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Sensorimotor Representation of Speech Perception — Cross-Decoding of Place of Articulation Features during Selective Attention to Syllables in 7T fMRI

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1 **Sensorimotor representation of speech perception – Cross-decoding of place of**
2 **articulation features during selective attention to syllables in 7T fMRI**

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35 **Abstract**

36 Sensorimotor integration, the translation between acoustic signals and motoric programs, may
37 constitute a crucial mechanism for speech. During speech perception, the acoustic-motoric
38 translations include the recruitment of cortical areas for the representation of speech
39 articulatory features, such as place of articulation. Selective attention can shape the processing
40 and performance of speech perception tasks. Whether and where sensorimotor integration
41 takes place during attentive speech perception remains to be explored. Here, we investigate
42 articulatory feature representations of spoken consonant-vowel syllables during two distinct
43 tasks. Fourteen healthy humans attended to either the vowel or the consonant within a syllable
44 in separate delayed-match-to-sample tasks. Single-trial fMRI BOLD responses from
45 perception periods were analyzed using multivariate pattern classification and a searchlight
46 approach to reveal neural activation patterns sensitive to the processing of place of
47 articulation (i.e., bilabial/labiodental vs. alveolar). To isolate place of articulation
48 representation from acoustic covariation, we applied a cross-decoding (generalization)
49 procedure across distinct features of manner of articulation (i.e., stop, fricative, and nasal).
50 We found evidence for the representation of place of articulation across tasks and in both
51 tasks separately: for attention to vowels, generalization maps included bilateral clusters of
52 superior and posterior temporal, insular, and frontal regions; for attention to consonants,
53 generalization maps encompassed clusters in temporoparietal, insular, and frontal regions
54 within the right hemisphere only. Our results specify the cortical representation of place of
55 articulation features generalized across manner of articulation during attentive syllable
56 perception, thus supporting sensorimotor integration during attentive speech perception and
57 demonstrating the value of generalization.

58 **Significance Statement**

59 Speech is supported by sensorimotor integration, a bidirectional translation of its auditory and
60 motoric signals. Whether our brain represents speech as articulatory features during selective
61 attention has not yet been well specified. We focused on the representation of articulatory
62 information of speech during attentive speech perception. For the first time, we applied
63 generalization in classification analysis to counteract the differences in acoustic properties
64 that accompany articulatory information. Participants attended to either the vowels or
65 consonants of syllables, while undergoing fMRI. Our results show that articulatory
66 information is represented in widespread cortical areas during selective attention to the
67 different syllable components, supporting sensorimotor integration during attentive speech
68 perception.

69 **Introduction**

70 Speech is supported by sensorimotor integration, a (bidirectional) translation of its auditory
71 and motoric signals. These translations, which occur during speech perception (Hickok and
72 Poeppel, 2007; Evans et al., 2016; Schomers and Pulvermüller, 2016), can result in the
73 cortical representation of articulatory features of speech, such as place of articulation, manner
74 of articulation, and voicing. Particularly, the cortical representation of place of articulation
75 features has been reported in dorsal speech regions, including motor and premotor areas
76 (Pulvermuller et al., 2006), and somatosensory and supramarginal regions under passive
77 listening (Correia et al., 2015). However, differential task requirements can modulate cortical
78 representations of articulatory features. For example, variation of somatotopic activations in
79 motor areas were found during passive sound perception involving different articulators
80 (Pulvermuller et al., 2006a). Other researchers have reported differential patterns in superior
81 temporal but not in the motor cortex during an incidental task with phonemes (Arsenault and
82 Buchsbaum, 2015). Several reasons have been discussed to account for this variability; among
83 them, differences in task demands across studies (e.g., type of task, number of items, but also
84 passive vs. active tasks, i.e., selective attention) as well as third factors such a covariation of
85 manner of articulation during place processing.

86 Although the underlying neural mechanisms of speech perception and attention remain
87 elusive, they are explained in terms of network dynamics (Friederici and Singer, 2015) and, in
88 particular, of theta-gamma amplitude or phase coupling (Giraud and Poeppel, 2012; Hyafil et
89 al., 2015) of neural activity. For example, attention can implement phase resetting and
90 entrainment of neuronal oscillations to a relevant stimulus stream (Lakatos et al., 2008) and
91 can rapidly change the spectrotemporal receptive field to enhance task-relevant stimulus
92 properties (Fritz et al., 2003). Importantly, selective attention has been shown to generate

93 spatial coupling patterns between prefrontal and feature-specific cortical areas (Baldauf and
94 Desimone, 2014).

95 Ultra high-field 7 Tesla fMRI allows investigating the living human brain with unprecedented
96 high spatial resolution (Yacoub et al., 2001), signal-to-noise ratio (Vaughan et al., 2001), and
97 specificity (Polimeni et al., 2010). Beyond measurement improvements, multivariate pattern
98 analysis (MVPA) further increases the sensitivity of experimental contrasts by exploiting
99 concurrent spatial patterns of fMRI responses (Norman et al., 2006). Crucially, MVPA has
100 allowed unraveling information representation of abstract speech features (Correia et al.,
101 2015; Evans and Davis, 2015).

102 Here, we aim to minimize the effect of covariation in manner of articulation during place of
103 articulation processing by generalization across manner. We study the cortical representation
104 of place of articulation features of syllables using 7T fMRI and MVPA-based cross-decoding
105 (i.e., generalization). Specifically, we exploited the acoustic variation imposed by two
106 manners of articulation (e.g., stop and fricative) to identify patterns discriminative of place of
107 articulation (i.e., bilabial/labiodental versus alveolar) and tested these patterns in a third
108 (unseen) manner of articulation (e.g., nasal). This procedure capitalized on the acoustic
109 variation imposed by different manner of articulation features to extract specific patterns for
110 place of articulation features (Ladefoged and Johnson, 2010).

111 This generalization was applied to two different tasks with identical auditory stimuli (i.e.,
112 attention to consonants and attention to vowels) to investigate the neural representation of
113 place of articulation features during selective attention to speech and the possible effects of
114 attention on the neural representation. Previous studies have shown representation of place of
115 articulation features in sensorimotor regions (Correia et al., 2015) and a modulatory role of
116 attention in sound and phonetic representations of speech (Bonte et al., 2014; Downer et al.,

117 2015). Based on these studies, we used decoding of place of articulation features as a metric
118 of sensorimotor processes during speech perception. We then investigated whether decoding
119 was possible on either task and, if so, whether sensorimotor integration is modulated by the
120 selective attention to different syllable components (i.e., vowel or consonants). The idea
121 behind choosing vowels and consonants tasks was that place of articulation is more
122 representative for consonant identification, and less for vowel identification in Consonant-
123 Vowel structures. This orthogonal stimuli-task arrangement allowed assessing the effect of
124 attention on the place of articulation representation without explicit task focus to place.

