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Deeper Than You Think: Partisanship-Dependent Brain Responses in Early Sensory and Motor Brain Regions

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1 **Deeper Than You Think: Partisanship-Dependent Brain Responses in Early Sensory and**

2 **Motor Brain Regions**

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19

20 Abstract

21 Recent political polarization has illustrated how individuals with opposing political views
22 often experience ongoing events in markedly different ways. In this study, we explored
23 the neural mechanisms underpinning this phenomenon. We conducted functional
24 magnetic resonance image (fMRI) scanning of thirty-four right- and left-wing participants
25 (45% females) watching political videos (e.g., campaign ads and political speeches) just
26 before the elections in Israel. As expected, we observed significant differences between
27 left- and right-wing participants in their interpretation of the videos' content.
28 Furthermore, neuroimaging results revealed partisanship-dependent differences in
29 activation and synchronization in higher-order regions. Surprisingly, such differences
30 were also revealed in early sensory, motor and somato-sensory regions. We found that
31 the political content synchronized the responses of primary visual and auditory cortices
32 in a partisanship-dependent manner. Moreover, right-wing (and not left-wing)
33 individuals' sensorimotor cortex was involved in processing right-wing (and not left-wing)
34 political content. These differences were pronounced to the extent that we could predict
35 political orientation from the early brain-response alone. Importantly, no such differences
36 were found with respect to neutral content. Therefore, these results uncover more
37 fundamental neural mechanisms underlying processes of political polarization.

38 Significance Statement

39 The political sphere has become highly polarized in recent years. Would it be possible
40 to identify the neural mechanisms underpinning such processes? In our study, left- and

41 right-wing participants were scanned in fMRI while watching political video-clips just
42 before the elections in Israel. We found that political content was potent in
43 synchronizing the brain responses of individuals holding similar views. This was far more
44 pronounced in individuals holding right-wing views. Moreover, partisan-dependent
45 differences in neural responses were identified already in early sensory, somato-sensory
46 and motor regions, and only for political content. These results suggest that individuals'
47 political views shape their neural responses at a very basic level.

48 **Introduction**

49 Today, perhaps more than ever, creating a shared understanding of the world we live in
50 seems like an urgent yet elusive endeavor. Humans understand each other well enough
51 to create social and technological feats of immense complexity, but not enough to agree
52 on whether the media coverage of an election was biased, or in which way. In this study,
53 we study the neural mechanisms that give rise to partisanship-dependent understanding
54 of real-life political events.

55 Political partisanship influences one's choices, perception, and understanding of
56 information (Bolsen et al., 2014; Carney et al., 2008; Cohen, 2003; Frenda et al., 2013;
57 Jost et al., 2018; Jost & Amodio, 2003; Kraft et al., 2015; van Bavel & Pereira, 2018). These
58 behavioral partisan-based differences were further borne out in neuroimaging studies.
59 Previous studies found political-based differences in brain responses, as well as in the
60 volume of specific regions (Jost & Amodio, 2003). For example, liberalism was associated
61 with increased anterior cingulate (ACC) volume, and conservatism with increased

62 amygdala volume (Kanai et al., 2011). These extend previous neurocognitive findings
 63 about the high degree of conflict-monitoring among liberals, which is associated with
 64 increased ACC activation (Amodio et al., 2007), and conservatives' sensitivity to
 65 threatening situations and facial expressions, which was reflected by emotional
 66 processing in areas such as the amygdala (Jost et al., 2003; Vigil, 2010). Differences such
 67 as these enabled prediction of political orientation based on the neural response,
 68 whether to disgusting images (Ahn et al., 2014), or in a risk-taking task (Schreiber et al.,
 69 2013).

