assess,
33 using multi-voxel analysis, whether vitality forms and velocities of observed goal-directed actions
34 are differentially processed in the insula, and more specifically whether action velocity is encoded
35 *per se* or it is an element that triggers neural populations of the insula encoding the vitality form.
36 The results showed that, consistently across subjects, in the dorso-central sector of the insula there
37 were voxels selectively tuned to vitality forms, while voxel tuned to velocity were rare. These
38 results indicate that the dorso-central insula, which previous data showed to be involved in the
39 vitality form processing, contains voxels specific for the action style processing.

40

41

42 **1. Introduction**

43 The observation of goal-directed actions done by another individual allows the observer to achieve,
44 typically, an immediate comprehension of *what* that individual is doing (see Rizzolatti et al., 2014).
45 Besides goal, the observation of a goal-directed action allows the observer to understand, on the
46 basis of *how* the action is performed, the psychological state of the agent. It also provides, in the
47 case of interpersonal actions, an appraisal of the affective/communicative qualities underlying the
48 relation between the agent and the action recipient. These aspects of action comprehension have
49 been named by Stern “vitality affects” or “vitality forms” (Stern, 1985, 2010).

50 According to Stern (1985, 2010), the appraisal of vitality forms depends on the kinematics
51 properties of the observed movement (time, space, force, direction). These movement properties

52 create a particular experience that reflects the affective/communicative state of the agent. The
53 capacity to express and understand the vitality forms is already present in infants. These abilities
54 denote a primordial way to relate to and understand others and represent a fundamental constitutive
55 element of interpersonal relations (Stern, 1985; Trevarthen, 1998; Trevarthen and Aitken, 2001;
56 Stern, 2010).

57 In a previous fMRI study (Di Cesare et al., 2013) an attempt was done to define the brain
58 areas specifically involved in vitality form processing by comparing brain activations during vitality
59 forms judgment with respect to the activations observed during goal understanding of the same
60 action. The results showed that a key structure involved in vitality forms processing was the dorso-
61 central sector of the insular cortex. These data were confirmed by a further experiment in which
62 participants had to judge the vitality form of an action, imagine to perform it, and to execute it (Di
63 Cesare et al., 2015).

64 The aim of the present study was to assess using multi-voxel analysis (MVPA, Cox and
65 Savoy, 2003; Edelman et al., 1998; Haxby et al., 2001; Haynes and Rees, 2005; Norman et al. 2005;
66 Kriegeskorte et al., 2006; Kriegeskorte and Bandettini, 2007a) whether observing an action
67 performed with different velocities will produce in the insula distinct activation patterns according
68 as to whether the participants had to judge the action velocity or pay attention to its vitality form.
69 Videos showing actions performed with three velocities were selected and presented to the
70 participants. These velocities corresponded to fast/rude (1,06 m/s), medium/neutral (0.57 m/s) and
71 slow/gentle (0.38 m/s) velocities and vitality forms, respectively. These velocities were selected on
72 the basis of a preliminary behavioral experiment in which participants observed actions performed
73 with 12 different velocities and had to judge them as very rude/very fast, rude/fast, neutral/medium,
74 gentle/slow, and very gentle/very slow, according to the instructions.

75 The MVPA analysis showed the presence of a large number of discriminative voxels with
76 positive sign, that is exhibiting a statistically significant preference for vitality, relative to velocity
77 while discriminative voxels exhibiting a statistically significant preference for velocity were few.

78 The insula sector containing voxels with positive sign corresponded to the dorso-central sector of
79 the insula.

80 These findings indicate that the dorso-central insula does not encode velocity parameters,
81 but use this information to trigger the region located in the dorso-central insula that previous data
82 showed to be involved in the control of the action style (Di Cesare et al., 2015). These data provide
83 strong support for the view that insula transforms the physical aspects of an observed action in a
84 communicative/affective construct (vitality form). In virtue of this mechanism the observer is able
85 to understand the internal state of others.

86

87 **2. Materials and Methods**

88 **2.1. Behavioral study**

89 **2.1.1. Subjects**

90 Eighteen healthy right-handed participants (mean age = 23.5 yrs, SD =1.85 yrs) took part to the
91 behavioral study. All participants had normal or corrected-to-normal visual acuity. They gave their
92 written informed consent to the experimental procedure, which was approved by the Local Ethics
93 Committee (Parma).

94 **2.1.2. Stimuli and experimental design**

95 The participants were shown video-clips representing two actors, one of which moved an object (a
96 bottle, a can, or a jar) with his right hand towards the other actor (Figure 2 AB). All three actions
97 were performed with 12 different velocities. In all videos, the actor started from the same initial
98 position and reached the same final position. Figure 2 AB shows the action performed with a jar.
99 Each video lasted 2s. A total of 36 stimuli were presented (3 objects x 12 velocities). The
100 experimental design was a 2 x 12 factorial with two levels of task (*vitality*, *velocity*) and twelve
101 levels of velocities (execution time from 500ms to 1600ms).

102 **2.1.3. Paradigm and task**

103 The experiment consisted of four experimental sessions. To avoid possible influences of the
104 velocity task on the vitality task, we presented the vitality task before the velocity one. Thus, in the
105 first two sessions, participants were instructed to judge the vitality forms of the actions, judge them
106 as “very rude”, “rude”, “neutral”, “gentle”, or “very gentle” using a five point scale (*vitality task*).
107 In the third and fourth sessions, participants were asked to evaluate the velocity of the same stimuli
108 and to judge them as “very fast”, “fast”, “medium”, “slow”, and “very slow” using again a five
109 point scale (*velocity task*). Before the first and the third experimental session, participants
110 underwent a training session (vitality training, before to start the session 1; velocity training, before
111 to start the session 3), with different stimuli from those used during the experiment, to familiarize
112 with the experimental procedures and tasks.

113 Using E-Prime software, a total of 36 stimuli were presented for the vitality and velocity
114 tasks (3 actions, i.e. move a bottle, move a jar, move a can, each one presented with 12 different
115 velocity). Each action was presented 10 times per task. Each experimental session consisted of 180
116 trials presented in a randomized order. Each session lasted about 10 minutes, the whole experiment
117 lasting about 45 minutes.

118 The velocity profile of each action was assessed by placing a reflective marker on the object
119 using 3D motion capture system (Vicon OMG, UK). In particular, six infrared cameras (MX2
120 model) recorded the position occupied by the marker in the 3D space for each action performed by
121 the actor with the object. After recording with Vicon Nexus at 100Hz, all recorded data were used
122 to perform a kinematic analysis, using MATLAB (The Mathworks, Natick, MA) software.

123 The 36 stimuli (3 objects x 12 velocities) used in the experiment have been compared by
124 means of the Dynamic Time Warp (DTW; Berndt et al., 1994; Ding et al., 2008) metrics that allows
125 to take into account the little differences in duration of the trajectories. The DTW allows to measure
126 the distance between two time series that have different duration by finding the correspondences
127 between points in the time-series by means of a dynamic programming approach. This metrics has
128 been applied to the modulus of the velocity of each trajectory (and on v_x , v_y , v_z independently) and

129 it produces a 36 by 36 matrix of pairwise distances. The distance matrix has been analyzed for
130 understanding if, for every duration level, the distance among the objects inside each level of
131 velocity, is less than the ones of other duration levels. The results of this analysis showed that there
132 is no difference between the three objects. For this reason we grouped the three objects and
133 calculated the velocity average profiles of the three objects (bottle, can, jar; Figure 1).

