A Large-Scale Examination of Inductive Biases Shaping High-Level Visual Representation in Brains and Machines

Supplementary Information

SI.1 Surveyed Models

The list of all surveyed models may be found in Table [1](#page-0-0) below.

Table 1 List of All Models Tested (Continued)

	Model ID	Architecture	Train Task	Train Data	cRSA	eRSA
221	ResNet152	resnet152	random_weights		0.035	0.075
222	$RegNetX-64$	regnetx 064	random_weights		0.039	0.075
223	MobileNet-V3-Large	mobilenetv3_large_100	random_weights		0.009	0.057
224	$ShuffleNet-V2-x1.0$	shufflenet $v2 \times 1$ 0	random_weights		0.041	0.048

SI.2 Effective Dimensionality

Concurrent work by Elmoznino and Bonner [\[66\]](#page-0-1) found that model feature spaces with greater effective dimensionality (ED) were better predictors of high-level visual cortex, including in prediction of occipitotemporal responses in the Natural Scenes Dataset. In our analysis, we do not find this trend. What reasons might account for this disjunct between findings?

First, we considered model sets. At the time of this preprint, the models tested by Elmoznino and Bonner [\[66\]](#page-0-1) include only ResNet18 and ResNet50 models, trained via self- or category-supervision on ImageNet1K; the ResNet50 models of Taskonomy; and untrained ResNet18 and ResNet50 models. When we subsetted our models to include only the best layers of the Taskonomy Resnet50s ($N = 24$), we found that ED was indeed a significant positive predictor of OTC predictivity ($r_{Spearman} = 0.41$ [0.015, 0.73], $p = 0.026$ in cRSA; 0.435 [0.162, 0.730], $p = 0.039$ in veRSA). However, as is perhaps already evident from the large confidence intervals, we found this effect to be somewhat brittle, quickly breaking with the addition of the 12 less-performant models that ranked similarly to those of Taskonomy (and below the breakpoint suggested by the segmented regression analysis; $r_{Spearman} = 0.041$ [-0.357, 0.392], $p = 0.341$ in cRSA; 0.0532 [-0.324, 0.393], $p = 0.37$ in veRSA).

Second, we tested the impact of the image set on computation of ED. Elmoznino and Bonner [\[66\]](#page-0-1) estimated ED over 10,000 ImageNet1K validation images, whereas we estimated ED over the 'shared1000' COCO images. To check for differences in ED estimates computed over the different image sets, we directly replicated the approach of Elmoznino and Bonner [\[66\]](#page-0-1). This involved considering only the ReLU stages of each convolutional block, and performing a global-pooling operation over features of each model layer, prior to computing ED. While we did not include this pooling step in our main analyses, we did so in this supplementary analysis to ensure that ED levels across the two image sets could be compared with all other analytical choices held constant. The results of this analysis can be seen in [Supplementary Figure 1.](#page-3-0) We observe similar ED estimates when probing these two different image sets, with slightly lower ED estimates in the later layers when using the 'shared1000' probe set.

Supplementary Figure 1: Replication of Elmoznino and Bonner [\[66\]](#page-0-1)'s Effective Dimensionality (ED). We use the ReLU outputs of ResNet18's residual blocks to determine whether the 'shared1000' COCO images were a sufficiently diverse image set for calculating a meaningful measure of ED, compared with 10,000 ImageNet1K validation used in previous analyses. While the estimated ED yielded by the 10,000 ImageNet1K images is visibly higher in later layers, the correlation between the ED across layers (which undergirds the primary statistics we use to assess the relationship of ED to brain predictivity in our main analysis) is effectively 1:1 ($r_{Pearson}$ = 0.99 [0.98, 0.99]). This shows that the 'shared1000' COCO images are a sufficiently diverse image set for calculating ED.