70 Partisanship-dependent differences in brain response were also demonstrated in
 71 the context of naturalistic stimuli such as stories and movies. For example, polarized
 72 political videos about immigration policy resulted in “neural polarization” (divergence in
 73 brain activity between liberals and conservatives) in the dorsal medial prefrontal cortex
 74 (dmPFC) (Leong et al., 2020). Similarly, a functional near-infrared spectroscopy (fNIRS)
 75 study in which participants watched videos on abortion could classify participants'
 76 political views based on response patterns in the dmPFC (Dieffenbach et al., 2021).
 77 Moreover, a recent study examined the neural synchronization between individuals
 78 watching political and non-political video clips (van Baar et al., 2021). In this study,
 79 participants who shared a political ideology had increased neural synchrony in regions
 80 including the default mode network (DMN) for high-intensity political clips but not for
 81 low-intensity or non-political clips. These findings are in line with previous research on
 82 interpretation-dependent responses of the DMN while processing non-political movies
 83 and stories (Finn et al., 2018; Nguyen et al., 2019; Yeshurun et al., 2017). These previous

84 studies did not directly compare partisan-dependent differences in neural
85 synchronization across groups (i.e., left-wing vs. right-wing).

86 In the present study, we tested how political partisanship shapes the brain
87 response to polarizing political stimuli. By using functional magnetic resonance imaging
88 (fMRI), we were able to examine neural activation and synchronization of right- and left-
89 wing participants while they watched various political video clips. Based on previous
90 studies (Leong et al., 2020; Nguyen et al., 2019; van Baar et al., 2021; Yeshurun et al.,
91 2017), we hypothesized that there would be partisan-dependent differences in the
92 default mode network (DMN) while processing political content. Due to our focus on
93 individuals with high levels of political engagement, and the timing of the experiment –
94 just before the 2019 elections in Israel when political partisanship was intensified and
95 almost omnipresent – we hypothesized that such differences may emerge already at early
96 brain processing.

97 **Materials and Methods**

98 Participants

99 Forty-one right-handed participants took part in this fMRI study (24 males and 17 females,
100 mean age = 26.5 ± 5.75). Prior to taking part in the study, participants completed a
101 questionnaire that included a question about their political involvement (“How much are
102 you politically involved?”) which they answered using a VAS ranging from “not at all” (0)
103 to “very much” (100) and a question regarding their political orientation (“How would you
104 define your political orientation?”) which they answered using a VAS ranging from “Left”

105 (0) to “Right” (100). We recruited individuals who were highly politically involved
 106 (mean=75.62, STD = 23.87), and were markedly left-wing (mean = 15.29, STD =11.82) or
 107 right-wing (mean = 86.59, STD =12.9) (see Fig.1a). Seven participants were discarded from
 108 the analysis: four due to our inability to characterize their political views based on their
 109 post-scan questionnaire; two due to incidental clinical findings; and one due to excessive
 110 head motion (>2mm). The remaining 34 participants were divided into two equal groups
 111 based on their political views: *Right-wing group* (11 males and 6 females, mean age =
 112 27 ± 6.4) and *Left-wing group* (8 males and 9 females, mean age = 24.88 ± 3.8). This sample
 113 size of 17 participants in each group has been shown in previous studies to be sufficient
 114 to test for similarities and differences in neural responses to naturalistic stimuli (Ames et
 115 al., 2015; Yeshurun et al., 2017), and for power analyses of inter-subject correlation
 116 (Pajula & Tohka, 2016). In two (of the five) stimuli we analyzed, we excluded a further two
 117 participants due to a lack of data following technical problems. The experimental
 118 procedures were approved by Tel Aviv University’s Ethics Committee and the Institutional
 119 Review Board at the Sheba Tel-Hashomer Medical Center. All participants provided
 120 written informed consent and received payment for their time.

121 Stimuli and experimental design

122 The experiment took place three weeks before the April 2019 national elections in Israel.
 123 Participants watched 8 video clips inside the MRI scanner (mean length = 197 seconds, *SD*
 124 = 64.92 seconds): one neutral clip (a short documentary about someone who moved an
 125 old bus into his house); four campaign ads (two from a right-wing, one from a center, and
 126 one from a left-wing party); two political speeches (one by Benjamin Netanyahu, a right-

127 wing politician, and one by Shelly Yachimovich, a left-wing politician), and a pre-election
 128 political survey clip. Each clip was preceded and followed by a gray screen: 8 seconds
 129 before, and 10 seconds after (which were discarded from the analysis).

