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**Neural representations of concreteness and concrete  
concepts are specific to the individual**

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## 1 Abstract

2 Different people listening to the same story may converge upon a largely shared interpretation  
3 while still developing idiosyncratic experiences atop that shared foundation. What linguistic  
4 properties support this individualized experience of natural language? Here, we investigate how  
5 the “concrete-abstract” axis — i.e., the extent to which a word is grounded in sensory experience  
6 — relates to within- and across-subject variability in the neural representations of language.  
7 Leveraging a dataset of human participants of both sexes who each listened to four auditory  
8 stories while undergoing functional MRI, we demonstrate that neural representations of  
9 “concreteness” are both reliable across stories and relatively unique to individuals, while neural  
10 representations of “abstractness” are variable both within individuals and across the population.  
11 Using natural language processing tools, we show that concrete words exhibit similar neural  
12 representations despite spanning larger distances within a high-dimensional semantic space,  
13 which potentially reflects an underlying representational signature of sensory experience —  
14 namely, imageability — shared by concrete words but absent from abstract words. Our findings  
15 situate the concrete-abstract axis as a core dimension that supports both shared and  
16 individualized representations of natural language.

17

18

## 19 **Significance Statement**

20 The meaning of spoken language is often ambiguous. As a result, people may form different  
21 interpretations despite being presented with the same information. What properties of language  
22 does the brain leverage to form this diverse, individual experience? Analyses of functional MRI  
23 data demonstrated that "concreteness", the extent to which language is related to sensory  
24 experience, evoked reliable neural patterns that were unique to individual subjects and allowed  
25 us to identify individuals solely based on their neural data. Application of machine learning  
26 methods showed that sets of concrete concepts, but not abstract concepts, show stable neural  
27 patterns, potentially due to a sensory signature: imageability. Overall, this study characterizes  
28 concreteness as a central property supporting the individualized experience of real-world  
29 language.

## 30 Introduction

31 The success of language as a means of communication relies on a shared understanding of the  
32 meanings of words as links to mental concepts (Elman, 2004; Stolk et al., 2016; Thompson et al.,  
33 2020). While people generally converge in how they understand and represent language  
34 (Fedorenko & Thompson-Schill, 2014; Malik-Moraleda et al., 2022), the conceptual associations  
35 evoked by a given word can also be highly individualized and informed by experience (Elman,  
36 2009; Yee & Thompson-Schill, 2016). What linguistic properties scaffold common conceptual  
37 knowledge while also providing the foundation for idiosyncratic representations?

38

39 A large body of empirical and theoretical work has suggested that human knowledge is organized  
40 along an axis that moves from concrete, sensory-based representations to abstract, language-  
41 derived representations (Bedny & Caramazza, 2011; Bi, 2021; Borghi et al., 2017; Paivio, 1991).  
42 Within this framework, “concrete” words are experienced directly through senses or actions (e.g.,  
43 dog, table) while “abstract” words have meanings dependent on language (e.g., idea, plan).

44 Together, concreteness and abstractness represent ends of a continuum of “sensory grounding”,  
45 where a given word can be placed along this axis based on the degree to which it can be  
46 experienced directly through one’s senses. Accordingly, each word is assumed to share this  
47 property with other words at a similar position along the axis, irrespective of their meanings.  
48 Theories of “grounded cognition” (Barsalou, 2008; Binder & Desai, 2011) propose that concrete  
49 words benefit from being jointly represented across both sensory and linguistic domains and, as  
50 a result, exhibit more stable representations than abstract words. Recent findings from human  
51 neuroimaging provide support for these theories, demonstrating close topographical and  
52 functional correspondence between representations of sensory and linguistic information (Deniz  
53 et al., 2019; Huth et al., 2016; Popham et al., 2021). In turn, the concreteness of words benefits

54 behavior: concrete words are processed faster (Kroll & Merves, 1986; Paivio & Begg, 1971;  
55 Roxbury et al., 2014; Schwanenflugel et al., 1988), are more imageable (Altarriba et al., 1999;  
56 Tuckute et al., 2018), and are more easily recalled than abstract words (Aka et al., 2021; Gorman,  
57 1961; M. Hamilton & Rajaram, 2001; Romani et al., 2008; Walker & Hulme, 1999).

58

59 While studies often highlight population-level commonalities in how people process and represent  
60 concrete versus abstract words, researchers have also identified differences in how individuals  
61 organize and represent concrete versus abstract language (X. Wang & Bi, Yanchao, 2021).  
62 Specifically, concrete words are more similar both across (X. Wang & Bi, Yanchao, 2021) and  
63 within subjects (Musz & Thompson-Schill, 2015) in both their conceptual organization (as  
64 measured behaviorally with a semantic distance task) and neural representations. However, the  
65 extent to which representations of the concrete-abstract axis itself, rather than individual words  
66 along that axis, are stable across experiences and unique to each person remains unclear. On  
67 one hand, representations of individual concrete words may be more stable due to each word's  
68 unique sensory grounding that stabilizes its own representation and distinguishes it from other  
69 words. On the other hand, the property of concreteness may provide a shared structure that  
70 supports the representation of each individual word, elevating the similarity among all concrete  
71 words as a class despite differences in sensory grounding and word meaning. Together, this  
72 complicates the interpretation of previous findings: across subjects, the low similarity of abstract  
73 word representations may result not only from variability in individual word representations, but  
74 also variability in representing the property of "abstractness" more generally (Figure 1C).

75

76 One possibility is that representations of abstractness might be highly individualized—in other  
77 words, both unique to the individual and shared across distinct abstract words within that

78 individual. Such individual-specific representations would be evidenced by high within-subject  
79 similarity across exposures to different abstract words, despite low across-subject similarity.  
80 Another possibility is that low similarity results from unstable representations of abstractness. In  
81 this case, representations would show low similarity both within and across subjects that could  
82 result from high variability in abstractness across contexts. Yet, without evaluating the reliability  
83 of representations *within* subjects and *across* words, the low similarity of abstract word  
84 representations *across* subjects is difficult to interpret.

85

86 Here, we aimed to understand how the concrete-abstract axis provides a foundation for individual  
87 differences in the neural representation of language. We investigated this question within a large  
88 dataset of subjects who listened to four naturalistic auditory stories during functional magnetic  
89 resonance imaging (fMRI). Unlike many previous investigations that used isolated single-word or  
90 otherwise simplified paradigms (Binder et al., 2005; Fernandino et al., 2022; Friederici et al., 2000;  
91 Musz & Thompson-Schill, 2015; Roxbury et al., 2014; Vignali et al., 2023; X. Wang & Bi, Yanchao,  
92 2021; West & Holcomb, 2000), these data allowed us to characterize neural representations of  
93 the concrete-abstract axis within contextualized speech, as language is used in everyday life (L.  
94 S. Hamilton & Huth, 2020). We tested not only the extent to which neural representations of  
95 concreteness and abstractness are consistent across subjects, but also the degree to which these  
96 representations are reliable within and unique to a given subject across stories. Then, by  
97 leveraging tools from natural language processing, we relate our findings on concreteness and  
98 abstractness to prior work on word meanings by taking sets of similar concepts as a proxy for  
99 repeated words across stories. Specifically, we examined how the organization of words within a  
100 high-dimensional semantic space relates to differential reliability of how concreteness versus  
101 abstractness are represented in the human brain.