125 **Materials and Methods**

126 *Participants*

127 Fourteen native Dutch speakers (mean \pm SD age, 27.2 \pm 5.1 years; 9 females; 2 left-handed)
128 underwent blood oxygenation level-dependent (BOLD) signal fMRI scanning while
129 performing two delayed-match-to-sample tasks. Participants had no history of neurological or
130 systemic diseases and reported normal hearing abilities. All participants received monetary
131 compensation for their participation and signed written informed consent. The Ethical
132 Committee of the authors' Home Institution approved the study.

133 *Stimuli*

134 Stimuli were 18 consonant-vowel (CV) syllables recorded by 3 female native Dutch speakers,
135 generating 54 unique tokens. The syllables were the result of the CV combinations of six
136 consonants (p, t, f, s, m, n) and three vowels (a, i, u). This subset of consonants was selected
137 because it allowed us to build a balanced stimuli matrix that covers two features of place of
138 articulation (i.e., bilabial/labiodental and alveolar) and three features of manner of articulation
139 (i.e., stop, fricative, and nasal). This arrangement was needed to perform MVPA-based cross-
140 decoding analysis and to keep the necessary number of trials for single-trial classification (see

141 Multivariate analysis below). Syllable recordings were selected from a subset of recordings
142 previously used in our laboratory (Correia et al., 2015). Briefly, the consonants composing the
143 syllables for every articulatory feature were bilabial/labiodental, ('p', 'f', 'm') and alveolar
144 ('t', 's', 'n') for place of articulation; and stop ('p', 't'), fricative ('f', 's'), and nasal ('m', 'n')
145 for manner of articulation (Figure 1A). The three different vowels and three different speakers
146 introduced acoustic variability useful for classification. All stimuli were recorded in a
147 soundproof chamber at a sampling rate of 44.1 kHz and digital-to-analog converted with 16-
148 bit resolution. Stimuli were presented in the MRI scanner via MR-compatible earphones with
149 a linear frequency transfer of up to 8 kHz (Model S14, Sensimetrics Corporation, USA).
150 Before starting the experiment, the volume was adapted to each subject's audible and
151 comfortable perceptual level.

152 *Experimental design*

153 Participants performed two delayed-match-to-sample tasks in four runs of 54 trials each (i.e.,
154 each syllable token was presented once per run) during fMRI acquisition. In cognitive terms,
155 this task allowed paying attention to a certain aspect of the acoustic stimuli – from now on
156 referred to as “attend to vowels” and “attend to consonants.” The task also involved
157 remembering and matching the attended vowel or consonant later on with a visually presented
158 token (i.e., a written vowel or consonant) of the same category (with 50% match/mismatch
159 response proportions). Each run was divided into two blocks of 27 trials, one for each task,
160 and the tasks were counterbalanced across runs and participants. During the attend to vowels
161 task, participants heard a syllable and received, after 6-8 seconds, a written vowel as “match
162 cue.” Participants were instructed to match the vowel of an auditorily presented CV syllable
163 with a written vowel cue as fast and accurately as possible by pressing a button with the right
164 index ('match') or middle ('mismatch') finger. During the attend to consonants task,
165 participants heard the same syllables (of the attend to vowels task) and received a written

166 consonant as cue that should be matched with the auditory syllable (see Figure 1B).
167 Importantly, the features of interest (i.e., place of articulation) were never part of an explicit
168 task to avoid confounds in attentional demands. The delay-match-to-sample task is widely
169 used to precisely control the subject's attention. Thus, data were analyzed only for the first
170 part of each trial before the cue onset to avoid that relevant signal was contaminated with
171 matching and response related processing period signals.

172 The task was clearly explained to each subject outside the scanner, and they received at the
173 beginning of each block an introduction display indicating the syllable component they should
174 attend to (i.e., vowels or consonants) at the beginning of each task. A trial consisted of (1) a
175 speech stimulus sound presentation (i.e., a CV syllable token of 340 milliseconds duration)
176 followed, after an inter-stimulus interval (ISI) of 6-8 seconds, by (2) a written cue (i.e., a
177 consonant or vowel letter matching or not the sound token depending on the specific block
178 and trial of 2 seconds duration, written in Times New Roman, font size 30, black color); and
179 then followed by (3) the subject's 'match'/'mismatch' immediate response. The sound
180 syllables and the visual cue (i.e., a written vowel or consonant) matched in 50% of the trials,
181 and 'match'/'mismatch' trials were balanced across attention conditions and randomized per
182 subject. Mismatch cues were always of the same category (i.e., vowels in the attend to vowels
183 task and consonants in the attend to consonants task). In total, each run lasted 15 minutes and
184 the behavioral responses were collected through an MR-compatible button box (Current
185 Designs, 8-button response device, HHSC-2x4-C; Philadelphia, USA).

186 We used fast sparse image acquisition to have a 500 ms silent gap to present each syllable
187 sound (Di Salle et al., 2003). The fMRI acquisition was set up as a slow event-related design.
188 The inter-trial interval (ITI) between consecutive auditory stimuli was relatively long (i.e., 14
189 seconds on average; range: 12 to 16 seconds) to allow independent BOLD signal estimation
190 per trial (see Figure 1C). The interval used to estimate the fMRI response to the spoken

191 syllable perception per trial was restricted to the first 6 seconds following the sound
192 presentation to avoid contamination from the processing of the visual cue, matching, or button
193 press. Moreover, as the acoustic, phonetic, and phonological features of the presented
194 syllables were identical across trials and attention conditions, the effects on the cortical
195 representations pertain to differences in attention. All stimuli, event identities, and timings
196 were presented and logged using Presentation from Neurobehavioral Systems
197 (www.neurobs.com, RRID: SCR_002521).

198 *Functional MRI acquisition*

199 Functional and anatomical volumes were acquired on a whole-body Siemens Magnetom 7
200 Tesla scanner (Siemens, Erlangen, Germany) and a 32-channel head-coil (Nova Medical Inc.;
201 Wilmington, USA) at the author Home Institution Imaging Center. For all functional runs, we
202 acquired whole brain high-resolution accelerated multiband gradient echo (T2*-weighted)
203 echo-planar imaging (EPI; Moeller et al., 2010; Setsompop et al., 2012) data (echo time, TE =
204 21 ms; repetition time, TR = 2,000 ms; time of acquisition, TA = 1,500; delay in TR (silent
205 gap) = 500 ms; multi-band factor = 3; generalized auto-calibrating partially parallel
206 acquisitions (GRAPPA) g-factor = 2; flip angle = 72°; field of view, FOV = 198 mm; voxel
207 size = 1.5 x 1.5 x 1.5 mm³; number of slices = 72, without gap between slices) for each
208 participant. To correct for EPI geometric distortions, 10 volumes with opposite phase
209 encoding directions (i.e., posterior to anterior and anterior to posterior) were additionally
210 acquired using the same acquisition parameters as in the functional runs. After the first 2
211 functional runs, we acquired a tridimensional T1-weighted magnetization prepared rapid
212 acquisition gradient echo (3D-MP2RAGE; Marques et al., 2010) volume (240 sagittal slices;
213 voxel size = 0.65 x 0.65 x 0.65 mm³; first inversion time T11 = 900 ms; second inversion time
214 T12 = 2,750 ms; TE = 2.51 ms; TR = 5,000 ms; first nominal flip angle = 5°; second nominal
215 flip angle = 3°) per participant.