130 After each clip, participants were asked to answer three questions about it: (1)
 131 *"How much did you agree with the main message of this clip?"*; (2) *"How much did this*
 132 *clip interest you?"*; and (3) *"How emotionally engaged were you?"* (Fig. 1a). They
 133 answered these questions by indicating their ratings (using a magnet-compatible
 134 mouse) on a visual analog scale (VAS) that ranged from "Not at all" (0) to "Very" (100).
 135 The order of the clips was randomized into 4 versions, which all began with the neutral
 136 clip and ended with the political survey one. The participants' eye gaze was monitored
 137 online and recorded at 500 Hz using SR-Research's EyeLink 1000 Plus Eye-Tracker.
 138 However, due to technical issues, eye-tracking data was not collected in over half of the
 139 participants (18 out of 34 participants), so we did not analyze that data. Immediately
 140 after the scan, participants completed a behavioral assessment session, that was held in
 141 a separate, adjacent room. In this session there were 29 comprehension questions and
 142 61 interpretation questions about the clips presented in the scanner, as well as general
 143 feelings and views about the politicians shown in the clips.

144 In this study, we analyzed the brain responses to five of the eight video clips (Fig.
 145 1a): neutral clip (Neutral, 151 seconds long); Two right-wing clips: a right-wing campaign
 146 ad (RWC, 198 seconds long) and a right-wing politician's speech (RWS, 235 seconds long);
 147 and two left-wing clips: a left-wing campaign ad (LWC, 206 seconds long) and a left-wing
 148 politician's speech (LWS, 312 seconds long).

149 MRI acquisition

150 Participants were scanned using a 3T Siemens Prisma scanner with a 64-channel head coil.
 151 T1-weighted structural images were acquired using a magnetization prepared rapid
 152 gradient echo pulse sequence (MPRAGE), as follows: TR=2530ms, TE=2.88ms, TI=1100ms,
 153 flip angle= 7° and 250Hz/px, isotropic voxel size of 1mm³. For Functional scans, images
 154 were acquired by means of a T2*-weighted multiband echo planar imaging protocol.
 155 Repetition time (TR) = 1000 ms, echo time (TE) = 34 ms, flip angle (FA) = 60°, multiband
 156 acceleration factor of six without parallel imaging. Isotropic resolution was 2mm³ (no
 157 gaps) with full brain coverage; slice-acquisition order was interleaved.

158 Imaging analysis

159 Preprocessing

160 Raw DICOM format imaging data was converted to NIfTI with dcm2nii tool. The NIfTI files
 161 were organized according to the BIDS format v1.0.1 (Gorgolewski et al., 2016). fMRI data
 162 preprocessing was conducted using the FMRIB's Software Library's (FSL v6.0.2) fMRI
 163 Expert Analysis Tool (FEAT v6.00) (Smith et al., 2004). All data was subjected to the
 164 following preprocessing procedures: brain-extraction for skull-stripping anatomy image;
 165 slice-time correction; high-pass filtering (two cycles per stimulus's length); motion-
 166 correction to the middle time-point of each run; and smoothing with a 4-mm FWHM
 167 kernel. All images were registered to the high-resolution anatomical data using boundary-
 168 based reconstruction and normalized to the Montreal Neurological Institute (MNI)
 169 template, using nonlinear registration. Blood-oxygen-level-dependent (BOLD) response

170 was normalized (z-scored) within subjects for every voxel for each video-clip.
 171 Hemodynamic response function (HRF) was calculated for each participant according to
 172 the peak start time of the BOLD response in early auditory areas (A1+), using the pre-
 173 election political survey video clip (which was not part of the stimuli analyzed in this
 174 study). The shift was then calculated as the duration from the stimulus onset to the first
 175 peak of the hemodynamic response in A1+ (mean shift = 3.18 s, $SD = .72$). We further
 176 analyzed the data only in voxels that had a reliable BOLD signal (<3000 AU) in at least 90%
 177 of the participants in each group (right- and left-wing). This procedure resulted in 217,930
 178 voxels for the neutral video clip; 214,919 voxels for the RWC video clip; 217,149 voxels
 179 for the LWC video clip; 217,232 voxels for the RWS; 217,305 voxels for the LWS. Next, we
 180 divided the brain into 268 nodes, including cortical and sub-cortical regions, using a
 181 parcellation map based on resting-state connectivity (Shen et al., 2013). Within each
 182 node, we averaged the BOLD responses of all reliable voxels of each participant, for each
 183 video-clip.