134

135 **2.2. fMRI studies**

136 **2.2.1. Participants**

137 Sixteen healthy right-handed volunteers [8 females (mean age = 24.1 yrs, SD = 2 yrs, range = 21-28
138 yrs) and 8 males (mean age = 24.4 yrs, SD = 2.18 yrs, range = 22-29 yrs)] participated in the
139 experiment. All participants had normal or corrected-to-normal visual acuity. They gave their
140 written informed consent to the experimental procedure, which was approved by the Local Ethics
141 Committee (Parma).

142 **2.2.2. Experimental Design and Stimuli**

143 The experimental design was a 2 x 3 factorial with two levels of task (*vitality*, *velocity*) and three
144 levels of vitalities/velocities (*gentle/slow*, *neutral/medium*, *rude/fast*). During the experiment,
145 participants were shown video-clips representing two male actors, one of which (the one sitting on
146 the left side of the screen) performed an action towards the other actor using his right hand (Figure
147 2AB). To keep the observer's attention, the action was executed using three different objects (move
148 a bottle, a can, a jar). All actions were performed using 3 different velocities (execution times:
149 600ms, 1000ms, 1400ms; mean velocity: 1.06 m/s, 0.57 m/s, 0.38 m/s; see Figure 2 C). These
150 stimuli were selected on the basis of a previous behavioral experiment. They mostly corresponded
151 to fast/rude, medium/neutral and slow/gentle velocity/vitality judgments (see also Figure S2). In all
152 videos, the actor started from the same initial position (Figure 2A) and reached the same final
153 position (Figure 2B). Each video lasted 2 s. A total of 9 stimuli were shown (3 *objects* x 3 *execution*
154 *times*).

155 2.2.3. Paradigm and Task

156 Participants lay in the scanner in a dimly lit environment. The stimuli were viewed via digital visors
157 (VisuaSTIM) with a 500.000 px x 0.25 square inch resolution and horizontal eye field of 30°. The
158 digital transmission of the signal to the scanner was via optic fiber. The software E-Prime 2
159 Professional (Psychology Software Tools, Inc., Pittsburgh, USA, <http://www.pstnet.com>) was used
160 both for stimuli presentation and the recording of participants' answers.

161 The experiment was composed of 4 functional runs (2 for *vitality* task, 2 for *velocity* task).
162 Similarly to the behavioral task, to avoid possible biases elicited by the velocity condition on the
163 vitality form judgment, we presented the vitality form condition before the velocity condition. Thus,
164 in the first two runs, we presented participants with video clips and asked them to pay attention to
165 the style of the action (*vitality* task). In the last two runs, we presented participants with the same
166 video clips and asked them to pay attention to action velocity (*velocity* task). A fixation cross was
167 introduced in each video to restrain eye movements.

168 Every run started with a white fixation cross, positioned at the center of a black screen for
169 12s. Each experimental trial presented a single video-clip for 2s followed by a jittered interval
170 (fixation cross) ranging 12-16s. In 10% of cases, after 500ms from video viewing, the participants
171 were cued presenting a task related question lasting 2.5s. During this time they had to provide an
172 explicit response to the stimuli (catch trials). More specifically, during the view of the question cue
173 (2.5s), the participants had to indicate, on a response box placed inside the scanner, whether the
174 observed video was rude/fast, neutral/medium, gentle/slow according to the task-type. In total,
175 participants viewed 50 video-clips (45 experimental trials, 5 catch trials) for each run, presented in a
176 randomized order. Each functional run lasted about 14min.

177 Before the first and the third experimental session, participants underwent a training session
178 (*vitality* training, before to start the session 1; *velocity* training, before to start the session 3), with
179 different stimuli from those used during the experiment, to familiarize with the experimental
180 procedures and tasks.

181

182 **2.2.4. fMRI data acquisition**

183 Anatomical T1-weighted and functional T2*-weighted MR images were acquired with a 3 Tesla
184 General Electrics scanner equipped with an 8-channel receiver head-coil of the Department of
185 Neuroscience of University of Parma. Functional images were acquired using a T2*-weighted
186 gradient-echo, echo-planar (EPI) pulse sequence (acceleration factor 2, 37 interleaved
187 transverse slices covering the whole brain, with a TR time of 2000ms, TE = 30ms, flip-angle = 90
188 degrees, FOV = 205 x 205 mm² inter-slice gap = 0.5 mm, slice thickness = 3 mm, in-plane
189 resolution 2.5 x 2.5 x 2.5 mm³). Each scanning sequence comprised 416 interleaved volumes.
190 Before the third functional run, to allow participants to rest, a high-resolution inversion recovery
191 prepared T1-weighted anatomical scan was acquired for each participant (acceleration factor 2,
192 156 sagittal slices, matrix 256x256, isotropic resolution 1x1x1 mm³, TI=450ms, TR =8100ms, TE =
193 3.2ms, flip angle 12°).

194 **2.3. Statistical analysis**

195 **2.3.1. Univariate analysis**

196 Data analysis was performed with Brain Voyager QX (Brain Innovation). The raw images were pre-
197 processed in Brain Voyager QX performing the following steps: sinc-interpolated slice-time
198 correction, 3D motion correction to correct small head movements, temporal high-pass filtering to
199 remove low frequency components up to seven cycles for time course. Functional slices were then
200 coregistered to the anatomical volume and subsequently transformed into Talairach space. All
201 individual brains were segmented at grey/white matter boundary using a semiautomatic procedure
202 based on intensity values implemented in Brain Voyager QX. We applied a minimal amount of
203 spatial smoothing to reduce the residual effects of head movement (1-mm full-width half-maximum
204 isotropic Gaussian kernel).

205 Data were analyzed using a random-effects model (Friston et al., 1999), implemented in a
206 two-level procedure. In the first level, single-subject fMRI responses were modeled in a General

207 Linear Model (GLM) by a design-matrix comprising the onsets and durations of each event
208 according to the experimental task for each functional run.

209 In the experiment, at the first level, for the task *vitality* we modeled 4 regressors as follows:
210 *Rude, Neutral, Gentle, and Response*; for the task *velocity* we modeled other 4 regressors as
211 follows: *Fast, Medium, Slow, and Response*. The single video of each trial was modeled as a mini
212 epoch lasting 2s. The *Response* for the first level analysis was modeled with 2.5s starting from the
213 question was presented. In the second level analysis (group-analysis), corresponding contrast
214 images of the first level for each participant were entered in a Random Effects GLM (Friston et al.,
215 2002). This model was composed of six regressors (*Fast, Medium, Slow, Rude, Neutral, Gentle*) and
216 considered the pattern of activation obtained for each level in the two tasks (*vitality, velocity*) versus
217 implicit baseline.

218 Within this model, we assessed activations associated with each task vs. implicit baseline
219 ($P_{FDR} < 0.05$). This model did not reveal significant main effect of task (*vitality* vs. *velocity*), levels
220 (*Rude* vs. *Gentle, Neutral* vs. *Gentle, Rude* vs. *Neutral*), or interaction.

221 The location of the activation foci was determined in the Talairach coordinates system.
222 Those cerebral regions for which maps are provided were also localized with using the Talairach
223 Client software (version 2.4.3).

224 **2.3.2. Testing for task-complexity: behavioural analysis**

225 Our contrast of interest, *vitality* vs. *velocity* could have reflected some effects associated with task
226 presentation order such as a possible fatigue effect. To test this possibility, we carried out a further
227 analysis, based on the responses given by the participants during the scanning sessions when
228 presented with the catch trials, i.e. those trials in which the participants were required to give an
229 explicit response on the presented videos, indicating if they were rude, neutral, gentle in terms of
230 *vitality* form (*vitality* task) or fast, medium, slow (*velocity* task). Ten responses were recorded for
231 each task for each participant. The dependent variable was the percent of correct responses ('hits').
232 On these behavioural data, a GLM analysis was carried out.