102 **Methods**103 **Participants**

104

105 We used a subset of data from the publicly available *Narratives* dataset (Nastase et al., 2021).  
106 Specifically, we used data from 45 subjects (N=33 female; mean age 23.3 +/- 7.4 years) who  
107 each listened to four auditory stories (“Running from the Bronx”, 8:56 min; “Pie Man (PNI)”, 6:40  
108 min; “I Knew You Were Black”, 13:20 min; “The Man Who Forgot Ray Bradbury”, 13:57 min)  
109 during fMRI scans at the Princeton Neuroscience Institute (Figure 1A). All stories were collected  
110 within the same testing session and each story was collected within a separate run. Across  
111 participants, the order of stories was pseudo-randomized such that “Bronx” and “Pie Man (PNI)”  
112 were always presented in the first half of the session while “Black” and “Forgot” were presented  
113 in the second half of the session. The order of the stories presented within each half of the session  
114 was then randomized, resulting in four possible presentation orders across participants. All  
115 participants completed written informed consent, were screened for MRI safety and reported  
116 fluency in English, having normal hearing, and no history of neurological disorders. The study was  
117 approved by the Princeton University Institutional Review Board.

118

119 **MRI data acquisition and preprocessing**

120

121 Functional and anatomical images were collected on a 3T Siemens Magnetom Prisma with a 64-  
122 channel head coil. Whole-brain images were acquired (48 slices per volume, 2.5mm isotropic  
123 resolution) in an interleaved fashion using a gradient-echo EPI (repetition time (TR) = 1.5s, echo

124 time (TE) = 31ms, flip angle (FA) = 67°) with a multiband acceleration factor of 3 and no in-plane  
125 acceleration. A total of 1717 volumes were collected for each participant across four separate  
126 scan runs, where a single story was presented within each run.

127

128 We used preprocessed data provided by Nastase et al., 2021. In brief, data were preprocessed  
129 using *fmriprep* (Esteban et al., 2019) including co-registration, slice-time correction, and non-  
130 linear alignment to the MNI152 template brain. Time-series were detrended with regressors for  
131 motion, white matter, cerebrospinal fluid and smoothed with a 6mm FWHM gaussian kernel. For  
132 more information about data acquisition and preprocessing, please refer to Nastase et al., 2021.

133

134 As an additional preprocessing step, we performed functional alignment on these data using a  
135 shared response model (Chen et al., 2015) as implemented in *BrainIAK* (Kumar et al., 2021).  
136 Previous work has demonstrated better functional alignment by fitting a SRM within each parcel  
137 (Bazeille et al., 2021). Accordingly, we restricted our analyses to the neocortex and used the 200-  
138 parcel Schaefer parcellation (Schaefer et al., 2018) and removed any parcel without at least 75%  
139 coverage across all participants and stories (total parcels removed: 9/200, or 4.5%). Within each  
140 remaining parcel, we then fit a model to capture reliable responses to all stories across  
141 participants in a lower dimensional feature space (number of features = 50). We then inverted the  
142 parcel-wise models to reconstruct the individual voxel-wise time courses for each participant and  
143 each story (Yates et al., 2021). This procedure served as an additional denoising step to improve  
144 the consistency of stimulus-driven spatiotemporal patterns across participants. All analyses were  
145 conducted in volume space and projected to surface space (*fsaverage*) using *nilearn* (Abraham  
146 et al., 2014) for visualization purposes only.

147

148 **Stimulus preprocessing**

149

150 Each story was originally transcribed and aligned to the audio file using the Gentle forced-  
151 alignment algorithm by the authors of Nastase et al., 2021. We applied additional preprocessing  
152 to the transcripts using the Natural Language Toolkit (Bird et al., 2009). First, we obtained parts-  
153 of-speech and word lemmas — the base form of a word (e.g., “go” is the lemma for “going”, “gone”  
154 and “went”) — for each word, and excluded stop-words (uninformative, common words) such as  
155 “the”, “a”, and “is”.

156

157 To address our hypotheses, we leveraged an existing corpus of human ratings of word  
158 concreteness (Brysbaert et al., 2014). In this study, online participants rated a total of 40,000  
159 English word lemmas on a 5-point Likert scale from abstract (lower) to concrete (higher). Each  
160 word was rated by at least 25 participants. Participants were instructed to consider a word as  
161 more concrete if it refers to something that exists in reality and can be experienced directly through  
162 senses or actions, and, in contrast, to consider a word as more abstract if its meaning depends  
163 on language and cannot be experienced directly through senses or actions. Henceforth, we use  
164 “concrete-abstract axis” to refer to this general linguistic dimension, and “concreteness” as a  
165 word’s specific position on this axis.

166

167 For each word in each story, we assigned a value of concreteness using the average human  
168 rating for that word’s lemma if it was present in the concreteness corpus (Figure 1B). In addition  
169 to our critical predictor (concreteness), we included three other linguistic properties as controls:  
170 frequency (Brysbaert et al., 2019; Brysbaert & New, 2009), a measure of how often a word occurs

171 in language, and two affective properties, valence and arousal (Warriner et al., 2013). Word  
172 frequency was derived objectively by calculating the number of occurrences of a word per million  
173 words (51 million total words), while valence and arousal were derived from human ratings  
174 analogous to the concreteness ratings described above. Previous research investigating word  
175 frequency effects have demonstrated that less frequent words drive stronger neural responses  
176 within the language network (Fiebach et al., 2002; Schuster et al., 2016). A separate set of studies  
177 investigating affect have demonstrated that valence and arousal contribute to representations of  
178 language within areas related to emotion processing and memory (Brooks et al., 2016; Kensinger  
179 & Schacter, 2006). While the selected control properties are not a definitive list, including them  
180 as “competition” allows us to make inferences that are more specific to the concrete-abstract axis.  
181 Our analysis was then constrained to the set of words with a value for any of the four properties  
182 (i.e., the union), resulting in 97.7% of content words sampled on average across stories (2449  
183 words of the possible 2500 content words). We were able to model the majority of these content  
184 words within each linguistic predictor (concreteness: 96.4%, frequency: 97.7%, valence: 83%,  
185 arousal: 83%). Importantly, collinearity between the critical regressor, concreteness, and other  
186 linguistic properties varied, showing a moderate relationship with word frequency and weak  
187 relationships with all other properties (average Pearson’s  $r$  across stories: arousal = -0.10;  
188 frequency = -0.30; valence = -0.05).