216 *Functional MRI preprocessing*

217 Anatomical and functional data were analyzed using BrainVoyager QX (version 2.8.4; Brain
218 Innovation; Maastricht, Netherlands, RRID: SCR_013057), and custom code written in
219 MATLAB (R2014a version 8.3.0.532; The Mathworks Inc.; Natick, MA, USA, RRID:
220 SCR_001622). Anatomical images were interpolated to a nominal voxel size of 1.5 x 1.5 x 1.5
221 mm³ matching the functional images' resolution. The functional images were corrected for
222 motion artifacts using the 3D rigid body motion correction algorithm implemented in
223 BrainVoyager QX and all functional runs were aligned to the first volume of the second
224 functional run. We corrected the EPI distortions using the *topup* tool implemented in FSL
225 (RRID: SCR_002823, (Smith et al., 2004). The reversed phase encoding images, acquired
226 after the anatomical images, were used to estimate the susceptibility-induced off-resonance
227 field and, then, to correct the distortions in the remaining functional runs. After this
228 correction, functional data were high-pass filtered using a general linear model (GLM)
229 Fourier basis set of eleven cycles sine/cosine, including a linear trend removal. Functional
230 volumes per run were co-registered and aligned to the anatomical scan using rigid body
231 transformations (i.e., six parameters: three translations and three rotations). Finally, functional
232 images were normalized by transformation into Talairach space (Jean and Tournoux, 1988).

233 *Anatomical segmentation and cortex-based alignment.* Intensity inhomogeneities in T1-
234 weighted images were first corrected using Statistical Parametric Mapping 12 (SPM12,
235 RRID: SCR_007037 Ashburner and Friston, 2005) software. The resulting images were used
236 to perform volumetric segmentation with the FreeSurfer analysis software (version 5.3.0,
237 <http://surfer.nmr.mgh.harvard.edu/>, RRID: SCR_001847) (Dale et al., 1999). Briefly, this
238 processing includes motion correction, removal of non-brain tissue using a hybrid
239 watershed/surface deformation procedure, automated Talairach transformation, intensity
240 normalization, tessellation of the gray/white matter boundary, automated topology correction,

241 and surface deformation following intensity gradients to optimally place the gray/white and
242 gray/cerebrospinal fluid borders at the location where the greatest shift in intensity defines the
243 transition to the other tissue class. Quality control was performed by visually inspecting each
244 subject's brain after the process was finished. Remaining errors were manually corrected
245 using ITK-SNAP software (version 3.4.0, www.itksnap.org, RRID: SCR_002010)
246 (Yushkevich et al., 2006). The resulting binary maps were then used to reconstruct individual
247 3D meshes of the cortical surfaces and aligned using a moving target-group average approach
248 based on curvature information (i.e., cortex-based alignment – CBA) to obtain an
249 anatomically aligned group-averaged 3D surface representation of all the subjects (Goebel et
250 al., 2006; Frost and Goebel, 2012). Functional data were analyzed (see Multivariate analysis
251 below) in the volume space and then projected to the average surface, to perform group
252 statistics and visualization in the aligned CBA space.

253 *Univariate analysis*

254 Single subject GLM analysis was performed on fMRI signal time courses normalized with
255 percentage transform in volume space. Next, they were mapped onto surface space by
256 sampling the values located between 1 mm below the gray/white matter boundary and up to 3
257 mm into the gray matter towards the pial surface using trilinear interpolation and averaging.
258 This sampling resulted in a single value per vertex in the subject's cortex mesh, and then the
259 values were aligned to the cortical group surface mesh using CBA. Random-effects GLM
260 analysis was performed on these individual time course data. The conditions were collapsed
261 across the speaker and vowel dimensions, thus yielding 12 predictors, 6 predictors for each
262 consonant times 2 tasks. Each predictor was convolved with a canonical double gamma
263 hemodynamic response function (HRF). Functional maps (i.e., average β values) were
264 calculated to assess sound-evoked fMRI responses during attend to vowels and attend to
265 consonants tasks (i.e., all sounds attend to vowels task > baseline; all sounds attend to

266 consonants task > baseline). Task differences were analyzed for attend to consonants and
267 attend to vowels task activity (i.e., attend to consonants task > attend to vowels task).
268 Univariate stimulus effects were analyzed for each place of articulation feature independently
269 (e.g., p_Con + f_Con + m_Con + p_Vow + f_Vow + m_Vow > t_Con + s_Con + n_Con +
270 t_Vow + s_Vow + n_Vow). All functional contrast maps were corrected for multiple
271 comparisons by applying a permutation-based cluster-size threshold with an initial cluster
272 forming threshold of $p = 0.05$. The cluster-size threshold was based on the distribution of
273 maximum cluster sizes obtained in the 2,000 permutations, only considering clusters whose
274 size was larger than the 95% quantile.

275 *Multivariate analysis*

276 To investigate the cortical representations of the different articulatory features, we used
277 MVPA in combination with a moving volumetric searchlight approach (Kriegeskorte et al.,
278 2006). The purpose of the multivariate analysis was to decode articulatory features for each
279 syllable independent from their specific phonetic signatures or acoustical properties.
280 Therefore, we used a classification approach based on cross-decoding, generalizing place of
281 articulation features across different dimensions of manner of articulation. Specifically, we
282 trained a classifier to discriminate bilabial/labiodental vs. alveolar places of articulation using
283 syllables exhibiting two manners of articulation dimensions (e.g., stop and fricative) and
284 tested whether this training was transferable to syllables exhibiting a third (unseen) manner
285 dimension (e.g., nasal). MVPA generalization analysis was performed within each subject
286 using all three combinations of generalization (i.e., leaving one manner of articulation out for
287 testing at each split). The obtained averaged accuracies were submitted to a group analysis
288 using random permutations for significance and nonparametric permutation-based cluster-size
289 thresholding for multiple comparisons correction (see Statistical analysis – Group statistics
290 below).

291 *Within-subject decoding*

292 Before classification, BOLD time courses were selected by extracting the responses in each
293 trial and each cortical voxel. The BOLD responses were estimated by fitting a standard HRF
294 using multiple linear regression, taking the first three samples per trial after sound onset (i.e.,
295 corresponding to 6,000 ms). The regression coefficients resulting from the fitting of single
296 trial data in the cortical mask were used to build an fMRI feature space (i.e., number of trials
297 by number of cortical voxels), which was then used in the multivariate decoding. During the
298 multivariate decoding, we kept trials belonging to each task separate.