233 **2.3.3. Multivoxel pattern analysis in the Insula**

234 A multivoxel pattern analysis was then carried out to assess possible different activation patterns in
235 the insula in response to vitality form (rude, neutral, gentle) and velocity (fast, medium, slow). We
236 decoded multivariate pattern of BOLD activation using support vector machine (SVM) classifiers
237 based on stimulus perception. On the basis of our previous results (Di Cesare et al., 2013; 2015), we
238 tested the activation pattern characterizing the insular cortex in response to different action vitality
239 forms (Rude, Neutral, Gentle) compared to their velocities (Fast, Medium, Slow). We built 2
240 regions of interest (ROIs), one at level of the left insula (size of 1533 voxels) and one in the right
241 insula (size of 1346 voxels). In order to build the two ROIs, we drew a line between the border of
242 the insula and the parietal, frontal and temporal opercula cortices, which were all excluded from the
243 ROIs. To make sure that each drawn point belonged to the insula, for each slice we checked the
244 coordinates of 8 different border points with Talairach coordinates (Talairach Client – V. 2.4.3). We
245 also built 2 control ROIs, one (CTRL 1) at level of the white matter (size of 500 voxels, coordinates
246 -28 -41 26) and the other (CTRL 2) at level of Broadman Area 21 (size of 750 voxels, coordinates -
247 48 -4 -22). The control ROIs served to test results reliability as a function of the multivoxel pattern
248 model. All ROIs were built on the mean anatomical structure of the participants. We estimated the
249 response of every voxel in each trial by fitting a standard hemodynamic model to each voxel. The
250 patterns of activation related to each given trial consisted of the set of beta (% change) values
251 associated with one of the six predictors (*task*levels model*) for all voxels considered in the
252 analysis. The Inter-Stimulus-Interval ranged from 6 to 8 TRs (12 to 16s). For each trial, one pre-
253 onset volume and 5 post-onset volumes were used to model the signal.

254 Since the multivoxel pattern model required a comparison between tasks that were presented
255 in separate runs (*vitality task*: runs 1,2; *velocity task*: runs 3,4), we performed a cross-validation
256 scheme considering alternate runs (1,3; 2,4; 2,3; 1,4), dividing them in two different groups
257 (training runs and testing runs). More specifically, we trained linear SVMs on the training datasets
258 (e.g., from runs 1,3) and evaluated the generalization of the model to new data (the test datasets

259 example e.g., from runs 2.4). This procedure was repeated for four possible combinations (1,3 vs.
260 2.4; 2.4 vs. 1,3; 2.3 vs. 1,4; 1,4 vs. 2.3). To ascertain that this difference cannot be explained by
261 global effects such as amplitude differences between runs, we conducted an additional ROI analysis
262 considering only the voxels in the left and right insula, testing for univariate differences between
263 vitality and velocity runs.

264 We reported accuracies for the classification of new trials. Using balanced datasets for
265 training and testing (15 trials for each level, *rude/neutral/gentle*; 15 trials for each level,
266 *fast/medium/slow*), we expected a rate higher than 50% (expected chance level, obtained with 1000
267 permutations, see Figure 4) for each different contrast (*rude vs. fast*, *neutral vs. medium*, *gentle vs.*
268 *slow*). The significance of this difference was assessed by means of non-parametric Wilcoxon sign-
269 rank one-sided test ($\alpha=0.05$).

270 To visualize the spatial activation patterns that were used for classification and to assess
271 consistency across participants, group discriminative maps were created. For each participant, these
272 maps indicated the locations that contributed the most to the discrimination of conditions. After
273 using the linear support vector machine we ranked the features (i.e., voxels) according to their
274 contribution to the discrimination at each individual map level and selected the peaks through
275 thresholding. For each participant, we selected the 50% most discriminative voxels and created
276 group discriminative maps representing the overlap between the 16 participants. To calculate a p-
277 value for each voxel, we used a Monte Carlo simulation, where we randomly selected 50% (or
278 35%) voxels from each subject, and determined the overlap between subjects, under the assumption
279 that the spatial maps are completely unrelated. To account for the multiple tests performed in
280 creating these maps, we thresholded the maps using false discovery rate (Benjamini and Hochberg,
281 1995, with $q = 0.05$), resulting in at least 10 of 16 participants. It is worth noting that we obtained
282 the same activation patterns selecting 35% threshold of most discriminative voxels with FDR
283 corrected group maps representing eight of 16 participants. The classification accuracy for each

284 participant was always calculated with respect to the whole set of features that did not depend on
285 the threshold chosen for the creation maps.

286

287 **3. Results**

288 **3.1. Behavioral study**

289 The participants' judgments obtained during vitality and velocity tasks were automatically
290 converted by E-Prime software in numerical scores (very rude/very fast=5; rude/fast=4;
291 neutral/medium=3; gentle/slow=2; very gentle/very slow=1). The scores were then modeled using a
292 General Linear Model (GLM) by a design matrix, comprising the participants' score related to each
293 task (vitality, velocity), for each execution time (12 levels). The results of the GLM analysis
294 indicate a significant difference in judgments between the two *Tasks* ($F_{1,17}=10.07$, $P<0.05$, partial-
295 $\eta^2=0.37$, $\delta=0.85$). More specifically, the mean score for velocity task (2.83; $SD=0.37$) was shifted
296 towards higher values relative to vitality task (2.66; $SD=0.31$), in spite of the fact that the stimuli
297 execution times were the same. In addition there was also a significant difference in the judgements
298 of the *Execution Times* ($F_{11,187}=310.37$, $P<0.05$, partial- $\eta^2=1$, $\delta=1$). The interaction *Tasks*Execution*
299 *Times* was also significant ($F_{11,187}=5.54$, $P<0.05$, partial- $\eta^2=0.90$, $\delta=0.89$). Post-hoc analysis
300 revealed a significant difference between *Execution Times* comparisons [1-2 (500ms-600ms), 2-3
301 (600ms-700ms), etc., $p<0.05$ Newman Keuls corrected]. As shown in Figure 3, for the interaction
302 *Task*Execution Times*, post hoc analysis revealed a significant difference between vitality task and
303 velocity task except in 9 different comparisons (600ms, 700ms, 800ms, 900ms, 1000ms, 1100ms,
304 1300ms, 1400ms, 1500ms; $p<0.05$ Newman Keuls corrected).

305 The analysis of the response times (RTs) revealed a difference between the two *Tasks*
306 ($F_{1,17}=13.8$, $P<0.05$, partial- $\eta^2=0.46$, $\delta=0.93$) showing that participants were significantly faster in
307 judging movement velocity (mean RT =800ms, $SD=220$ ms) than vitality forms (mean RT=980ms,
308 $SD=295$ ms). In addition there was also a significant difference of RTs in the *Execution Times*
309 ($F_{11,187}=4.3$, $P<0.05$, partial- $\eta^2=0.21$, $\delta=1$).

310 A regression analysis was subsequently carried out to compare vitality and velocity
311 judgment (dependent variable) as a function of the execution time (independent variable). As shown
312 in Figure S2, the best fit curve representing the relation between vitality perception and execution
313 time follows a logarithmic trend ($R^2=0.94$, $F=3060$, $P<0.00$). The same relationship was also
314 observed for the velocity task ($R^2=0.87$, $F=1513$, $P<0.00$). Taken together, these data indicate that
315 the fitting of the vitality and velocity judgments as a function of the execution time, was very
316 similar.