189

## 190 fMRI Analysis

191

### 192 Modeling representations of word properties

193

194 For each story and participant, we used a general linear model (GLM) to estimate BOLD  
195 responses for each linguistic property (concreteness, frequency, valence, arousal), plus a low-  
196 level auditory feature regressor (loudness: the root mean square of the auditory waveform). We  
197 collectively refer to these linguistic and sensory properties as “word properties”.

198

199 To construct a continuous, amplitude-modulated regressor, each word property was assigned a  
200 value at each timepoint of the story timeseries based on the word(s) spoken at that timepoint. We  
201 then modeled BOLD signal as a function of these regressors using AFNI (Cox, 1996). The model  
202 yields a map of beta values that correspond to responses to each property, where higher and  
203 lower values indicate higher and lower values of a given linguistic property (e.g., higher = more  
204 concrete, lower = more abstract). As all word properties were included in the same model, the  
205 resulting beta values represent the BOLD response to a given property while controlling for all  
206 other properties.

207

208 Using the outputs from these models, we first examined group-level univariate responses to each  
209 word property using a linear-mixed effects model. At each voxel, the model predicts BOLD activity  
210 from the fixed effects of each property plus the random effects of subject and story. The model  
211 therefore yields a map of beta values that describes consistent neural responses to each property  
212 across stories and subjects. All voxel-wise results are shown following correction for multiple  
213 comparisons ( $q_{FDR} < 0.05$ ).

214

215   **Evaluating the reliability of representations of the concrete-abstract axis and other word  
216   properties**

217

218   To understand whether word properties elicit reliable representations during story listening (Figure  
219   1C), we examined the within- and across-subject multivariate pattern similarity of evoked  
220   responses for each property across stories. We first divided the cortex into 200 parcels using the  
221   Schaefer parcellation (Schaefer et al., 2018). Then, within each parcel, we correlated the  
222   multivoxel pattern of beta values between all pairs of participants, repeating this process for each  
223   unique pair of stories (six total pairs). Lastly, we averaged across all story-pair matrices to obtain  
224   a subject similarity matrix for each parcel (denoted as  $M$  within the following equations). We  
225   repeated this procedure for each property to understand the similarity of neural representations  
226   across stories both within- and across-subjects. See Figure 1D for a schematic of this analysis.

227

228   We evaluated two multivariate signatures of these neural representations (Figure 1D). Our first  
229   method, reliability, assesses the similarity of a subject's representations to themselves across  
230   stories compared to the similarity of their representations to those of other subjects. Specifically,  
231   reliability is calculated as the difference between the similarity of a subject to themselves (within-  
232   subject similarity) and the average pairwise similarity of a subject to all other subjects (across-  
233   subject similarity).

234

$$\text{reliability} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N M_{i,i} - \left( \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1, i \neq j}^N M_{i,j} \right)$$

235

236 Our second method, identifiability, measures how unique representations are to each subject. A  
 237 subject is said to be identifiable based on their representations when, across stories, similarity of  
 238 a subject to themselves is higher than similarity to all other participants of the group. For each

$$\text{identifiability} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \begin{cases} 1 & \text{argmax}(M_{i,1:N}) = M_{i,i} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

239 parcel, we calculate identifiability as fingerprinting accuracy: the average number of participants  
 240 identifiable based on their neural representations (Finn et al., 2015).

241

242 For both reliability and identifiability analyses, statistical significance was evaluated via  
 243 permutation testing. Specifically, for each parcel, we permuted the rows of the subject similarity  
 244 matrix and recalculated reliability and identifiability values. This process was repeated 10,000  
 245 times and observed values were tested against this null distribution. Resulting *p*-values for each  
 246 signature were corrected for multiple-comparisons across 200 parcels using the Benjamini-  
 247 Hochberg method ( $q_{FDR} < 0.05$ ). To evaluate reliability and identifiability at a whole-brain level, for  
 248 each signature, we used a linear-mixed effects model to predict reliability/identifiability from the  
 249 fixed-effect of word property while controlling for the random effect of parcel in both models and  
 250 a random effect of subject within the reliability model. We tested for significant differences  
 251 between word properties by conducting pairwise statistical tests between model fits to each  
 252 property.

253

254 To understand what was driving observed reliability — i.e., high within-subject consistency, low  
 255 across-subject similarity, or both — we compared within-subject similarity to across-subject  
 256 similarity. Specifically, we calculated across-subject similarity in two ways: 1) in the *same* stories  
 257 and 2) across *different* stories. For each word property, we used one-sample tests to assess

258 significance of similarity of representations for each form of similarity. Then, we used a linear-  
259 mixed effects model to evaluate whether within-subject similarity was higher than both forms of  
260 across-subject similarity. All tests were two-tailed, tested at alpha  $p < 0.05$ , and corrected for  
261 multiple-comparisons using FDR correction.

262

### 263 **Disentangling the reliability of representations of concreteness versus abstractness**

264

265 We next aimed to understand whether concreteness and abstractness differentially contribute to  
266 the reliability of neural representations of the concrete-abstract axis. To this end, within each  
267 story, we limited our analysis to nouns (as verbs were more prevalent at the abstract end) and  
268 dichotomized the concrete-abstract axis by selecting the top 30% of concrete and top 30% of  
269 abstract words (Figure 4A). Specifically, we asked if and where representations of concreteness  
270 are more reliable than representations of abstractness or vice versa.

271

272 We used a GLM to estimate separate BOLD response patterns for concreteness and abstractness  
273 (using regressors defined based on the top 30% of words at each end). Within this model, we  
274 specified concreteness and abstractness as event regressors, discarding the amplitude  
275 component and treating all words of a given property as contributing equally to the model of BOLD  
276 response. The regressors for concreteness and abstractness each contained a total of 187 words  
277 aggregated across stories, resulting in a total of 374 words modeled across stories (*black*: 94  
278 words; *bronx*: 92 words; *piemanpni*: 68 words; *forgot*: 120 words). We also included two  
279 amplitude-modulated regressors, word frequency and loudness, to control for differences in low-  
280 level linguistic and sensory features. We then repeated our analysis of reliability and identifiability  
281 (described above) on the beta maps of concreteness and abstractness separately.

282

283 For each parcel, we contrasted the reliability of concreteness and abstractness within each  
284 subject by applying Fisher's z-transformation and taking the difference between the reliability  
285 scores (concrete minus abstract), limiting our analysis to parcels that showed significant reliability  
286 for *either* concreteness or abstractness. Then, within each parcel, we conducted paired t-tests to  
287 identify parcels that significantly differed in their reliability of concreteness and abstractness  
288 representations. All tests were two-tailed, tested at alpha  $p < 0.05$ , and corrected for multiple-  
289 comparisons using FDR correction.