299 We limited our analysis to gray matter voxels using a subject-specific cortical ribbon mask
300 based on intensity values in the T1-weighted images (i.e., cortical ribbon segmentation). We
301 constrained our analysis to the cortical ribbon, as we were mainly interested in cortical
302 processing. Ribbons allowed us to exclude volumes containing white matter and subcortical
303 voxels from the analysis, which increased the number of dimensions. For the searchlight
304 analysis, a sphere with radius of 5.5 voxels (i.e., 8.25 mm) was moved through the cortical
305 ribbon, which defined a feature space of 65,000 voxels on average. In each searchlight, we
306 performed generalization of place of articulation across manner of articulation using Linear
307 Discriminant Analysis (LDA) with diagonal covariance matrix. Given the large number of
308 searchlights, we employed a fast Matlab implementation described in Ontivero-Ortega et al.
309 (2017).

310 We also investigated the cortical representation of place of articulation independent of the
311 task effect. We did so by performing classification and generalization across manner of
312 articulation in the pooled data from the two tasks (i.e., attend to vowels and attend to
313 consonants). By doing this we use twice the amount of data as in the previous analyses, and
314 can expect more robust and reliable findings due to the power increase in single subject

315 analyses. To avoid any task bias, we controlled for the number of trials belonging to each task
316 in each cross-validation split maintaining a balanced contribution of each task during the
317 training and testing procedures. The decoding was performed as described above.

318 *Multivariate statistical analysis – Group statistics*

319 In each subject, classification accuracies were obtained, separately for each task (i.e., attention
320 to consonant and attention to vowel), for each searchlight centered on voxels belonging to the
321 subject's specific cortical ribbon. To perform a group analysis, these accuracies were
322 projected onto each subject's reconstructed cortical surface and then mapped back onto the
323 group average cortical sheet using CBA. After the re-alignment, we considered in the group
324 analysis only the vertices common to all subjects. To assess uncorrected significance of the
325 classifications at the group level, we considered a non-parametric permutation test at each
326 searchlight location independently. For each vertex, we took all the subject accuracies and the
327 associated mean, and, using a resampling approach, we estimated the probability that such
328 mean or a higher value could occur if the data were obtained under the null hypothesis (H0)
329 that the decoding population mean is at chance level (i.e., 50%). This probability is the p-
330 value associated with the observed group mean. The resampling strategy was based on the
331 fact that, under H0, the likelihood of the observed accuracies is symmetric around chance
332 (i.e., 55% and 65% are equally likely if the population mean is 50%), and we can, therefore,
333 build many datasets by switching some of the subjects' accuracies around chance (Good,
334 2005, section 3.2.1). We ran 2,000 random permutations (Monte Carlo permutations) and for
335 each searchlight we determined the p-value as the ratio between how many times the mean of
336 a population resample equaled or exceeded the observed mean and the total number of
337 permutations (adding 1 to both numerator and denominator to avoid 0 p-values, hence the
338 lowest p-value was 1/2001).

339 Finally, to correct for multiple comparisons, we employed a permutation-based cluster-size
340 thresholding. We considered an initial Cluster Forming Threshold equal to 0.05 and, then, for
341 each permutation, we tagged as significant those vertices whose observed mean was higher
342 than the 1- quantile (obtained with the resampling procedure described above). For each of
343 these “false positive” maps, we determined the maximum extent of clusters (on the surface)
344 and built a distribution of cluster sizes across the 2,000 permutations. Clusters of significant
345 vertices, or equal to 0.05, in the observed data that were larger than the 95% quantile of the
346 obtained distribution were deemed significant and corrected for multiple comparisons. It is
347 worth mentioning that this procedure is based on a permutation strategy that does not suffer
348 from inflation of false positive rate, as recently shown in Eklund et al. (2016).

349 **Results**

350 *Behavioral results in fMRI experiment*

351 To test whether there were any significant difference in reaction times, a factorial analysis of
352 variance (ANOVA) was conducted, with task (attention to vowels and attention to
353 consonants), place of articulation (bilabial/labiodental and alveolar), manner of articulation
354 (stop, fricative, and nasal), speaker (speaker 1, speaker 2, and speaker 3), vowel (a, i, and u),
355 and subject (subject 1 to 14, treated as random factor) as main factors on correct trials only.
356 There was no effect across conditions in behavior. Reaction times for the vowel (mean = 843
357 ms, SD = 402) and the consonant task (mean = 820 ms, SD = 331) did not significantly differ
358 [$F(1, 2541) = 1.26, p = 0.261$]. There were no significant main effects or interactions (all p -
359 values > 0.163).

360 *Functional MRI univariate results during the attend to consonants and attend to vowels tasks*

361 During both the attend to vowels and attend to consonants tasks, the stimuli evoked
362 significant BOLD responses in an extensive area of the superior temporal cortex,

363 encompassing early auditory areas (i.e., Heschl's gyrus and Heschl's sulcus), the planum
364 temporale, the superior temporal sulcus (STS) and gyrus (STG), and the posterior part of the
365 middle temporal gyrus (MTG). Additionally, the insula, supramarginal gyrus, intraparietal
366 sulcus and lateral prefrontal cortex including inferior frontal gyrus (IFG) were activated
367 during both tasks (Figure 2). Finally, univariate analyses did not reveal main effects of task or
368 main effect of place of articulation.

369 *Functional MRI decoding results*

370 To investigate the cortical representation of place of articulation features during the two
371 attentional conditions (i.e., attend to consonants and attend to vowels), we implemented a
372 classification method that relied on generalizing the discriminability of two places of
373 articulation features (i.e., bilabial/labiodental and alveolar) across variation of three manner of
374 articulation features (i.e., stop, fricative, and nasal).

375 Generalization maps after correction for multiple comparisons using cluster-size thresholding
376 ($p\text{-clust} < 0.05$) during the performance of the attend to vowels task are presented in Figure
377 3A. The generalization maps revealed successful decoding of place of articulation within
378 regions of the brain's language network, bilaterally. In the left hemisphere, clusters were
379 distributed across different regions including posterior temporal, temporo-parietal, insular,
380 anterior infero-frontal, frontal, and premotor medial regions. Specific regions included the
381 posterior superior temporal sulcus (STS), supramarginal gyrus (SMG), temporoparietal
382 junction, supplementary motor area (SMA), anterior insula, and anterior portion of the inferior
383 frontal gyrus (aIFG – pars orbitalis and pars triangularis). In the right hemisphere, clusters
384 included superior temporal, insular, inferior-motor and inferior-frontal regions. Specific
385 regions encompassed mid-posterior superior temporal plane (mSTG and pSTG), including
386 Heschl's Gyrus (HG), inferior central sulcus, subcentral gyrus, anterior insula, and posterior

387 (pars opercularis) and anterior (pars triangularis and orbitalis) parts of the inferior frontal
388 gyrus (IFG).

389 Generalization maps for place of articulation during the performance of the attend to
390 consonants task revealed significant clusters in motor regions, insula, and anterior frontal
391 regions in the right hemisphere only (see Figure 3B). More specifically, these clusters
392 included the anterior-superior portion of the angular gyrus (AG), inferior precentral gyrus,
393 inferior central sulcus, subcentral gyrus, anterior-superior insula, posterior IFG, superior
394 frontal sulcus, and anterior middle frontal gyrus.