184 Inter-subject correlation

185 We used inter-subject correlation (Hasson et al., 2004) (ISC) to define nodes that were
 186 involved in processing the video clips (Neutral, RWC, RWS, LWC and LWS). ISC measures
 187 the degree to which neural responses to naturalistic stimuli are shared between
 188 participants processing the same stimuli. For each node, we correlated each participant's
 189 time course with the average time-course response across all other participants in the
 190 same group using Pearson correlation. We then averaged these 17 correlations
 191 coefficients values (or 16 values for RWS and LWS) to get an estimation of the in-group

192 similarity in neural response for each of the 268 nodes. To determine whether a specific
 193 ISC value was significantly greater than chance, we calculated a null distribution
 194 generated by a bootstrapping procedure. For each of the video clips, for each empirical
 195 time course at each node, 1,000 bootstrap-time series were generated using a phase-
 196 randomization procedure. Phase randomization was performed by fast-Fourier
 197 transformation (FFT) of the signal, randomizing the phase of each Fourier component,
 198 and then inverting the Fourier transformation back to the time domain. This procedure
 199 leaves the power spectrum of the signal unchanged, but removes temporal alignments of
 200 the signals. Using these bootstrap-time courses, a null distribution of the average
 201 correlations was calculated for each node.

202 To correct for multiple comparisons, we selected the highest ISC-value from the
 203 null distribution in each node (Regev et al., 2013b). The chosen threshold for every group,
 204 in each stimulus, was defined as the top 5% of the maximum values in the 268 nodes
 205 (Neutral threshold ISC: right-wing group > .15, left-wing group > .15; RWC threshold ISC:
 206 right-wing group > .13, left-wing group > .13; RWS threshold: right-wing group > .12, left-
 207 wing group > .12; LWC threshold ISC: right-wing group > .14, left-wing group > .14; LWS
 208 threshold: right-wing group > .11, left-wing group > .12). These thresholds were used to
 209 test for regions that were involved in processing the video clips in each partisan group.

210 Testing between-groups differences in processing the stimuli

211 To test for differences in neural processing of the video clips, we first identified (in each
 212 clip) nodes in which only one of the groups had passed the ISC threshold while the other
 213 group did not (i.e. nodes that were involved in processing the clip only in one group and

not in the other). Next, to verify that these nodes indeed reflected significant differences between the groups (i.e., it is not the case that the ISC value was just above the threshold in one group and just below the threshold in the other), we calculated the ISC value of each participant in each group by correlating between participant's response to the mean response of the group. We then applied Fisher transformation to these correlation coefficients and computed an independent sample two-tailed t-test between the groups (i.e., comparing 17 values of right-wing participants with 17 values of left-wing participants). This resulted in a p-value for each node. To correct for multiple comparisons, false discovery rate (FDR) (Benjamini & Hochberg, 1995) correction was applied with q criterion < 0.05 .

Support-vector machine (SVM) classification

We trained an SVM classifier (Cortes and Vapnik, 1995) to test whether participants' partisanship can be classified according to the level of neural synchronization they share with their group while watching political content. We did so for each of the four political videos (N=17 in each group in RWC and LWC; N=16 in each group in RWS and LWS), in each of the 268 nodes. This classifier was a leave-two-out algorithm, that received a training set and a testing set. We used one-dimensional space data - the correlation between each participant's brain response to the video and the averaged brain response of the rest of the group, to classify the participants' political views. The training set contained N-1 correlation coefficients of each group and the testing set contained the remaining two correlation coefficients (one from each political group). The support vector classifier (SVC) used the training data set to find a single point to serve as the hyperplane

236 that classified the data into classes, and labeled the testing set as right- or left-wing
 237 accordingly. This algorithm was executed N^2 times (each time, two different participants
 238 were left out). At each time, the classifier could be correct (1) or incorrect (0). The
 239 classifier accuracy in a specific node was the average of the N^2 trials (e.g., a number
 240 between 0 and 1).