290

291 **Evaluating the stability of representations of concrete versus abstract concept clusters**

292

293 In light of the finding that representations of concreteness are more reliable than those of  
294 abstractness (cf. Figure 4B), we asked whether this higher reliability is driven by closer and more  
295 stable semantic relationships between words at the concrete end of the spectrum. To define  
296 semantic relationships between words, we used a natural language processing model (GloVe;  
297 (Pennington et al., 2014) to embed each word in both the top 30% concrete and top 30% abstract  
298 word sets, aggregated across stories, within a high-dimensional semantic space (Figure 5A). We  
299 then applied spectral clustering (Shi & Malik, 2000) over the concrete and abstract word  
300 embeddings to obtain clusters for each end of the spectrum ( $k=3$  each for the concrete and  
301 abstract ends, so six total) composed of semantically similar words, which we refer to as "concept  
302 clusters". While we selected  $k=3$  clusters because this value of  $k$  yielded the most balanced  
303 number of words in each cluster, similar results were obtained at both  $k=2$  and  $k=4$  clusters. These  
304 clusters grouped concrete and abstract words into sets of related concepts — such as a food-  
305 related concrete cluster containing the words "bread" and "cheese" — that were visually distinct

306 when projected into a 2-dimensional space using UMAP (Figure 5B(McInnes et al., 2020).  
307 Importantly, words within each concept cluster could come from within the same story or from  
308 different stories.

309

310 In addition to visualizing the qualitative organization of concept clusters, we also formally tested  
311 the semantic similarity of words in the same or in different clusters, within and between ends of  
312 the concrete-abstract axis. Importantly, because the clustering itself was done on semantic  
313 distances, we expect that distances will be lower between words in the same versus different  
314 clusters, but this analysis also lets us quantify if and how semantic spread across clusters is  
315 greater at one end of the concrete-abstract axis than the other. Specifically, we calculated the  
316 cosine similarity between all pairs of words embedded within the semantic space. We then  
317 grouped these pairwise similarity values into the following categories: a) pairs of words within the  
318 same cluster, b) pairs of words in different clusters at the same end of the concrete-abstract axis  
319 (i.e., either concrete or abstract), and c) pairs of words at different ends of the concrete-abstract  
320 axis, which were (by definition) in different clusters. To compare these groups of similarity values,  
321 we used a linear-mixed effects model to evaluate how end of the property spectrum (concrete vs.  
322 abstract), cluster membership (within vs. between), and the interaction between these two  
323 features relate to the semantic similarity of cluster words while controlling for the random effect of  
324 word. To help interpret any resulting differences, we also conducted follow-up pairwise statistical  
325 tests. All tests were two-tailed, tested at alpha  $p < 0.05$ , and corrected for multiple-comparisons  
326 using FDR correction.

327

328 Next, we used a GLM to estimate BOLD responses to words within each concept cluster and  
329 evaluated both within- and across-subject similarity of these neural concept-cluster

330 representations across stories. Similar to our analysis of semantic space, we calculated a) the  
331 similarity of neural representations of the same cluster across stories, b) the similarity of neural  
332 representations of different clusters at the same end of the spectrum (e.g., concrete clusters to  
333 other concrete clusters), and c) the similarity of neural representations between concrete clusters  
334 and abstract clusters. Crucially, all analyses of cluster similarity, both within- and across-subjects,  
335 are calculated as the similarity of clusters *across stories*; this allowed us to evaluate the stability  
336 and uniqueness of concept-cluster representations across distinct presentations and contexts.

337

338 Using two separate linear-mixed effects models, we examined how end of the property spectrum  
339 (concrete vs. abstract), cluster membership (within vs. between), and specific cluster relationship  
340 (e.g., within-concrete, between-concrete, etc.) differentially contribute to whole-brain similarity of  
341 neural representations while controlling for random effects of subject and parcel. Our first model  
342 predicts similarity from the fixed-effects of end of the property spectrum and cluster membership,  
343 and evaluates their main effects as well as their interaction. Then, in a separate model, we predict  
344 similarity from the fixed-effect of specific cluster relationship, specifying each cluster relationship  
345 as a separate level of the fixed effect. Using this second model, we tested for significant  
346 differences between cluster relationships by conducting pairwise statistical tests. All tests were  
347 two-tailed, tested at alpha  $p < 0.05$ , and corrected for multiple-comparisons using FDR correction.

348 **Results**

349 We aimed to understand how neural representations of the concrete-abstract axis vary within  
350 individuals and across the population during naturalistic story listening. Using a dataset of  
351 subjects (N=45) that listened to four stories each, we replicated previous findings that univariate  
352 neural responses to the concrete-abstract axis show group-level consistency. Complementing  
353 this consistency, we also found idiosyncratic multivariate representations of this axis that were

354 unique to individuals and stable across stories, allowing us to identify subjects with a high degree  
355 of accuracy. Furthermore, by placing words within a high-dimensional semantic space, we  
356 demonstrated that neural representations of concrete words are particularly stable and  
357 stereotyped, and that this consistency primarily drives the reliability of the concrete-abstract axis,  
358 while representations of abstract words are more variable both within and across subjects.

359

### 360 **Consistent group-level activations to the concrete-abstract axis**

361

362 We first sought to replicate prior work demonstrating group-level consistency of univariate activity  
363 to the concrete-abstract axis. For each subject and story, we modeled brain activity as a function  
364 of the time-varying concreteness level of its content (as given by word-level norms provided by a  
365 separate set of human raters). Our model also included time-varying regressors for other linguistic  
366 properties — namely, frequency, valence, and arousal — plus loudness, a low-level sensory  
367 control.

368

369 All properties, both sensory and linguistic, demonstrated univariate neural responses that were  
370 consistent across both subjects and stories (Figure 2;  $q_{FDR} < 0.05$ ). For example, as expected,  
371 loudness evoked responses in bilateral primary auditory cortex. Critically, the concrete-abstract  
372 axis evoked neural responses across a wide swath of cortex: more concrete words drove higher  
373 responses in regions including bilateral angular gyrus, bilateral parahippocampal cortex, and  
374 bilateral inferior frontal gyrus, while more abstract words drove responses in regions such as  
375 bilateral superior temporal gyrus and bilateral anterior temporal lobe. These results align with  
376 previous research that has reported similar cortical regions engaged in processing concrete and  
377 abstract concepts (Montefinese, 2019; J. Wang et al., 2010). Importantly, all linguistic properties

378 exhibited responses that agree with prior research: frequency modulation in the left inferior frontal  
379 gyrus (Schuster et al., 2016), valence in the right temporoparietal junction (Tamir et al., 2016),  
380 and arousal in posterior cingulate (Maddock & Buonocore, 1997) and ventromedial prefrontal  
381 cortex (Kensinger & Schacter, 2006).

382

### 383 **Representations of the concrete-abstract axis are reliable within individuals**

384

385 Having shown that the concrete-abstract axis drives consistent univariate activity at the group  
386 level, we next investigated the stability of multivariate representations of this axis, as well other  
387 word properties, across stories. Representations were operationalized as multivoxel patterns of  
388 activity within each cortical parcel evoked by a given property in a given story. Specifically, we  
389 compared representations both within and across individuals, allowing us to understand the extent  
390 to which representations of these common linguistic dimensions are shared versus individualized.