395 To test for the modulation of place of articulation feature representations between tasks, we
396 compared the classification accuracies of these representations within each searchlight across
397 the two tasks using a two-sample permutation test. This analysis yielded no significant
398 clusters with correction for cluster-size in any of the hemispheres.

399 To explore possible tendencies in the data beyond the rigorous cluster-size thresholding
400 correction, we examined the maps without correction (i.e., $p < 0.05$ uncorrected). We
401 observed that the left hemisphere had more information (clusters) than the right hemisphere.
402 Particularly, we found a large continuous cluster of 134 square millimeters located in the left
403 anterior insula. For this cluster, the classification of place of articulation features during the
404 attend to vowels task exhibited higher accuracies than the classification of place of
405 articulation features during the attend to consonants task (see white outline in Figure 3 and
406 Figure 4). Additionally, the posterior IFG bilaterally tended to show larger classification during
407 attend to vowels than during attend to consonants task (see Figure 4).

408 To increase the power in decoding at the single subject level, we renounced to task specificity
409 by decoding the representation of place of articulation independently of the task effects. We

410 pooled together all the trials from the attend to vowels and attend to consonants tasks and
411 performed the classification of place of articulation ignoring whether a trial belonged to the
412 attend to vowels or attend to consonants task. Using twice as many data as in the task-specific
413 analysis, we expected this classification to be more robust and hence yield a higher number of
414 significant clusters. We found bilateral clusters in the angular, supramarginal, and inferior
415 frontal (i.e., pars opercularis and triangularis) gyri, the anterior insula, middle frontal rostral
416 areas, middle portion of the superior frontal and middle frontocaudal areas, and the
417 intraparietal sulcus. We also found clusters in the right posterior portion of the middle
418 temporal gyrus, the left precentral gyrus, and the right subcentral gyrus (see Figure 5).

419 **Discussion**

420 The present study investigated the spatial representation of place of articulation features
421 during the attentive perception of spoken consonant-vowel syllables (i.e., attend to vowels and
422 attend to consonants). Using identical acoustic input and generalization across variation due to
423 manner of articulation, we provided evidence for cortical representation of place of
424 articulation features. The generalization across manner of articulation allowed us to maximize
425 the acoustic invariance in fMRI classification (Correia et al., 2015) to counteract the
426 differences in acoustic properties (e.g., the variance of the second formant frequency of the
427 vowel segment due to perseverative coarticulation) that often accompany those in place of
428 articulation (Ladefoged and Johnson, 2010). We found representation of place of articulation
429 in separate tasks as well as in the pooled set (i.e., with both attention tasks). During the attend
430 to vowels task, generalization maps of place of articulation features indicated feature
431 sensitivity within bilateral clusters in superior and posterior temporal, insular, and prefrontal
432 regions. During the attend to consonants task, place of articulation features were represented
433 in temporoparietal, insular, and frontal regions within the right hemisphere only. The
434 representation of place of articulation features independent of task effects (i.e., performing the

435 generalization analysis in the pooled data) showed similar clusters to those obtained with each
436 task separately. In addition, this analysis yielded bilateral effects as well as a more prominent
437 contribution of frontal regions.

438 We observed that the brain represents the different features of place of articulation (i.e.,
439 bilabial/labiodental and alveolar) of speech sounds during attentive listening, as shown by
440 generalization across manner of articulation. This observation supports the relevance for place
441 in the context of sensorimotor representation of speech perception (Pulvermuller et al., 2006a;
442 Correia et al., 2015). The present result further supports previous findings that report within-
443 place feature differentiations in STS without generalization across manner (Davis and
444 Johnsrude, 2003; Scott and Johnsrude, 2003; Eulitz and Lahiri, 2004).

445 From a descriptive point of view, the cortical representation included temporal and frontal
446 regions during the attend to vowels task, and right middle and inferior frontal regions during
447 the attend to consonants task. This observation can be discussed in the light of differences in
448 (a) phonological feature specification for vowels and consonants, (b) stimulus processing for
449 consonants and vowels over time, and (c) attentional processing across the stimuli.
450 Consonants belonged to a *specific* feature class (i.e., bilabial/labiodental or alveolar), whereas
451 vowels were equally represented across *all* syllables and place of articulation classes, see
452 Figure 1A (Eulitz and Lahiri, 2004; Scharinger et al., 2016). The temporal processing of
453 consonants and vowels in a CV structure could also have influenced the spatial distribution of
454 the cortical representation; it has been long recognized that the syllable onset has the most
455 relevant status in speech comprehension, whereas stimulus endings can be ignored more
456 easily (Marslen-Wilson and Zwitserlood, 1989).

457 The observed cortical representation could also have related to attentional processing and
458 variation of relevance-based selection across the two tasks. Attending to vowels meant

459 expecting the target to occur always during the *last* part of the syllable. However, although the
460 information related to the consonants is irrelevant for the task, preceding (irrelevant) linguistic
461 information cannot be ignored, as has been shown by studies on subliminal priming (Schütz et
462 al., 2007) and phonological priming (Bles and Jansma, 2008). Therefore, consonant-related
463 information could have still been linguistically processed during attention to vowels, thereby
464 impacting the respective representations within the language system. Attending to consonants
465 meant, in turn, expecting the target to occur always during the *first* part of the syllable, so the
466 information presented after the target (i.e., the vowel) could be easily ignored or discarded.
467 Consequently, the cortical representation of place of articulation features during the attend to
468 vowels task was found to include all areas initially expected for the attend to consonants task
469 (e.g., Correia et al., 2015). Similarly, consonant to vowel transition features may have been
470 amplified during the attend to vowels task, involving specific bilateral temporal regions
471 (Humphries et al., 2014). As during the attend to consonants task no transition (to a
472 subsequent vowel) should be amplified, brain regions dealing with such transitions were not
473 engaged. Future studies could also include other sequences of syllable components (e.g.,
474 Vowel-Consonant syllables or Consonant-Vowel-Consonant structures) to clarify the effect of
475 the relevance-based selection.

476 An alternative possibility pertains to general-feature sensitivity of the language system during
477 attention to vowels and specific-feature selectivity during attention to consonants, as both
478 syllable components can exhibit acoustic and articulatory properties (Ladefoged and Johnson,
479 2010). Given their relatively clearer acoustic features (Narayan et al., 2010), vowels could
480 have had relatively higher perceptual (i.e., auditory) saliency in comparison with consonants,
481 thus explaining the extended representation of place of articulation features during the
482 attention to vowels task. However, this possibility is unlikely because our participants did not

483 differ in reaction times between tasks, and higher saliency should result in faster reaction
484 times during detection and match to sample tasks.