317

318 **3.2. fMRI Experiment**

319 **3.2.1. Response-based analysis testing**

320 This analysis was based on the participants' responses (catch trials) that were indicated in the
321 scanner using a response box during vitality and velocity tasks (see Methods). Within this analysis,
322 we used the number of correct responses (hits, i.e., subjects correct responses to specific velocity or
323 vitality, fast/rude - neutral/medium - gentle/slow) and response times (RTs) as dependent variables
324 to assess possible effects of the two task difficulties. To this purpose, independent repeated measure
325 GLM analyses, with 2 levels of task (vitality and velocity) and 3 levels of execution times (600ms,
326 1000ms, 1400ms), were carried out. With respect to hits, the results revealed no difference between
327 tasks ($P>0.05$), showing that vitality and velocity were both judged correctly. On the contrary, the
328 analysis of RTs revealed a difference between the two tasks ($F_{1,15} = 7, 7$ $P=.014$, $\text{partial-}\eta^2 = .34$,
329 $\delta=.74$) showing that participants were significantly faster in judging movement velocity (mean RT
330 =807ms, $SD=116$ ms) than vitality forms (mean RT =907ms, $SD=102$ ms). The dissociation between
331 accuracy and reaction time will be addressed in the discussion.

332

333 **3.2.2. Univariate analysis**

334 **Overall effect of “vitality” and “velocity” tasks**

335 Observation of the video-clips for each task (*vitality* and *velocity*) vs. implicit baseline revealed a
336 very similar activation pattern (Suppl. Fig 1). In particular, there was a signal increase in visual
337 occipito-temporal areas, parietal lobe, SMA, premotor and prefrontal cortex. Additionally, insular
338 activation was observed bilaterally. The direct contrast *vitality* vs. *velocity* tasks and *velocity* vs.
339 *vitality* tasks, revealed no significant activations ($P>0.05$). Also the GLM analysis performed on the
340 insula did not reveal a significant effect of task [(Left insula, $t(15) = 0.719$, $p = 0.48$, Right insula,
341 $t(15) = -0.618$, $p = 0.53$)].

342 **Contrasts between Vitality forms levels and Velocity levels**

343 All the direct contrasts within vitality task (*Rude vs. Gentle*, *Rude vs. Normal*, *Gentle vs. Normal*,
344 *etc.*) and velocity task (*Fast vs. Slow*; *Fast vs. Medium*; *Slow vs. Medium*, *etc.*) did not reveal a
345 significant activation pattern.

346

347 **3.2.3. Multivariate pattern analysis**

348 The multivoxel pattern analysis revealed that the classifier mean accuracy for the levels across 16
349 participants was, for the left and right insula, respectively: left 58,2% (Wilcoxon, one sided;
350 $p<0.01$) and right 59,6% ($p<0.01$) for the contrast *rude vs. fast*; left 58,8% ($p<0.01$) and right 57,7%
351 ($p<0.01$) for the contrast *neutral vs. medium*; and left 56,7% ($p<0.01$) and right 55,7% ($p<0.01$)
352 for *gentle vs. slow* (Figure 4). For the two control areas (CTRL 1, CTRL 2), the classifier mean
353 accuracy across the same 16 participants was, for the left and right insula, respectively: 51,5%
354 ($p>0.05$) and 51,6% ($p>0.05$) for the contrast *rude vs. fast*; 51,9% ($p>0.05$) and 51,8% ($p>0.05$) for
355 the contrast *neutral vs. medium*; and 50,9% ($p>0.05$) and 51,5% ($p>0.05$) for *gentle vs. slow*, that is
356 chance level (Figure 4).

357 Subsequently, group discriminative maps were constructed and inspected for consistency of
358 spatial activation patterns across participants. Figure 5 shows the pattern of discriminative voxels
359 clustered in the insula. The red color indicates positive weights, corresponding to voxels that were
360 more selective for vitality tasks with respect to velocity tasks, while the blue color indicates

361 negative weights corresponding to voxels that were more selective for velocity tasks with respect to
362 vitality tasks. In the discriminative maps, the three different comparisons (*rude vs. fast*, *neutral vs.*
363 *medium*, *gentle vs. slow*) were collapsed together.

364 In addition, the multivoxel pattern analysis revealed that within each task, the classifier
365 mean accuracy for the comparisons among vitality forms levels (i.e., *rude vs. gentle*, etc.) and
366 velocity task (i.e., *fast vs. slow*, etc.) did not reach significance ($P > 0.05$) (right insula: *rude vs.*
367 *gentle*, 52%, *fast vs. slow*, 51.9%; left insula: *rude vs. fast*, 51.8%, *fast vs. slow*, 50.7%).

368 **4. Discussion**

369 In his seminal book on mother-infant relationship, Daniel Stern (1985) stressed that besides the goal
370 and the intention of the performing agent, there is a third, fundamental aspect that an observer
371 captures when viewing the actions of another individual: the action vitality forms. Vitality forms
372 characterize how an action is performed and are detected on the basis of movement properties.

373 The aim of the present study was to assess whether action velocity, one of the crucial
374 elements for understanding vitality forms, is encoded in the insula as such, or velocity triggers the
375 insula neural populations encoding vitality form. To this purpose we used multi-voxel pattern
376 analysis (MVPA) with the aim to establish whether in the insula there are voxels discriminating
377 vitality form from velocity processing. Before performing the fMRI experiment, we carried out a
378 behavioral study in which we presented arm actions performed at 12 different velocities. The task
379 of the participants was to judge either the velocity or the vitality form of these actions. The results
380 showed that, although the stimuli presented in the two tasks were identical, a significant difference
381 was present in the subjects' judgment according as to whether they were required to classify the
382 observed actions for their vitality form or their velocity. This should indicate that vitality form and
383 velocity processing are two different perceptual constructs. In accord with this conclusion are also
384 the reaction times results indicating that velocity processing was significantly faster than vitality
385 processing (mean velocity RT: 800ms; mean vitality form RT: 980ms).

386 The neural bases of this finding are most likely due to the different circuits that mediate the
387 two tasks. A previous study (Di Dio et al., 2013) investigated the neural correlates of velocity
388 processing during the observation of actions performed by a biological effector (forelimb). The
389 results showed that the circuit included, beside visual-occipito temporal areas and in particular
390 MT/V5 and V6, a sector of the superior parietal lobule, extending towards the intraparietal sulcus,
391 and the premotor cortex. As far as the insula is concerned there was an activation of the rostralmost
392 part of it, known to be involved in cognitive tasks (Kurth et al., 2010), but not of the dorso-central
393 part of the insula encoding vitality forms. It is likely therefore that this cortical circuit, which was
394 found to be also activated in the present experiment, was responsible for the fast RTs during the
395 velocity task. In contrast, the necessity to involve the dorso-central insula and to transform the
396 velocity information into vitality forms, required an additional time and was therefore most likely
397 responsible for longer RTs during vitality task.

398 On the basis of the behavioral study, we also selected three actions, corresponding to
399 fast/rude (execution time: 600ms; mean velocity: 1.06 m/s), medium/neutral (execution time:
400 1000ms; mean velocity: 0.57 m/s) and slow/gentle (execution time: 1400ms; mean velocity: 0.38
401 m/s) velocity/vitality judgments and used them for the fMRI study.

402 The multivoxel pattern analysis revealed the presence of discriminative voxels preferring
403 vitality forms relative to velocity in the dorso-central sector of the insula especially in the right
404 hemisphere. Our findings that the dorso-central part of the insula contains voxels discriminating
405 vitality forms are in agreement with recent findings on the general functional organization of the
406 insula in monkeys and humans. More specifically, monkey experiments in which the insula
407 organization was studied by intracortical electrical stimulation showed that the insula consists of
408 different sectors endowed with specific functional properties. The stimulation of the rostral sector of
409 insula determines positive ingestive behavior dorsally, and negative ingestive behavior (e.g. disgust)
410 ventrally (Jezzini et al., 2012). In contrast, the stimulation of the dorso-central sector of insula,

411 which most likely corresponds to the part activated in the present experiment, elicits body parts
412 movements with a rich representation of the movements of the upper limb.