391

392 We found that representations of all word properties except valence exhibited individual reliability  
393 across stories in at least some brain regions (Figure 3A;  $n = 10,000$  permutations, all  $q_{FDR} < 0.05$ ),  
394 where reliability was defined as the difference between within-subject and average across-subject  
395 similarity. Importantly, while the low-level sensory property of loudness showed the highest  
396 average reliability across parcels ( $r = 0.11$ ), the concrete-abstract axis showed the second highest  
397 average reliability ( $r = 0.09$ ) and was significantly more reliable than all other linguistic (i.e., non-  
398 sensory) properties (frequency:  $r = 0.04$ ,  $\beta = 0.01$ ,  $t(42967) = 8.71$ ; valence:  $r = -0.002$ ,  $\beta = 0.05$ ,  
399  $t(42967) = 41.83$ ; arousal:  $r = 0.02$ ,  $\beta = 0.03$ ,  $t(42967) = 23.74$ ; all  $p < 0.001$ ).

400

401 We next disentangled the separate contributions of within- and across-subject similarity in driving  
402 reliability of individual representations. In theory, high individual reliability of representations  
403 across stories could result from 1) highly *similar* representations within subjects, 2) highly  
404 *dissimilar* representations across subjects, or 3) a combination of the two. Accordingly, for each  
405 word property, we calculated the within- and across-subject similarity of representations.  
406 Specifically, we calculated the similarity of across-subject representations both within the *same*  
407 stories and across *different* stories. We compared the similarity of within-subject representations  
408 to both forms of across-subject similarity. Importantly, this comparison ensured that any observed  
409 differences in reliability stemmed from individualized representations (within-subject similarity)  
410 above and beyond characteristics of the presented stories.

411

412 For all word properties with significant reliability (i.e., all except valence), participants'  
413 representations were significantly similar to themselves across different stories (Figure 3B; one-  
414 sample t-tests, all  $p < 0.001$ ). Critically, participants' were significantly more similar to themselves  
415 than to other participants, even when across-subject representations were compared within the  
416 same story (LME range of  $\beta$  values = -0.01 – 0.03, all  $p < 0.001$ ).

417

418 We then examined whether there was a relationship between within- and across-subject similarity  
419 of word property representations. By correlating within- and across-subject similarity values  
420 across parcels, we found that brain areas with word property representations that were more  
421 similar within subjects also showed higher similarity in representations across subjects (loudness  
422 ( $r = 0.874$ ), concrete-abstract ( $r = 0.784$ ), frequency ( $r = 0.797$ ), valence ( $r = 0.428$ ), arousal ( $r =$   
423  $0.599$ ); all  $p < 0.001$ ). This finding recapitulates a seemingly paradoxical phenomenon previously

424 shown in functional connectivity fingerprinting: brain states that make individuals more similar to  
425 others also make them more similar to themselves (Finn et al., 2017).

426

427 **Individuals are identifiable from their representations of the concrete-**  
428 **abstract axis**

429

430 The previous analyses revealed that individuals' representations of the concrete-abstract axis are  
431 stable across stories, but how *unique* are these representations? High reliability does not  
432 necessarily imply uniqueness: low average across-subject similarity could be due to high  
433 variability in across-subject similarity. In other words, certain pairs of subjects may have highly  
434 similar representations of the concrete-abstract axis, despite most of the group exhibiting low  
435 similarity. To test the extent to which word property representations are unique to each individual,  
436 we evaluated our ability to identify subjects from their representations of each word property.

437

438 Across cortical parcels, we were able to identify subjects from representations of both sensory  
439 response (loudness) and all four linguistic properties across much of the brain (Figure 3C; null =  
440 10,000 permutations, all  $q_{FDR} < 0.05$ ). Of note, the average identification rates across cortical  
441 parcels were low in an absolute sense but still significantly above chance (chance = 2.22%; Figure  
442 3D). Overall, representations of loudness provided the best ability to identify subjects (22.1%),  
443 demonstrating significantly higher identification rates, on average, than the concrete-abstract axis  
444 (16.5%;  $\beta = 10.41$ ,  $t(948) = 14.77$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). However, representations of the concrete-abstract  
445 axis enabled significantly higher identification accuracy than representations of other linguistic

446 properties (frequency: 8.8%,  $\beta = 2.9$ ,  $t(948) = 4.11$ ; valence: 4.4%,  $\beta = 7.24$ ,  $t(948) = 10.27$ ;  
447 arousal: 6.6%,  $\beta = 5.08$ ,  $t(948) = 7.2$ ; all  $p < 0.001$ ).

448

449 We then applied a winner-takes-all approach to identifiability maps to understand the cortical  
450 parcels where concrete-abstract axis representations showed the highest accuracy out of all word  
451 properties. We found that the concrete-abstract axis enabled the highest identification of  
452 subjects—even higher than loudness—within regions including left anterior temporal lobe, left  
453 inferior frontal gyrus, and bilateral retrosplenial cortex (RSC). These results dovetail with previous  
454 studies that have shown that areas within the left-lateralized language network and multimodal  
455 cortex are important in representing concrete and abstract concepts (Binder et al., 2005; Roxbury  
456 et al., 2014; J. Wang et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2020).

457

458 **Representations of concreteness are more reliable than representations of  
459 abstractness and drive individual identifiability**

460

461 Thus far, we have shown that representations of the concrete-abstract axis are reliable within and  
462 unique to individual subjects across experiences. Yet it remains unclear whether both ends of this  
463 continuum – concreteness and abstractness – contribute equally this reliability and uniqueness.

464

465 On one hand, representations of concreteness may be more reliable than those of abstractness  
466 due to greater associations with sensory experience. On the other hand, representations of  
467 abstractness may be more idiosyncratic, as uniquely language-based representations could  
468 depend more heavily on individual experience to create meaning. While prior work suggests that

469 representations of abstract words exhibit lower similarity across individuals than concrete words,  
470 disentangling the source of this difference requires 1) evaluating the stability of concreteness and  
471 abstractness as classes, and 2) assessing similarity within the same individual across  
472 experiences.

473

474 To understand the differential contributions of concreteness and abstractness in driving reliability,  
475 we dichotomized the continuous concrete-abstract axis and estimated reliability separately for  
476 each end of the spectrum. Specifically, we first limited our analysis to nouns to avoid confounds  
477 associated with different parts of speech, as verbs are more prevalent at the abstract end of the  
478 axis. We then separated the top 30% of words at each end of the concrete-abstract axis into two  
479 classes representing “concreteness” and “abstractness”. Lastly, we used a GLM to estimate  
480 separate BOLD response patterns for “concreteness” and “abstractness”.