485 The comparison between the two classification maps of place of articulation features yielded a
486 large continuous cluster (uncorrected) in the left anterior insula for attention to vowels vs.
487 attention to consonants. This result points towards a role of the anterior insula in the
488 modulation of the representation of place of articulation, determined by selective attention to
489 vowels in CV syllables. A relevance-based selection, resulting from the specificity of our
490 design, might have dictated a task set where attention to vowels required relatively greater
491 demands on top-down selectivity (i.e., in the attempt to ignore the first part of the syllable).
492 This interpretation is in agreement with the role of the anterior insula as part of a task-set
493 system (Dosenbach et al., 2006) in volitional top-down control (Nelson et al., 2010) and
494 alertness (Sadaghiani et al., 2010; Clemens et al., 2011). Moreover, the anterior insula has
495 been incorporated within the hierarchy of the language network (Davis and Johnsruce, 2003),
496 for example with a role in articulatory planning (Dronkers, 1996; Baldo et al., 2011).

497 The lack of significant clusters representing place of articulation features in other parts of the
498 temporal lobe (e.g., primary auditory cortex) was expected given our analysis approach. The
499 main purpose of combining MVPA with generalization was to maximize the extraction of the
500 information about the abstract (higher order) features under study (i.e., place of articulation)
501 while minimizing the impact of variation in *acoustic* (i.e., manner of articulation) information.
502 Thus, the clusters show where information about place of articulation is represented, free from
503 perceptual properties and information processing of the sounds. Moreover, the univariate
504 analysis results support a critical role of the auditory cortices in speech perception and
505 auditory processing (see Figure 2). However, it should be noted that the univariate maps are
506 showing the main effect to sound compared to silence (i.e., overall relative changes of
507 activation in cortical regions in response to sound). Therefore, these maps reflect sound

508 responsive areas (to speech in our experiment), rather than isolated language-specific areas.
509 The representation of place of articulation revealed by the generalization analysis in separate
510 tasks was also confirmed when the trials from the two tasks were pooled. The additional
511 clusters in frontal areas could have resulted from both the increase in the statistical power
512 (i.e., using twice the number of trials in comparison to the task-specific analyses) and the
513 higher sensitivity of multivariate pattern analysis (i.e., compared to univariate analysis;
514 (Kriegeskorte et al., 2006; Norman et al., 2006; Mur et al., 2008).

515 Overall, our generalization approach showed a network of distributed brain regions (including
516 frontal and sensorimotor areas), where articulatory features are represented during the
517 perception, attention, and short-term memory storage within the delay-match-to-sample tasks.
518 This finding fits well with the cortical areas critical for language comprehension (e.g., the
519 angular and supramarginal gyri; Turken and Dronkers, 2011), sensorimotor integration
520 (Pulvermuller et al., 2006b; Hickok et al., 2011; Schomers and Pulvermüller, 2016), and
521 semantic knowledge retrieval (e.g., angular gyrus; Dronkers et al., 2004; Binder et al., 2009).
522 Moreover, lesion studies showing sentence comprehension impairment have also suggested a
523 role for dorsolateral frontal areas in auditory information integration (e.g., short-term verbal
524 memory rehearsal during sentence comprehension: Smith and Jonides, 1999; and the
525 representation of speech sequences: Fuster, 2001).

526 Considering the observed representation of place of articulation, it would seem reasonable to
527 analyze the individual phonological features in an independent manner. However, we could
528 not do so within our dataset due to the setup of the current experiment, in which the total
529 number of trials was limited. Limitations were related to the sparse sampling acquisition
530 necessary to avoid scanner noise interference, which increased the trial duration. In addition,
531 stimuli tokens were reduced to a subset required to introduce enough variance for
532 classification. These choices, though necessary for the purpose of the study, resulted in

533 selection of material with few individual place of articulation features. Previous studies have
534 also shown representation of individual abstract phonological features (Obleser et al., 2003,
535 2004), notions of underspecification (Scharinger et al., 2016), as well as a multidimensional
536 space of features (i.e., spectral peak or voice onset time) in the encoding of acoustic
537 parameters of speech (Mesgarani et al., 2008, 2014).

538 In summary, here we showed classification of place of articulation features generalized across
539 manner of articulation for the first time. Our results provide evidence for cortical
540 representation of place of articulation features during attentive syllable perception (i.e.,
541 attention to the different syllable components) in sensorimotor, temporoparietal, and frontal
542 areas within the language network. This cortical representation was revealed in additional
543 clusters (e.g., bilateral frontal and sensorimotor areas) when increasing the statistical power.
544 Additionally, we observed a more bilateral distribution for attend to vowels, a more unilateral
545 distribution for attend to consonants, and a trend towards a modulatory role of the left anterior
546 insula in selective attention of speech sounds. To conclude, these data support sensorimotor
547 integration during attentive speech perception and demonstrate that a generalization approach
548 can be used to exclude ‘common factors’, such as perceptual properties, from the analysis.

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740 **Legends**

741 **Figure 1.**

742 Stimuli and experimental paradigm. A) Spoken stimuli matrix and articulatory properties. The 18 syllables were
743 selected according to the place of articulation (i.e. bilabial/labiodental and alveolar) and manner of articulation
744 (i.e. stop, fricative, and nasal). B) Experimental procedure and task description. Example of a typical match-to-
745 sample trial during attend to vowels task. Subjects received instructions per block, in which they attended to
746 consonants or vowels, respectively, and carried out a match-to-sample decision within slow-event related trials.
747 Each block started with the visual presentation of a task cue (i.e., attention target vowel or consonant) indicating
748 which task to perform in the next 27 trials. Each trial started with a fixation period in which a fixation cross was
749 presented at the center of screen, together with a syllable sound (340 ms). After a jittered inter-stimulus interval
750 (ISI jitter: 6 – 8 seconds) a visual cue (i.e., a written letter, vowel or consonant) was presented for 2 seconds,
751 followed by the immediate subject's response by pressing a button either with the right index finger (for match
752 trials) or middle index finger (for mismatch trials). The response was followed by a jittered ISI (4 – 10 seconds)
753 to complete the jittered intertrial interval period (ITI: 12 – 16 seconds) before the next trial started. C) Schematic
754 representation of the fMRI acquisition sequence and its relationship to the syllable sounds presented to the
755 participants. Vow: attend to vowels task, Con: attend to consonants task, Syll: syllable, TA: time of acquisition,
756 TR: time for repetition, Phase: opposite phase encoding volumes acquired for distortion correction.

757 **Figure 2.**

758 Brain areas sensitive to speech sound processing during attend to vowels and attend to consonants tasks.
759 Functional maps depicting the overall pattern of sound-evoked cortical responses during performance of A)
760 attend to vowels (i.e., all sounds attend to vowels > baseline) and B) attend to consonants task (i.e., all sounds
761 attend to consonants > baseline). P-value at cluster threshold (p-clust) < 0.05. Maps are visualized on inflated
762 and aligned group-averaged representations of the left (LH) and right (RH) hemispheres of the fourteen subjects
763 (light gray: gyri and dark gray: sulci). Color scale indicates average beta values.