413 A somehow similar organization pattern has been reported by Kurt et al. (2010) in humans
414 in a meta-analysis based on a very large number of functional neuroimaging experiments. These
415 authors described four main distinct functional fields in the human insula: the cognitive field, the
416 sensorimotor, the olfactory-gustatory and the socio-emotional. Except for the cognitive field that is
417 not clear in the monkey, there is a good correspondence in the two species between the other fields.
418 The sensorimotor field appears to correspond to the sector involved in vitality form observation and
419 production (Di Cesare et al., 2013; 2015). In contrast, the rostral part of the insula and its ventral
420 part are related to classical Darwinian emotions (see on this point Dolan, 2002; Phillips et al., 2003;
421 Wicker et al., 2003; Singer et al., 2004; Pichon et al., 2009). This functional characterization is in
422 accord with the view of Stern mentioned above that there is a fundamental difference between
423 vitality forms and the classical Darwinian emotions.

424 Some very recent findings showed that the dorso-central insula is involved in both vitality
425 form execution and recognition suggesting that neurons of this sector of the insula could be
426 endowed with the mirror mechanism (Di Cesare et al., 2015). An interesting question concerns the
427 output of the dorsal-central insula and how this output may modulate the cortical circuits underlying
428 voluntary movements. A possible answer to this question may come from some anatomical data
429 obtained in the monkey. It has been recently shown that the dorso-central sector of the insula has
430 rich connections with the parietal and frontal areas that form the circuit involved in the organization
431 of arm movements in the monkey (Jeannerod et al., 1995; Nelissen et al., 2011) and namely with
432 areas AIP (Borra et al., 2008), F5 (Gerbella et al., 2011), and 12r (Borra et al., 2011). It is important
433 to stress that a homologous parieto-frontal circuit underlies arm movement organization also in
434 humans (Rizzolatti et al., 2014).

435 In agreement with these findings, showing a connection between insula and parieto-frontal
436 circuit, are also the results of Almashaikhi et al. (2014) who stimulated electrically the middle and

437 posterior short gyri of the insula in patients with drug-resistant epilepsy. The data showed that the
438 stimulation of these insular sectors determines evoked potential in the precentral gyrus and the
439 superior and inferior parietal lobules. These findings confirm the connectivity of these sectors of the
440 insula with the cortical areas involved in the control of the voluntary movements as anatomically
441 demonstrated in the monkey.

442 In conclusion, the main finding of our study is the demonstration that the insula is a key area
443 for vitality forms processing. During social interactions, this area is triggered by the physical
444 aspects of an observed action determining in the observer a communicative/affective construct
445 (vitality form). In virtue of this mechanism, the observer is able to understand the others' internal
446 state. As shown recently by Di Cesare et al. (2015), this mechanism is also involved in vitality
447 form production (i.e., action execution) allowing an individual to communicate his/her affective
448 internal state to others.

449

450

451 **Funding**

452 This study was supported by the Advanced European Research Grant COGSYSTEM to GR.

453 **References**

454 Almashaikhi, T., et al. (2014). Intra-insular Functional Connectivity in Human. *Human Brain*
455 *Mapping*, 35:2779–2788.

456 Almashaikhi, T., et al. (2014). Functional Connectivity of Insular Efferences *Human Brain*
457 *Mapping*, 35:5279–5294.

458 Benjamin, Y., Hochberg, Y. (1995). Controlling the false discovery rate: a practical and powerful
459 approach to multiple testing. *J.R. Statist. Soc. B*, 57 (1), 289-300.

460 Berndt, Donald J., Clifford, J. (1994). Using Dynamic Time Warping to Find Patterns in Time
461 Series. In KDD workshop, vol. 10. no. 16, 359-370.

462 Borra, E., et al. (2008). Cortical connections of the macaque anterior intraparietal (AIP) area.
463 *Cerebral Cortex*, 18, 1094-111.

464 Borra, E., Gerbella, M., Rozzi, S., Luppino, G. (2011). Anatomical evidence for the involvement
465 of the macaque ventrolateral prefrontal area 12r in controlling goal-directed actions. *The*
466 *Journal of Neuroscience*, 31, 12351-63.

467 Cox, D.D., Savoy, R.L. (2003). Functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) “brain reading”:
468 detecting and classifying distributed patterns of fMRI activity in human visual cortex.
469 *Neuroimage*, 19, 261–70.

470 Di Cesare, G., Di Dio, C., Rochat, M.J., Sinigaglia, C., Bruschweiler-Stern, N., Stern, D.N.,
471 Rizzolatti, G. (2013). The neural correlates of “vitality form” recognition: an fMRI study.
472 *Social Cognitive and Affective Neuroscience*, doi:10.1093/scan/nst068.

473 Di Cesare, G., Di Dio, C., Marchi, M., Rizzolatti, G. (2015). Expressing our internal states and
474 understanding those of others. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, doi:
475 10.1073/pnas.1512133112.

476 Di Dio, C., Di Cesare, G., Higuchi, S., Roberts, N., Vogt, S., Rizzolatti, G. (2012). The neural
477 correlates of velocity processing during the observation of a biological effector in the parietal
478 and premotor cortex. *Neuroimage*, 64:425-36.

479 Ding, H., Trajcevski, G., Scheuermann, P., Wang, X., Keogh, E. (2008). Querying and mining of
480 time series data: experimental comparison of representations and distance measures."
481 *Proceedings of the VLDB Endowment* 1, 2: 1542-1552.

482 Dolan, R.J. (2002). Emotion, cognition, and behavior. *Science*, 298, 1191–4.

483 Edelman, S., Grill-Spector K., Kushnir T., Malach R. (1998). Toward direct visualization of the
484 internal shape space by fMRI. *Psychobiology*, 26, 309–321.

485 Eickhoff, S., Stephan, K.E., Mohlberg, H., et al. (2005). A new SPM toolbox for combining
486 probabilistic cytoarchitectonic maps and functional imaging data. *Neuroimage*, 25(4), 1325–
487 35.

488 Friston, K.J., Holmes, A.P., Worsley, K.J. (1999). How many participants constitute a study?
489 *Neuroimage*, 10. 1–5.

490 Friston, K.J., Glaser, D.E., Henson, R.N., Kiebel, S., Phillips, C., Ashburner, J. (2002). Classical
491 and Bayesian inference in neuroimaging: applications. *Neuroimage*, 16, 484–512.

492 Gallese, V., Keysers, C., Rizzolatti, G. (2004). A unifying view of the basis of social cognition.
493 *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, 8(9):396-403.

494 Gerbella, M., Belmalih, A., Borra, E., Rozzi, S., Luppino, G. (2011). Connections of the anterior
495 (F5a) subdivision of the macaque ventral premotor area F5. *Brain Structure and Function*,
496 216, 43-65.

497 Haynes, J.-D., Rees, G. (2005). Predicting the orientation of invisible stimuli from activity in
498 human primary visual cortex. *Nature Neuroscience*, 8, 686–91.

499 Haxby, J.V., Gobbini, M.I., Fury, M., Ishai, A., Schouten, J.L., Pietrini, P. (2001). Distributed and
500 overlapping representations of faces and objects in ventral temporal cortex. *Science*, 293,
501 2425–30.

502 Jeannerod, M., Arbib, M.A., Rizzolatti, G., Sakata, H. (1995). Grasping objects: the cortical
503 mechanisms of visuomotor transformation. *Trends in Neuroscience*, 18, 314-20.