481

482 We observed that representations of concreteness and abstractness each demonstrated  
483 significant reliability across stories in several brain regions (Figure 4B; null = 10,000 permutations,  
484 both  $q_{FDR} < 0.05$ ). By contrasting the reliability maps, we found that many cortical parcels (36%,  
485 or 72/200) exhibited more reliable responses to concreteness than abstractness. On the other  
486 hand, no parcels showed greater reliability for representations of abstractness over concreteness.  
487 We then repeated our identifiability analysis (see Methods) to understand whether these  
488 representations of concreteness and abstractness were unique enough to discriminate individual  
489 subjects from one another. Across the majority of parcels, we were able to identify individuals  
490 based on their representations of both concreteness and abstractness significantly above chance  
491 (Figure 4C; null = 10,000 permutations, both  $q_{FDR} < 0.05$ ). However, at a whole-brain level,  
492 representations of concreteness showed a significantly higher rate of identification compared to

493 representations of abstractness (Figure 4D; concreteness: 14%; abstractness: 6.4%;  $\beta = 3.83$ ,  
494  $t(190) = 12.79$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ). Together, these findings suggest that representations of concreteness  
495 primarily drive reliable responses of the concrete-abstract axis and are more individualized than  
496 representations of abstractness, extending previous, population-level findings to individual  
497 patterns of neural responses (Binder et al., 2005; Roxbury et al., 2014; Tong et al., 2022; X. Wang  
498 & Bi, Yanchao, 2021; West & Holcomb, 2000).

499

500 **Concrete concepts share an underlying representational signature that**  
501 **drives reliability of representations across experiences**

502

503 Why might neural representations of the concrete end of the spectrum be more reliable than  
504 representations of the abstract end? One potential explanation is that concrete words share the  
505 property of imageability, which carries its own representational signature that undergirds the  
506 representations of individual concrete words despite their differences in meaning. This  
507 representational signature could serve to stabilize the representations of individual concrete  
508 words across different contexts and in relation to other concrete words. While the naturalistic  
509 nature of these stimuli means that we did not necessarily have repeated presentation of the same  
510 word(s) across stories, we can use natural language processing (NLP) techniques to group words  
511 into clusters of semantically related words and use these clusters to help understand why  
512 representations of concreteness are more reliable than those of abstractness, even when  
513 generalizing over individual words and concepts.

514

515 Numerous recent studies have demonstrated parallels in language representation between  
516 humans and NLP models (Caucheteux & King, 2022; Goldstein et al., 2022; Huth et al., 2016;  
517 Schrimpf et al., 2021; Tuckute et al., 2024). Here, we used a word-embedding NLP model (GloVe;  
518 (Pennington et al., 2014) to understand how the semantic relationships among concrete and  
519 abstract words relate to the reliability of representations of the concrete-abstract axis. Specifically,  
520 we embedded concrete and abstract words within a high-dimensional semantic space and  
521 clustered words based on their semantic similarity. We then analyzed the similarity of these  
522 “concept clusters” in semantic space and, analogously, the similarity of neural responses to each  
523 cluster across stories using linear mixed-effects models (see Methods).

524

525 The semantic-embedding analysis confirmed that words within the same concept cluster were  
526 more similar to each other than to words in different clusters (Figure 5C; ,  $\beta = 0.03$ ,  $t(610) = 14.71$ ,  
527  $p < 0.001$ ), a pattern of results consistent across both concrete and abstract clusters (pairwise  
528 comparisons; concrete:  $t(306) = 10.76$ ; abstract:  $t(306) = 10.03$ ; both  $ps < 0.001$ ). This was  
529 expected given that the clustering was performed on semantic distances, but still served as a  
530 useful check on the appropriateness of the cluster solution. But we also observed a somewhat  
531 puzzling result: within semantic space, abstract clusters were generally more similar to one  
532 another than concrete clusters were to one another ( $\beta = 0.03$ ,  $t(610) = 5.87$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). This  
533 finding was particularly surprising given the results from the previous analysis (cf. Figure 4B) that  
534 showed that neural representations of concreteness are more reliable than representations of  
535 abstractness. Why might the concrete end of the spectrum, which encompasses *more* variability  
536 in (i.e., spans more of) semantic space, show *less* variability in its neural representations?

537

538 We next turned to analyze within-subject neural representations of concrete and abstract concept  
539 clusters. Echoing the results in semantic space, representations of words within the same cluster  
540 were more similar across stories than representations of words in different clusters (Figure 5D;  $\beta$   
541 = 0.007,  $t(34373) = 20.04$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), and this was true for both the concrete and abstract ends  
542 of the spectrum (concrete  $z = 4.36$ , abstract  $z = 23.99$ , both  $ps < 0.001$ ). In contrast to the  
543 similarity of clusters in semantic space (Figure 5C), neural representations of concrete clusters  
544 exhibited greater similarity than abstract clusters regardless of semantic distance (same or  
545 different clusters;  $\beta = 0.01$ ,  $t(34373) = 29.45$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ; Figure 5D).

546

547 Critically, there was also an interaction such that the similarity advantage for same- over different-  
548 cluster representation was smaller for concrete clusters than for abstract clusters ( $\beta = -0.005$ ,  
549  $t(34373) = -13.88$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Strikingly, neural representations of *different* concrete clusters were  
550 more similar within subjects across stories than neural representations of the *same* abstract  
551 cluster (Figure 5D; mean difference = 0.007,  $z = 7.12$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Furthermore, this pattern of  
552 results persisted when analyzing similarity across subjects (within > across:  $\beta = 0.002$ ,  $t(34373)$   
553 = 24.11; concrete > abstract:  $\beta = 0.001$ ,  $t(34373) = 17.07$ ; interaction:  $\beta = -0.001$ ,  $t(34373) = -$   
554 13.27; all  $ps < 0.001$ ; data not shown), suggesting that a consistent principle drives how  
555 concreteness is represented across similar words, within individuals and across the population.

556

557 Considered together, neural representations of semantically similar concrete words were more  
558 alike than those of semantically similar abstract words, despite concrete words spanning greater  
559 distances within semantic space than abstract words. These divergent results between the NLP  
560 model and neural data suggest that concrete words share a representational signature beyond

561 linguistic representations due to sensory associations that could stem from integrating visual  
562 information into the neural representations.

563 **Discussion**

564 Word meanings vary across both people and contexts, often informed by conceptual associations  
565 specific to the individual as well as different situations in which the word is used. What linguistic  
566 properties provide a stable foundation for conceptual knowledge while simultaneously supporting  
567 unique, individual experience? Here, we found that the concrete-abstract axis provides a basis  
568 for both population stability and individual variability in the representation of natural language.