764 **Figure 3.**

765 Cortical representation of place of articulation features, generalized across manner of articulation. Generalization
766 maps depicting classification accuracies during A) attend to vowels and B) attend to consonants tasks. Insula
767 cluster represents the outline (i.e., white line) of the largest continuous uncorrected cluster from the differences

768 between the two tasks. P -value at cluster-size threshold ($p_{\text{clust}} < 0.05$). Searchlight radius 8.25 mm. Maps are
769 visualized on inflated and aligned group-averaged representations of the left (LH) and right (RH) hemispheres of
770 the fourteen subjects (light gray: gyri and dark gray: sulci). Color scale indicates classification accuracy (Acc)
771 percentages.

772 **Figure 4.**

773 Differences in classification of place of articulation features, generalized across manner of articulation. Maps
774 depicting the difference in the classification accuracies between attend to vowels and attend to consonants tasks.
775 The largest continuous cluster (i.e., area 134 square millimeters) was found in the left anterior insula, outlined in
776 white. P -value uncorrected ($p_{\text{uncorr}} < 0.05$). Searchlight radius 8.25 mm. Maps are visualized on inflated and
777 aligned group-averaged representations of the left (LH) and right (RH) hemispheres of the fourteen subjects
778 (light gray: gyri and dark gray: sulci). Yellow–orange clusters show larger classification accuracies during the
779 attend to vowels task and green–blue clusters show larger classification accuracies during attend to consonants
780 task. Please note that the color scale does not directly relates to the colors used in Figure 3. Color scale indicates
781 differences in the classification accuracy (Acc) percentages.

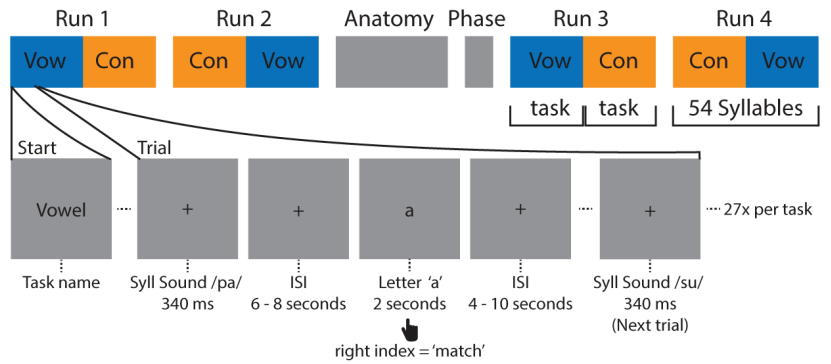
782 **Figure 5**

783 Cortical representation of place of articulation features, generalized across manner of articulation, pooling all
784 trails from two tasks. Generalization maps depicting classification accuracies calculated by pooling all trails
785 from attend to vowels and attend to consonants tasks. Corrected for multiple comparison with cluster-size
786 thresholding. Insula cluster represents the outline (i.e., white line) of the largest continuous uncorrected cluster
787 from the differences between the two tasks. P -value at cluster-size threshold ($p_{\text{clust}} < 0.05$). Searchlight radius
788 8.25 mm. Maps are visualized on inflated and aligned group-averaged representations of the left (LH) and right
789 (RH) hemispheres of the fourteen subjects (light gray: gyri and dark gray: sulci). Color scale indicates
790 classification accuracy (Acc) percentages.

A Stimuli matrix

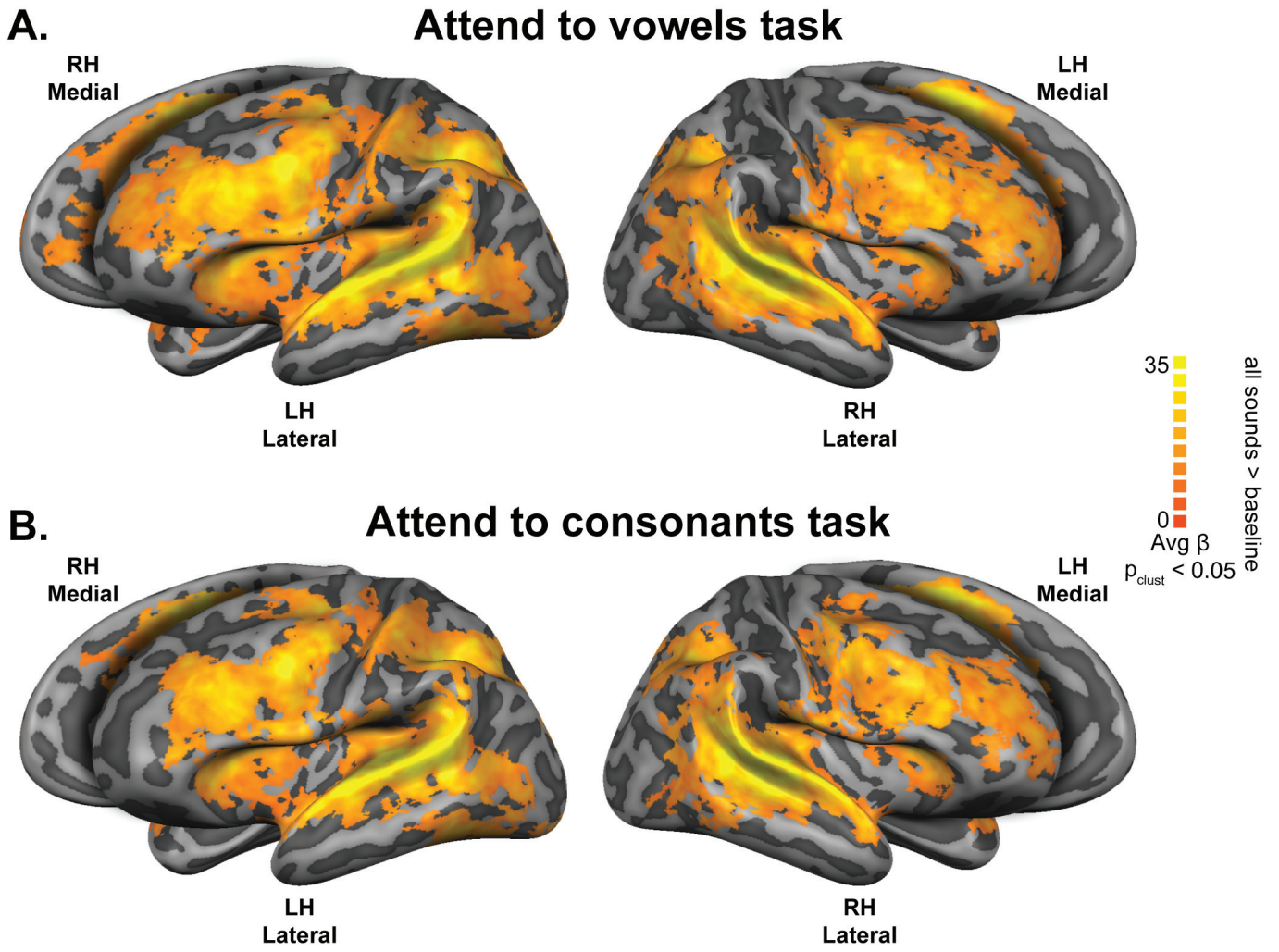
		Place of Articulation	
		Bilabial Labiodental	Alveolar
Manner of Articulation	Stop	'p' /pa/ /pi/ /pu/	't' /ta/ /ti/ /tu/
	Fricative	'f' /fa/ /fi/ /fu/	's' /sa/ /si/ /su/
	Nasal	'm' /ma/ /mi/ /mu/	'n' /na/ /ni/ /nu/