504 Jezzini, A., Caruana, F., Stoianov, I., Gallese, V., Rizzolatti, G. (2012). The functional organization
505 of the insula and of inner perisylvian regions: an intracortical microstimulation study.
506 *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, 109(25),
507 10077–82.

508 Kriegeskorte, N., Bandettini, P., 2007a. Analyzing for information, not activation, to exploit high-
509 resolution fMRI. *NeuroImage*, 38, 649-662.

510 Kriegeskorte, N., Goebel, R., Bandettini, P., 2006. Information-based functional brain mapping.
511 PNAS 103, 3863–3868.

512 Kurth, F., Zilles, K., Fox, P.T., Laird, A.R., Eickhoff, S.B. (2010). A link between the systems:
513 functional differentiation and integration within the human insula revealed by meta-analysis.

- 514 *Brain Structure Function*, 214, 519–34.
- 515 Nelissen, K., Vanduffel, W., (2011). Grasping-related functional magnetic resonance imaging brain
516 responses in the macaque monkey. *The Journal of Neuroscience*, 31, 8220-9.
- 517 Norman, K.A., Polyn S.M., Detre G.J., Haxby J.V. (2006) Beyond mind-reading: multi-voxel
518 pattern analysis of fMRI data. *Trends of Cognitive Science*,10(9):424–30.
- 519 Phillips, M.L., Drevets, W.C., Rauch, S.L., Lane, R. (2003). Neurobiology of emotion perception I:
520 the neural basis of normal emotion perception. *Biological Psychiatry*, 54, 504–14.
- 521 Pichon, S, Gelder B, Grezes J. (2009). Two different face of threat. Comparing the neural systems
522 for recognizing fear and anger in dynamic body expressions. *Neuroimage*,1873-83.
- 523 Rizzolatti, G., Cattaneo, C., Fabbri-Destro, M., Rozzi, S. (2014). Cortical Mechanisms underlying
524 the organization of goal-directed actions and mirror neuron-based action understanding.
525 *Physiological Review*, 94(2): 655-706.
- 526 Singer, T., et al. (2004). Empathy for pain involves the affective but not sensory components of
527 pain. *Science*. 303, 1157-62.
- 528 Stern, D.N. (1985). *The Interpersonal World of the Infant*. New York: Basic Books.
- 529 Stern, D.N. (2010). *Forms of Vitality Exploring Dynamic Experience in Psychology, Arts,*
530 *Psychotherapy, and Development*. Oxford: Oxford University press.
- 531 Trevarthen, C. (1998). The concept and foundations of infant intersubjectivity. In: Braten, S., editor.
532 *Intersubjective Communication and Emotion in Early Ontogeny*. Cambridge: Cambridge
533 University Press.
- 534 Trevarthen, C., Aitken, K.J. (2001). Infant intersubjectivity: research, theory and clinical
535 applications. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 42(1), 3–48.

536

537 **Figures**

538 **Figure 1.** The graph depicts the average velocity profiles of the action performed by the male actor
539 during twelve different execution times. Each velocity curve represents the main velocity used by

540 the actor to perform the action (pass an object towards the other actor) using three different objects
541 (bottle, can, jar) at twelve different execution times.

542

543 **Figure 2.** Example of video-clips as viewed by the participants in the Experiment (**AB**). Frame
544 representing an action with the object in the start position (**A**); frame representing the same action
545 in the end position (**B**). Velocity and trajectory profiles of the actions performed by the male actor
546 (move a bottle, can and jam) with three vitality forms (**CD**). Graph depicts the velocity profiles (Y
547 axes) and duration (X axes) (**C**). Graph depicts the action trajectories (gentle, blue line; neutral,
548 green line; rude, red line) (**D**). The variance among objects is represented by the lines boundary.

549

550 **Figure 3.** Participants' judgements relative to vitality and velocity tasks. Graph shows for each
551 level the score of the participants during vitality and velocity tasks. *Asterisk indicates the
552 significant comparison between tasks relative to post hoc analysis for the interaction
553 *Task*Execution Times* ($P < 0.05$ Newman Keuls corrected). The bars indicate the standard deviation
554 (SD).

555

556 **Figure 4.** Mean classification accuracy for sixteen participants. Accuracies obtained for the
557 contrasts: *rude vs. fast* (**A**), *neutral vs. medium* (**B**), *gentle vs. slow* (**C**). Accuracies were
558 significantly different respect to the chance level (50%) only in the left and right insula. Differently,
559 in each contrast level, control areas (CTRL 1, CTRL 2) not differ significantly from chance (50%).

560

561 **Figure 5.** Maps group of 50% of most discriminative active voxels for the perceptual difference of
562 vitality forms (red) and velocity (blue) collapsing three different contrasts (*rude vs. fast*, *neutral vs.*
563 *medium*, *gentle vs. slow*) in the right (**A**) and in the left (**B**) insula. Each voxel was reported if it was
564 present in at least 10 of the 16 participants. These activation patterns ($P_{FDR} < 0.05$) are overlaid on
565 the average anatomical template of 16 participants in Tailarach coordinates.

566

567

568

569 **Table 1.** Cerebral activity during (A) *Vitality forms vs. baseline*; (B) *Velocity vs. Baseline*. Local
 570 maxima, as shown in Figure S1, are given in Talairach brain coordinates, significant threshold has
 571 been set at $P_{FDR} < 0.05$.

Anatomical region	Left Hemisphere				Right Hemisphere			
	x	y	z	t	x	y	z	t
(A) Vitality forms vs. Baseline								
Cerebellum					53	-56	-24	6,1
Inferior Frontal Gyrus					50	37	3	5,3
Middle Frontal Gyrus	-37	46	15	7,9	38	46	15	4,9
Superior Frontal Gyrus	-13	-5	63	5,4	29	43	9	4,9
Medial Frontal Gyrus	-7	16	42	10,5				
Precuneus					2	-50	51	5,6
Supramarginal Gyrus	-52	-41	30	6,4				
Middle Temporal Gyrus	-49	-44	0	5,4				
Corpus Callosum	-10	-26	24	14,7				
(B) Velocity vs. Baseline								
Middle Occipital Gyrus	-22	-89	15	15,7				
Cerebellum					53	-53	24	6,4
Fusiform Gyrus					44	-32	-12	6,1
Middle Frontal Gyrus	-34	40	18	5,8	35	34	27	5,5
Post Central Gyrus					35	-20	30	6
Superior Frontal Gyrus					23	55	12	5,7
Thalamus					17	-11	15	5,6
Cingulate Gyrus	-10	13	42	9,8				
Precuneus					5	-53	42	6,5
Cerebellum	-10	-56	-33	6,3				
Precentral Gyrus	-25	-11	48	5,7				
Inferior Frontal Gyrus	-49	7	30	5,6				
Middle temporal Gyrus	-49	-44	3	5,8				

572

573 **Figure S1.** Signal change during (A) *vitality task vs. implicit baseline* and (B) *velocity task vs.*
 574 *implicit baseline (fixation cross)*. These activations ($P_{FDR} < 0.05$) are rendered into a Talairach brain
 575 template.

576 **Figure S2.** Regression graphs. Graphs depict the logarithmic relation between participants'
 577 judgments during the tasks (velocity task , A; vitality task, B) and action execution time (ms). For
 578 each execution time, points indicates participants mean score (very rude/very fast=5; rude/fast=4;

579 neutral/medium=3; gentle/slow=2; very gentle/very slow=1). The velocity peak corresponding to
580 each judgment is reported on the right side.