241 To test whether the classifier accuracy value was significantly larger than would
 242 be expected by chance, we simulated a null distribution using a permutation method. The
 243 data (16 or 17 within-group correlations for each group) from a specific node was
 244 extracted, and the labels of the groups were shuffled randomly to create two new pseudo
 245 groups. We then classified each participant's partisanship using the same classification
 246 procedure that was applied to the empirical data. This procedure of label shuffling and
 247 classifying was repeated 1000 times. Thus, we obtained a null distribution of 1000
 248 classifier accuracies under the null hypothesis. This distribution reflects the probability of
 249 the classifier achieving a classification rate by chance. The p-values of the empirical
 250 classifier accuracies were computed using the following formula: (number of null values
 251 larger than the real value + 1)/1000. We corrected for multiple comparisons by controlling
 252 FDR correction (Benjamini & Hochberg, 1995) with a q criterion of .05.

253 Inter-subject representational similarity analysis (IS-RSA)

254 We used IS-RSA (Finn et al., 2020) to test whether stronger political views were associated
 255 with more similar brain responses to the political video clips. Similarity in strength of
 256 political views was calculated using the AnnaK model (Finn et al., 2020). For each video
 257 clip, and for each pair of participants, we calculated their averaged agreement value with

258 the main message of the video clip during the scan, which was rated using a VAS, ranging
 259 from 0 = Highly disagree to 100 = Highly agree. This resulted in a 34x34 similarity matrix
 260 for the RWC and LWC, and a 32x32 similarity matrix for the RWS and LWS. For the brain
 261 activity similarity matrix, we used the ISC method and computed a pairwise Pearson
 262 correlation between each pair of participants' time courses, for each node (for RWC and
 263 LWC: 34x34 brain activity similarity matrices; for RWS and LWS: 32x32 brain activity
 264 similarity matrices). The IS-RSA was then computed as the Spearman correlation between
 265 the behavioral matrix and the brain activity similarity matrix.

266 To determine whether a specific IS-RSA value was significantly greater than chance, we
 267 calculated a null distribution generated by a bootstrapping procedure. For each video
 268 clip, in each node, we generated a pseudo neural similarity matrix by choosing the
 269 timecourse of one participant, scrambled this participant's timecourse using a phase-
 270 randomization procedure, and then calculated pairwise correlation between this
 271 participant's scrambled timecourse with each of the other (33) participants' intact
 272 timecourses. This resulted in a vector of 1*34 pairwise correlation values per
 273 participant. We repeated this procedure for each of the 34 participants, resulting in a
 274 34*34 neural similarity matrix. This procedure kept the dependence structure of the
 275 neural similarity matrix, as each participant contributed to multiple cells in the matrix
 276 (as was the case in the real data similarity matrix). We then computed Spearman's
 277 correlation between the "pseudo" similarity brain matrix and the behavioral matrix. We
 278 repeated the phase randomization procedure 1,000 times, to generate a null
 279 distribution of pseudo IS-RSA values for each node. The p-values of the empirical

280 Spearman's r-values were computed using the following formula: (number of null values
 281 larger than the real value + 1)/1,000. To correct for multiple comparisons, FDR
 282 correction (Benjamini & Hochberg, 1995) was applied, with q criterion < .05.

283 Inter-Subject Functional Connectivity (ISFC)

284 To test whether political views were associated with stronger connectivity between brain
 285 regions, we used Inter-Subject Functional Connectivity (ISFC) (Simony et al., 2016). To do
 286 so, we first defined regions of interest (ROIs) as 10 nodes that were revealed by the ISC
 287 and IS-RSA analysis to have political-dependent responses and were in particular interest
 288 for the findings of this study. These nodes included parcels within the: primary visual
 289 cortex, bilateral auditory cortex, somatosensory cortex, motor cortex, pre-Supplementary
 290 Motor Area (pre-SMA) and Supplementary Motor Area (SMA), posterior cingulate cortex
 291 (PCC), right Temporal Parietal Junction (TPJ) and dmPFC. For each of the 10 ROIs, for each
 292 participant, we extracted the timecourse and correlated it with the averaged timecourse
 293 of the remaining participants, in each of the 10 ROIs. These correlation values underwent
 294 a Fisher's r-to-z transformation, were averaged across participants and then inverse
 295 transformed to produce averaged correlation values. This resulted with a 10x10 ISFC
 296 matrix, of the functional connectivity between these 10 regions, and it was asymmetric
 297 due to the directional nature of this procedure. However, functional connectivity is
 298 considered to be unidirectional. Therefore, the symmetry was imposed by averaging
 299 the upper and the lower triangles (Simony et al., 2016).