569

570 Many studies have demonstrated that while both concrete and abstract words evoke responses  
571 within the language network (Binder et al., 2005; Del Maschio et al., 2021; Friederici et al., 2000;  
572 Moseley & Pulvermüller, 2014), concrete words exhibit stronger and longer-lasting responses  
573 (Barber et al., 2013; Vignali et al., 2023; West & Holcomb, 2000) and also engage multimodal  
574 cortices, such as bilateral angular gyrus, posterior cingulate, and precuneus, more than abstract  
575 words (Binder et al., 2005; Roxbury et al., 2014; Tang et al., 2021; J. Wang et al., 2010; Zhang et  
576 al., 2020). In our study, we assessed whether reliability exists uniformly across the concrete-  
577 abstract axis, enabling us to understand if previously observed variability in abstract word  
578 representations can be explained by variability in representations of abstractness itself. We found  
579 reliable representations of the concrete-abstract axis within regions related to the language  
580 network and within multimodal cortex that were unique to individual subjects across diverse,  
581 naturalistic stories. Critically, representations of the concrete-abstract axis were more reliable  
582 than representations of other linguistic properties (i.e., frequency, valence, arousal), and this  
583 effect was driven primarily by the stable representations of the concrete end of the axis. Together,  
584 our results suggest that word representations are stabilized by consistent representations of

585 concreteness more so than abstractness, potentially due to the engagement of multimodal areas  
586 known to integrate sensory and linguistic information.

587

588 Traditionally, neural representations of language have been probed by presenting participants  
589 with single words, sentences, and short paragraphs (Bookheimer, 2002; Hagoort, 2019). These  
590 studies have revealed neural territory specific to language (Fedorenko et al., 2011; Malik-  
591 Moraleda et al., 2022) that closely interacts with other networks involved in cognitive control and  
592 theory of mind (Fedorenko & Thompson-Schill, 2014; Paunov et al., 2019, 2022). In contrast to  
593 these carefully controlled experiments, everyday language is dynamic and contextualized, such  
594 that the meanings of words and sentences are informed by larger narrative structure (L. S.  
595 Hamilton & Huth, 2020; Willems et al., 2020). It is therefore crucial to evaluate the degree to which  
596 findings of carefully controlled studies extend to naturalistic language perception (Nastase et al.,  
597 2020). Within the present study, participants were presented with naturalistic auditory narratives  
598 representative of how language is used in day-to-day life. Importantly, we found that  
599 representations of abstractness, as well as clusters of related abstract words, were more variable  
600 both within and across subjects than representations of concrete words.

601

602 The finding of higher across-subject variability for abstractness aligns with another recent study  
603 that used a single-word paradigm to study abstract words (X. Wang & Bi, Yanchao, 2021); the  
604 authors of that study interpreted this heightened variability as reflecting individual differences in  
605 meaning of abstract words in particular. However, the appeal to individual differences implies a  
606 stability of representations *within* the same subject over time, which was not tested. Our study  
607 differs from this previous work in two ways: first, we examined neural representations to the  
608 concrete-abstract axis across words within distinct, naturalistic stories, and second, we evaluated

609 the reliability of representations *within* subjects, *across* stories to understand if abstractness is  
610 idiosyncratically represented. We found that compared to representations of concreteness,  
611 representations of abstractness were more variable not only across subjects, but also within the  
612 same individual across distinct experiences. This suggests that variability in abstract words stems  
613 less from individual differences in meaning and more from a general instability of representations  
614 of abstractness.

615

616 Recent developments in natural language processing (NLP) models have provided researchers  
617 with tools to better investigate how the human brain organizes and processes natural language  
618 (Caucheteux & King, 2022; Goldstein et al., 2022; Huth et al., 2016; Schrimpf et al., 2021; Tuckute  
619 et al., 2024). These computational models not only capture semantic relationships between  
620 words, but also contain rich knowledge regarding how words relate within various contexts (Erk,  
621 2012). Importantly, the contextual relationships between concrete words — that a fish and a whale  
622 may be semantically similar in terms of “wetness” but different in terms of “size” — closely  
623 correspond to human judgements of the same categories (Grand et al., 2022). Yet, within our  
624 study, we found that clusters of concrete words were less similar than clusters of abstract words  
625 within an NLP model but *more* similar in the human brain. This dissociation supports theories of  
626 grounded cognition that suggest representations of concreteness carry additional information  
627 beyond pure linguistic representation (Altarriba et al., 1999; Tuckute et al., 2018). Indeed, recent  
628 computational work has demonstrated that visual grounding is essential for linguistic  
629 representations to capture human ratings of the concrete-abstract axis (Zhang et al., 2021). While  
630 prior work has revealed subsets of abstract words that also exhibit sensory associations (Barsalou  
631 & Wiemer-Hastings, 2005; Ghio et al., 2013; Kiefer & Harpaintner, 2020), the lower similarity of  
632 abstract words even within a concept cluster suggests that the representational signature of  
633 sensory experience may be weaker or not present for abstract words. Together, these findings

634 suggest that concrete words, but not abstract words, carry a shared signature of sensory  
635 grounding that stabilizes their neural representations both within and across subjects.

636

637 Though our work aligns with and extends past work on the concrete-abstract axis, it has some  
638 limitations. First, it is possible that we have underestimated the extent to which neural  
639 representations of the other properties (valence, arousal, frequency) are also idiosyncratic. In the  
640 current study, we leveraged pre-existing human ratings of these properties, but these behavioral  
641 ratings were collected by presenting participants with individual words out of context. Similarly,  
642 we leveraged an NLP model that does not incorporate contextual information into the word-level  
643 representations. Some of these other properties, especially valence and arousal, may be more  
644 context-dependent and require ratings specific to a given story or individual to understand the  
645 idiosyncrasies in neural representations. In addition, the moderate negative relationship between  
646 the concrete-abstract axis and word frequency in our dataset also leaves open the possibility that  
647 some effects attributed to concreteness may be shared with (inverse) frequency. Second, due to  
648 the diversity of content across the auditory narratives, we were limited in our ability to compare  
649 representations of the same words across stories. We addressed this by comparing the neural  
650 representations of clusters of similar words across stories, extending prior work on single words  
651 to the organization of broader concepts in semantic space. Future work could select stories that  
652 contain the same words but vary in narrative content to understand the stability of both specific  
653 words and semantic organization more generally across experiences.

654

655 In sum, our work establishes the concrete-abstract axis as a critical dimension for promoting both  
656 shared and individualized representations of language. In particular, these findings disentangle  
657 the sources of individual variability of concrete and abstract word representation and reveal a

658 representational signature of sensory experience specific to concrete words that boosts their  
659 representational stability. Our results underscore the importance of considering within-subject  
660 variability when identifying underlying drivers of common versus idiosyncratic processing of  
661 natural language.