581

582

Provisional

Figure 02.JPEG

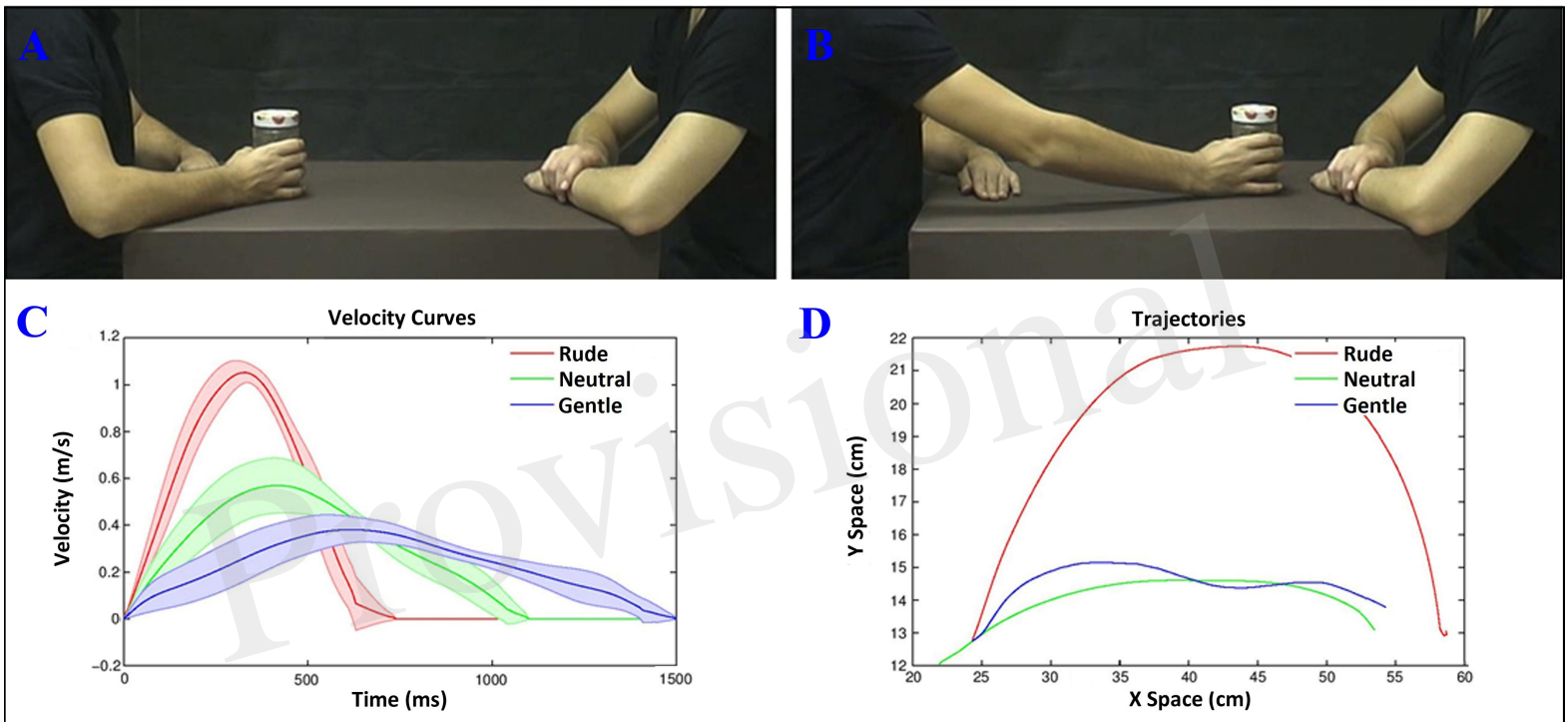


Figure 03.JPEG

Provisional

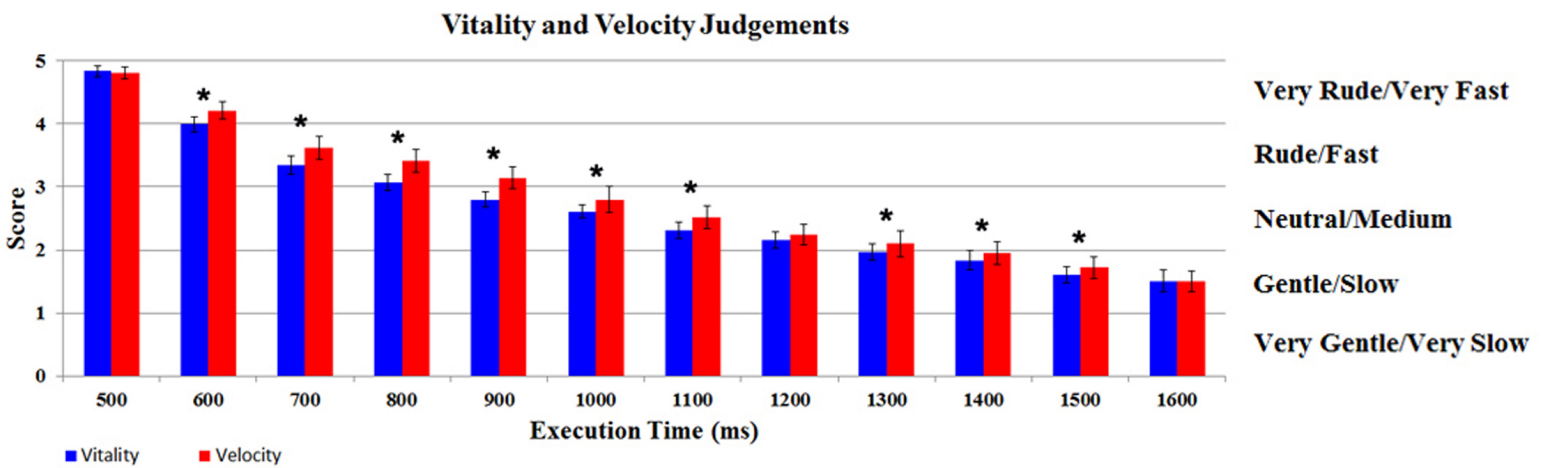
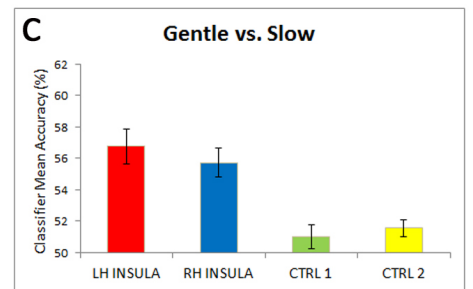
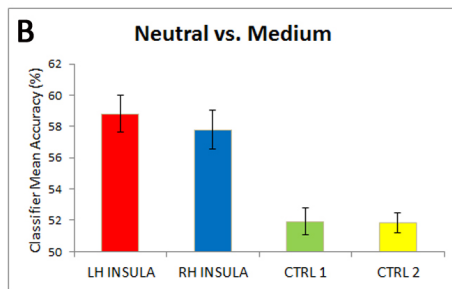
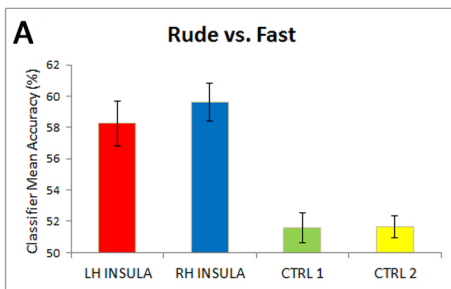
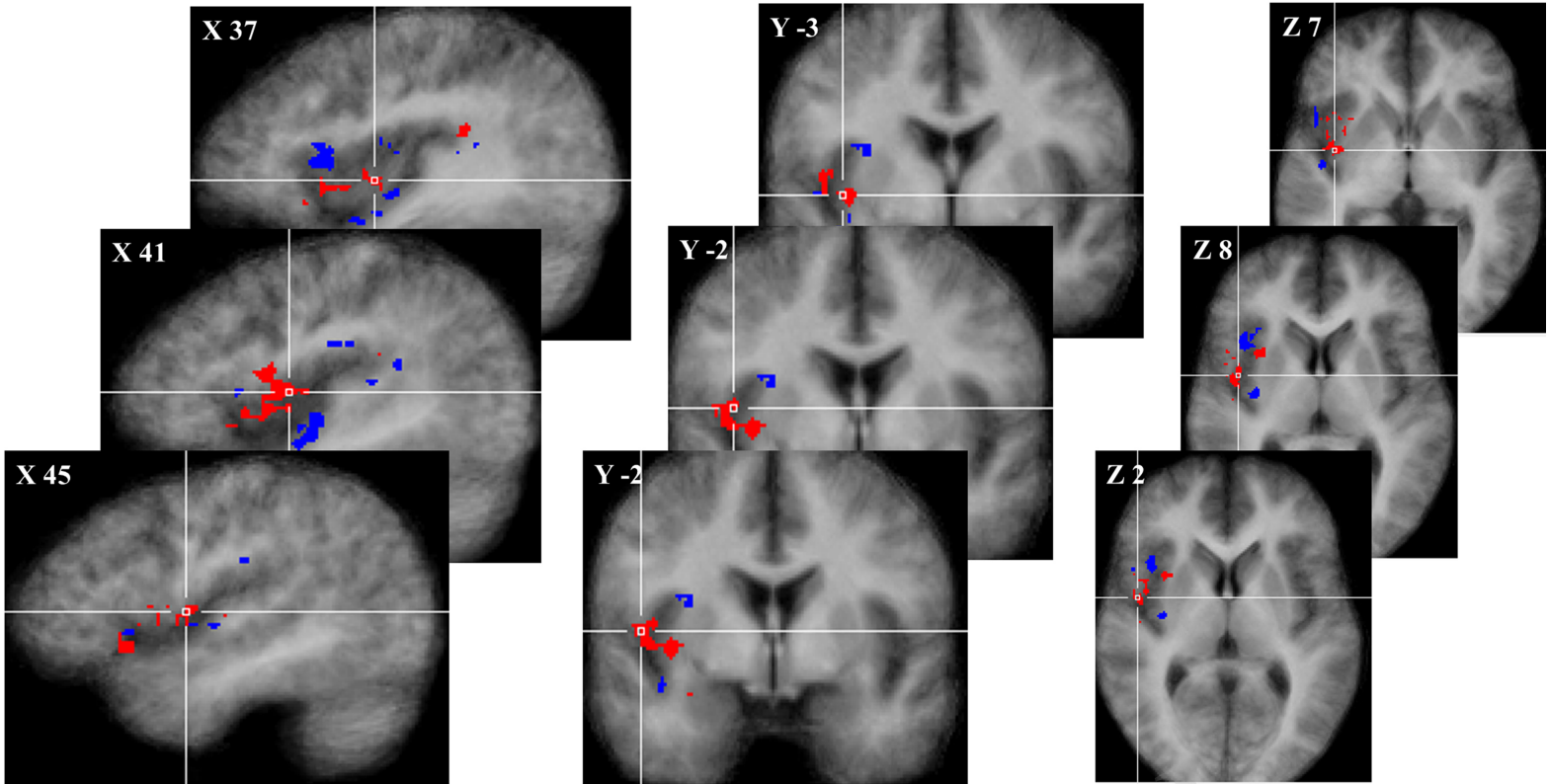