B Experiment structure

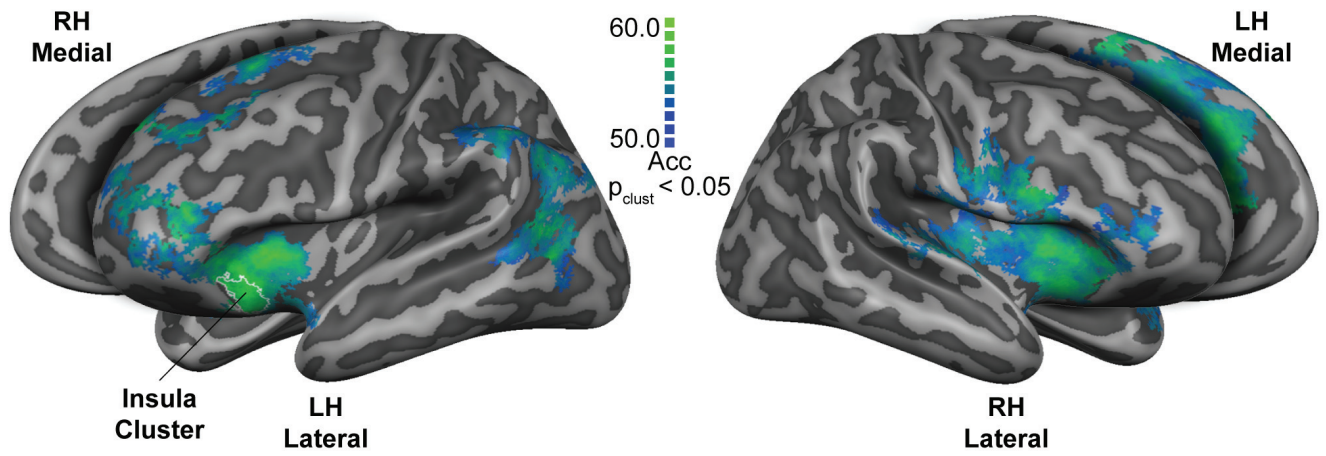


C Acquisition sequence

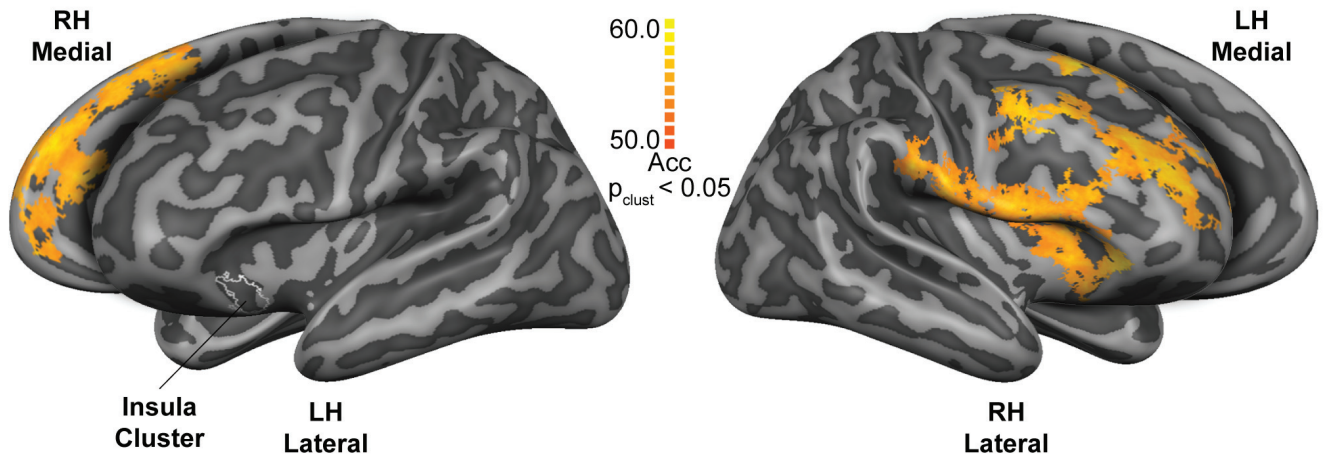




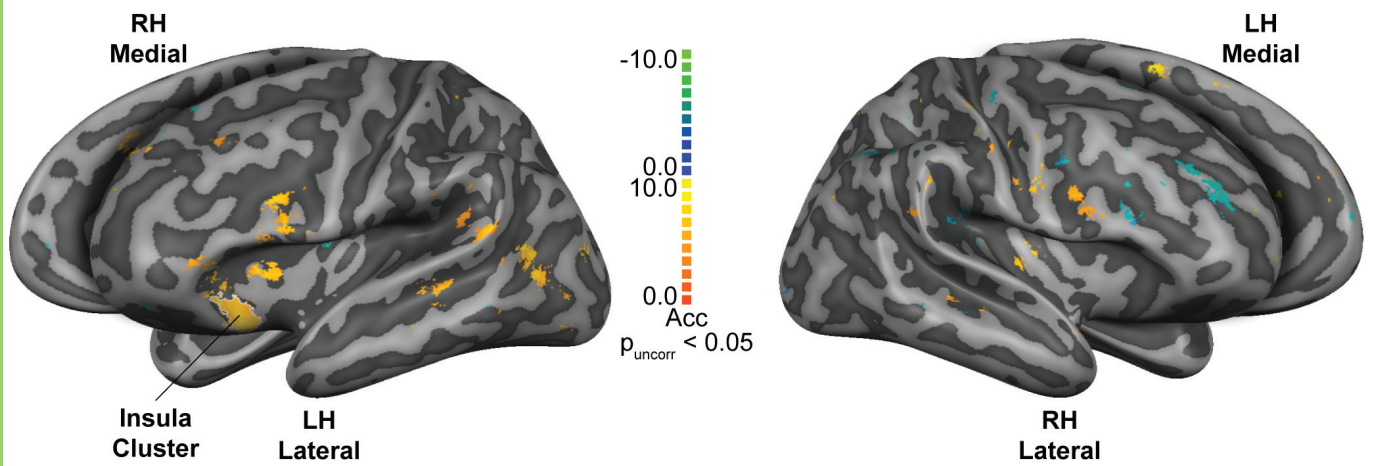
A. Place of articulation during attend to vowels



B. Place of articulation during attend to consonants



Differences in the classification of place of articulation



Place of articulation pooling all trials from both tasks