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942

943 **Figure 1. Experimental methods.** **(a)** 45 subjects listened to four auditory stories during fMRI  
944 scanning (Nastase et al., 2021). **(b)** Human ratings were used to assign a continuous value of  
945 concreteness (i.e., position along the concrete-abstract axis) for as many words as possible within  
946 each story. This process was repeated with other linguistic properties including frequency,  
947 valence, and arousal (not shown). **(c)** Any apparent variation across subjects in neural  
948 representations of word properties could stem from two possible underlying patterns: neural  
949 representations could be reliably idiosyncratic within subjects, evidenced by high similarity of  
950 representations within the same subject across distinct experiences (here, stories), or these  
951 representations could be unstable both within and across subjects, evidenced by variability within  
952 the same subject across stories. **(d)** Example procedure for calculating reliability and identifiability  
953 for one word property. For each story, voxel-wise beta values were estimated within a generalized  
954 linear model. Then, within each of 200 parcels (Schaefer parcellation), beta values were  
955 correlated between all subjects for each pair of stories (6 unique pairs). These story similarity  
956 matrices were then averaged and used to estimate two indices of stable, individualized neural  
957 representations: 1) reliability, defined as the difference between within-subject and average  
958 across-subject similarity, and 2) identifiability, defined as the fingerprinting accuracy of  
959 discriminating one subject from all other subjects based on their neural representations. This  
960 process was repeated for each word property.

961

962 **Figure 2. Group-level univariate activation to sensory and linguistic properties.** Across  
963 stories and subjects, multiple regions exhibited significant activation to the intensity of sound and  
964 word-level linguistic properties including the concrete-abstract axis, frequency, valence, and  
965 arousal. Results shown are from a single linear mixed-effects model containing fixed effects for  
966 all properties plus random effects for story and subject. Results are displayed at a voxel-wise  
967 threshold of  $q_{FDR} < 0.05$ .

968

969 **Figure 3. Within- and across-subject reliability of neural representations of word**  
970 **properties.** We compared representations of word properties across four naturalistic stories both  
971 within and across subjects. **(a)** Across stories, all properties except valence exhibited high within-  
972 subject reliability across much of cortex ( $q_{FDR} < 0.05$ , null = 10,000 permutations). While a simple  
973 sensory property, loudness, exhibited the highest reliability, representations of the concrete-  
974 abstract axis were more reliable than other linguistic properties (frequency, valence, arousal). **(b)**  
975 At the whole-brain level, across all properties, within-subject across-story similarity was  
976 consistently higher than across-subject similarity, even when comparing representations across  
977 subjects within the same stories. Each data point represents average similarity value in one parcel  
978 of the Schaefer parcellation (200 total). **(c)** Representations of all properties enabled accurate  
979 identification of subjects across much of cortex. All plots are thresholded at chance (2.22%). **(d)**  
980 Out of tested linguistic properties, subjects were most identifiable from their representations of  
981 the concrete-abstract axis. Each dot indicates identifiability within one parcel. \*  $p < 0.05$ ; \*\*  $p <$   
982 0.01; \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ ; n.s.  $p > 0.05$ .

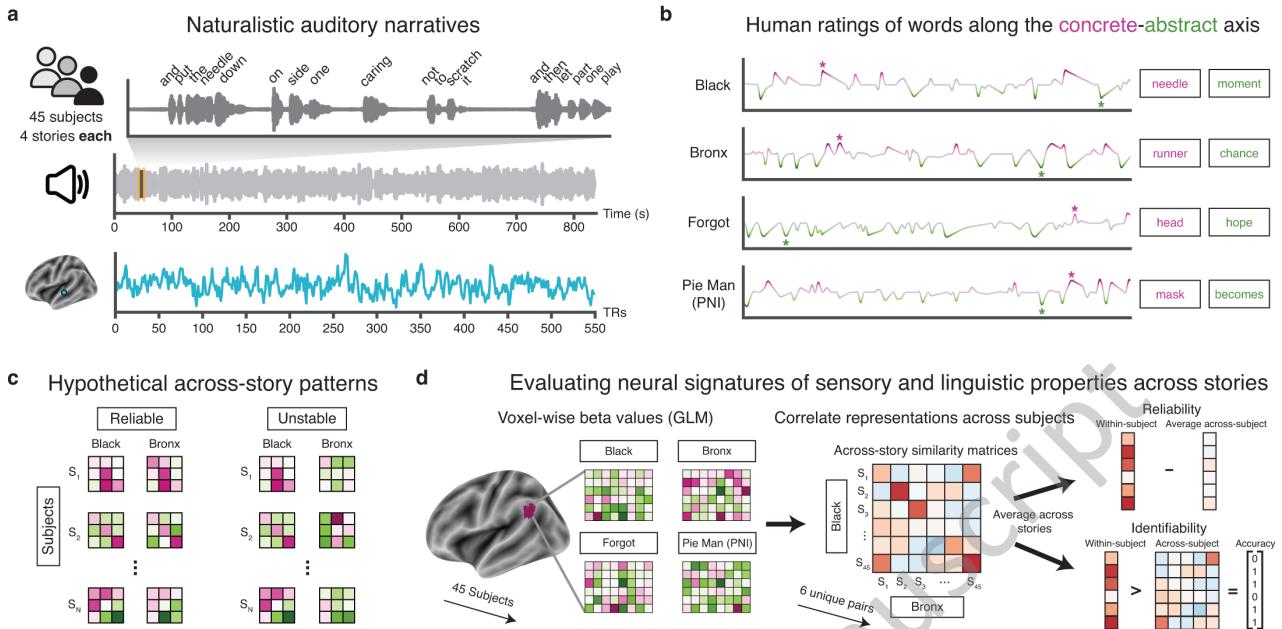
983

984 **Figure 4. Within-subject reliability of neural representations of concrete and abstract**  
985 **words. (a)** We selected concrete and abstract words as the top/bottom 30% of nouns within the  
986 concrete-abstract axis and estimated neural responses to each set of words in a second GLM  
987 analysis. **(b)** While both concreteness and abstractness exhibited reliable representations within  
988 subjects across stories, representations of concreteness were more reliable than representations  
989 of abstractness across much of cortex ( $q_{FDR} < 0.05$ , null = 10,000 permutations). **(c, d)**  
990 Representations of concreteness provided a greater ability to identify subjects than  
991 representations of abstractness ( $q_{FDR} < 0.05$ , null = 10,000 permutations).

992

993 **Figure 5. Stability of concrete and abstract concept cluster representations within and**  
994 **across subjects. (a)** We clustered the top 30% concrete and top 30% abstract words within a  
995 high-dimensional semantic space (GloVe). We then estimated voxel-wise beta values for each of  
996 six clusters (3 concrete, 3 abstract) within each subject and story. Next, within each parcel (200  
997 total), we correlated beta values between all sets of clusters across stories and averaged the  
998 across-story similarity of clusters. **(b)** Visualization of concept clusters within a 2-dimensional  
999 projection using UMAP, plus example words from each cluster. **(c)** Within semantic space, words  
1000 within abstract clusters were more similar (i.e., less distant) than words within concrete clusters.  
1001 Each dot represents the average similarity of a given word to other words within a given  
1002 comparison. In contrast, **(d)** within-subject neural representations of concrete clusters were more  
1003 similar across stories than representations of abstract clusters. Each dot indicates the average  
1004 similarity of one subject's concept cluster representations within a given comparison. \*  $p < 0.05$ ;  
1005 \*\*  $p < 0.01$ ; \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ ; n.s.  $p > 0.05$ .

1006



Sensory and linguistic properties exhibit consistent group-level activations