Broadly, there are several key analytical differences in our test of ED and brain predictivity that likely underlie the divergence between our findings and those of Elmoznino and Bonner [\[66\]](#page-0-1). First, Elmoznino and Bonner [\[66\]](#page-0-1) jointly analyzed ED from multiple layers of individual models, as well as from untrained models. We argue that this choice introduces significant covariation between high-level feature quality and effective dimensionality. If the importance of ED for high brain predictivity was truly a general principle, then our stronger test examining the ED variation across models from only the most brain-aligned layer should also yield correlations with brain predictivity (but this was not the case). Second, Elmoznino and Bonner [\[66\]](#page-0-1) applied a global max-pooling to the convolutional feature maps before computing ED, noting their primary interest in the variance of image features, rather than the variance in those properties across space. However, in our analysis pipeline, such a global max-pooling operation is frequently infeasible (e.g, for non-convolutional models). And, more generally, estimating ED over the exact same feature space used to fit the brain responses seems preferable from a theoretical standpoint.

SI.3 Stability of Rankings across Subjects

In our main analysis, all predictivity scores we report are the average across 4 subjects. That even the smallest differences in predictivity between models is significant across many of our controlled model comparisons already suggests that patterns in these scores are meaningfully stable and consistent across subjects. We further quantity this stability in two ways.

The first is with a rank-order correlation of model rankings between individual pairs of subjects ($N = 6$) unique pairwise comparisons). Across *all models* – including randomly-initialized models – this correlation is $r_{Spearman} = 0.98$ [0.975, 0.985] for cRSA and 0.957 [0.945, 0.967]. Across only the top 125-ranking models, this correlation remains remarkably high, at $r_{Spearman} = 0.923$ [0.907, 0.938] for cRSA and $r_{Spearman} =$ 0.835 [0.797, 0.873] for eRSA. A permutation test in which we scramble the model scores across subjects and recompute this same rank order correlation suggests these values are *extremely* unlikely to occur by chance (mean permuted $r_{Spearman} = 0.0052$ [-0.0455, 0.0736] in cRSA and 0.008 [-0.0239, 0.0278] in eRSA; not a single permutation achieves $r_{Spearman} > 0.1$).

What we are testing here, in effect, is the logic of brain-predictivity leaderboards. This analysis suggests that – while small – the differences between consecutively ranked models in our analyses are statistically meaningful. This does not spare inferences derived from leaderboards from the critique that differences between consecutively ranked models are rarely attributable to unique or controlled sources of variation, but it does suggest that small score differences reflect more than random statistical variation.

We visualize the degree of inter-subject variability in model rankings in [Supplementary Figure 2](#page-4-0) below.

Supplementary Figure 2: Overall Model Variation for Individual Subjects. Brain predictivity is plotted for all models $(N = 224)$, sorted by the group-average veRSA score. Each point is the score from the most brain-predictive layer (selected by cross-validation) of a single model, plotted for both cRSA (open) and veRSA (filled) metrics. Colors refer to the 4 NSD subjects. Shaded regions refer to the subject-specific noise ceilings.

SI.4 Brain Predictivity as a Function of Layer Depth

In our main analyses, we compare models based on only their most brain-predictive layers, identified via crossvalidation. We also examined whether these peak layers tended to arise at a particular level of computational depth. In [Supplementary Figure 3](#page-5-0) below, we summarize prediction scores as a function of relative layer depth for all models in the controlled architecture comparison (CNNs versus Transformers, with constant task and input diet; see Results Figure [2\)](#page-4-0). The x-axis ranges from 0.5 to 1.0 relative layer depth (where 0 is the input layer, and 1 is the output layer), reflecting our focus on testing the correspondence of the later model layers to OTC for computational efficiency.

[Supplementary Figure 3](#page-5-0) reveals that the later layers of trained models show gradually increasing brain predictivity with layer depth, peaking at a relative depth of around 0.9 on average, followed by slight decrease in mean predictivity toward the output layers. This pattern is more pronounced in veRSA compared to cRSA. No such trend is evident in untrained models, regardless of the metric used. These comparisons further demonstrate the gap in predictive capacity of trained versus untrained models across the late-stage model hierarchy.