Figure 04.JPEG

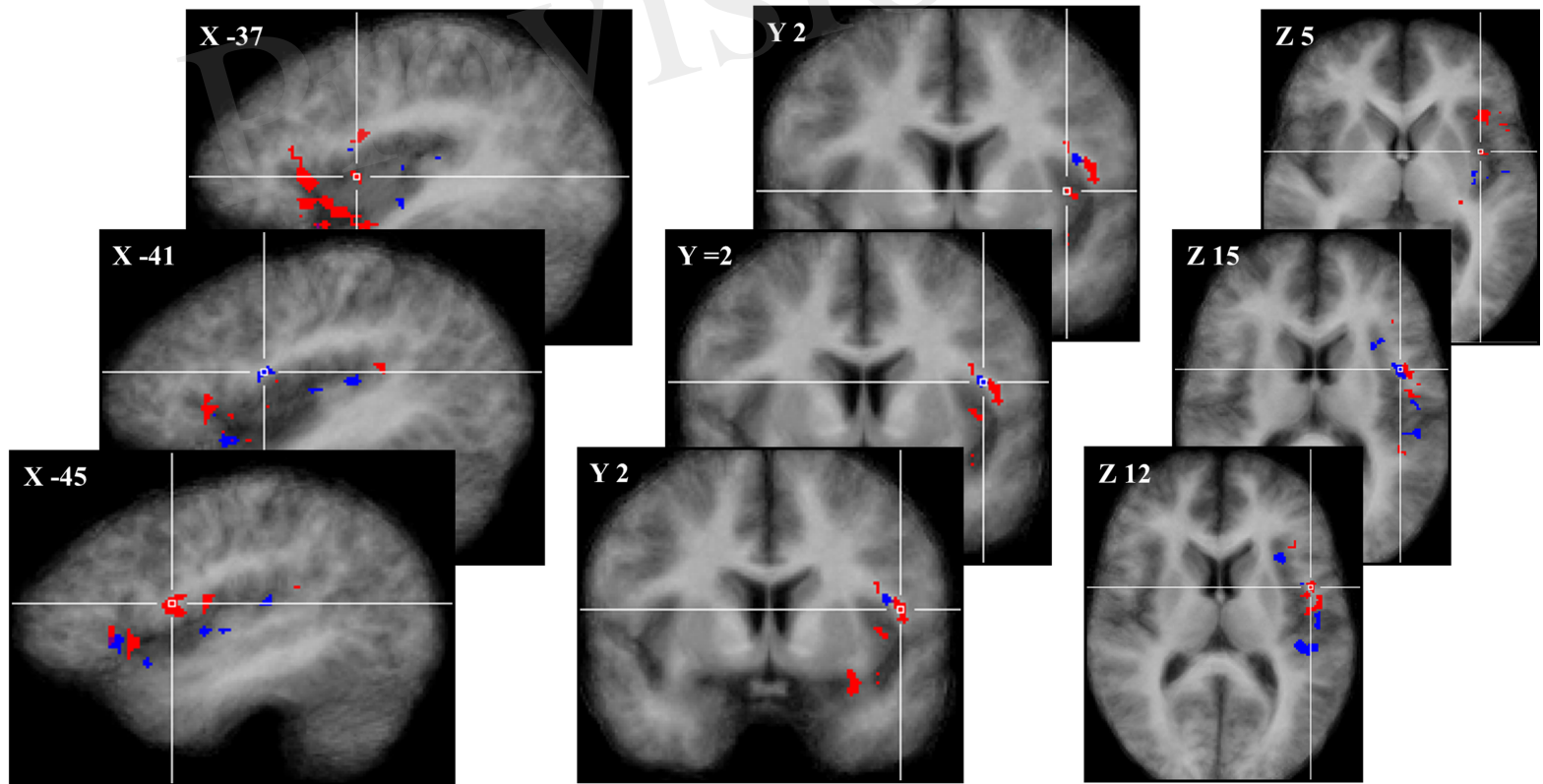
Provisional



A Vitality and Velocity Activation Patterns (right insula)



B Vitality and Velocity Activation Patterns (left insula)



■ Vitality vs. Velocity ■ Velocity vs. Vitality