Supplementary Figure 3: Layer Summaries of Brain Prediction Scores. OTC prediction scores are plotted against relative layer depth for the 64 DNN architectures included in our survey of ImageNet-trained models (including the architectures in Figure [2\)](#page-4-0), for cRSA (left) and veRSA (right). Scores for each distinct model are represented by thin lines, with the average trend shown by a thick line (purple for trained models and gray for untrained). The x-axis reflects relative layer positions within each network, where 0.5 reflects the middle layer and 1 reflects the final layer. Data points are binned by 0.1 intervals of relative depth, with OTC-prediction scores averaged within each bin.

SI.5 Modeling Results in Early Visual Cortex

While the focus of our main analyses was the predictivity of a unified OTC ROI, we designed our pipeline to generate predictions for a number of additional ROIs – including early visual cortex (EVC: V1-V4).

This ROI encapsulates the ventral and dorsal aspects of areas V1, V2, and V3, as well as area hV4. To define the EVC ROI for each subject, we again first isolated voxels within the "nsdgeneral" ROI, and then selected for analyses any voxels that both fell within one of the early visual regions listed above, and that exceeded the NCSNR threshold of 0.2. This procedure yielded a total of 4,657 voxels for subject 01, 3,757 voxels for subject 02, 3,661 voxels for subject 05, and 3,251 voxels for subject 07.

A first question we might ask, then, is whether the better models of OTC in general are better models of EVC. To do this, we can correlate the predictivity of each model we test in OTC with that same model's predictivity in a macro-scale EVC ROI. (Note that, as in our analyses of OTC, we select the most EVCpredictive layer from each model using the training set of 500 images, and report the score of this layer on the 500 held-out test images). Across *all models*, this correlation is high: $r_{Spearman} = 0.809$ [0.801, 0.822] in cRSA and 0.835 [0.816, 0.853] in eRSA. Across only the 125 highest ranking models of OTC, this correlation is markedly lower: 0.212 [0.166, 0.261] in cRSA and 0.287 [0.209, 0.364] in eRSA. In other words, it seems, poor models of OTC (e.g. the Taskonomy-trained and randomly-initialized) models are also poor models of

EVC; excluding these poor-performing models, however, better models of OTC are not necessarily better models of EVC.

This rank-order correlation across many models, more generally, does not necessarily capture the subtleties and trends we saw in our opportunistic experiments and controlled model comparisons, which we can directly repeat in EVC. While a comprehensive recap of each opportunistic experiment applied to EVC is beyond the scope of this analysis, what we can say is that many, but not all, of the trends we observe in OTC are recapitulated in EVC. For example, there is, once again, only a negligible difference in the average predictivity of CNNs versus transformers (cRSA β = -0.029, p = 7.08e-10; veRSA β = -0.007, p = 2.61e- 3). Perhaps the most notable divergence between EVC and OTC in terms of our opportunistic experiments is the minimal difference of the veRSA metric in EVC between the self-supervised (IPCL) model trained on objects (ImageNet) versus faces (VGGFace2) (EVC β = -0.0394, p = 8.62e- 4, OTC β = -0.2719, p = 1.03e-9). Unlike in OTC, then, face-trained models (with reweighting) perform on par with object-trained models. This means that even the depleted set of natural image statistics available in a visual diet of faces alone may still be sufficient to capture core aspects of early visual cortical representation.

SI.6 Compute Required

We used a single machine with 8 Nvidia RTX 3090 GPUs, 755gb of RAM, and 96 CPUs. GPUs were used only for extracting model activations, and could (without major slowdown) be removed from the analytic pipeline. Dimensionality reduction and regression computations were CPU and RAM intensive. Replicating all of our results would take approximately three weeks on a similar machine.