300 Moreover, to test whether the functional connectivity between these ROIs was
 301 stronger in one group than the other, we completed a t-test for independent samples. To

do so, we used the previously defined ROIs' timecourses of every participant. Each such timecourse of every participant was correlated with the averaged (across participants) timecourses of all other ROIs. Next, these correlations underwent a Fisher's r -to- z transformation, resulting in each edge having as many transformed correlations as there were participants. For every edge, we computed an independent sample two-tailed t -test between the groups (i.e., comparing 17 values of right-wing participants with 17 values of left-wing participants). This resulted in a p -value for each edge. To correct for multiple comparisons, FDR correction (Benjamini & Hochberg, 1995) was applied to all p -values of all video-clips with q criterion $< .05$.

Results

Partisanship-dependent differences in agreeing with the main messages of the video-clip

Participants ratings after watching each video-clip in the scanner, revealed that while the right- and left-wing groups did not differ in the degree of their agreement with the main message of the neutral movie (left-wing group $M = 66.1$, $SD = 23.8$, right-wing group $M = 64.97$, $SD = 20.86$, $t(32) = 0.14$, $p = .88$), there was a large and significant difference in their degree of agreement with the main message of the political video clips. Right-wing participants agreed much more with the main message of the right-wing clips (RWC: left-wing group $M = 8.14$, $SD = 15.91$, right-wing group $M = 71.83$, $SD = 24.77$, $t(32) = -8.92$, $p < 10^{-9}$; RWS: left-wing group $M = 6.88$, $SD = 14.82$, right-wing group $M = 68.49$, $SD = 26.29$, $t(32) = -8.41$, $p < 10^{-8}$), and left-wing participants agreed much more with the main message of the left-wing clips (LWC: left-wing group $M = 85.17$, $SD = 18.07$, right-wing

group $M = 17.32$, $SD = 18.60$, $t(32) = 10.78$, $p < 10^{-11}$); LWS: left-wing group $M = 89.19$, $SD = 15.21$, right-wing group $M = 26.40$, $SD = 28.28$, $t(32) = 8.06$, $p < 10^{-8}$) (Fig. 1b). Moreover, although there was a large difference in how much the partisan groups agreed with the message of the clips, there were no significant differences in the degree to which they were interested or emotionally engaged by them, except with regard to the LWS, which left-wing participants found to be more interesting (left-wing group $M = 80.54$, $SD = 16.49$, right-wing group $M = 62.35$, $SD = 28.58$, $t(32) = 2.27$, $p < 0.05$) (Fig. 1b).

Post-scan questionnaires revealed that while there were no significant differences between the groups in the interpretation of the neutral video-clip, the two partisan groups significantly differ in how they interpreted the political video clips: RWC: (L-group $M = 19.64$, $SD = 18.48$, R-group $M = 56.16$, $SD = 12.83$; $t(14) = 2.14$, $p = 0.0004$); RWS: (L-group $M = 31.25$, $SD = 17.43$, R-group $M = 61.53$, $SD = 2.01$; $t(4) = 2.77$, $p = 0.04$); LWC: (L-group $M = 61.99$, $SD = 16.99$, R-group $M = 38.98$, $SD = 16.15$; $t(12) = 2.17$, $p = 0.02$); and LWS: (L-group $M = 69.29$, $SD = 13.45$, R-group $M = 33.59$, $SD = 16.06$; $t(6) = 2.44$, $p = 0.01$) (Fig. 1c). Moreover, these questionnaires revealed that the groups did not significantly differ on the comprehension questions (Fig. 1c).

Partisanship-dependent differences in regions involved in processing the political content

To test for partisanship-dependent brain response similarities and differences in processing the stimuli, we first divided the brain into 268 nodes, using a parcellation map based on resting-state connectivity (Shen et al., 2013). We then tested the brain response to the neutral and political clips by using inter-subject correlation (ISC) analysis (Hasson

et al., 2004). Each of the five clips generated an extensive brain response among both groups, including primary visual and auditory cortex, the mentalizing network, and the lateral prefrontal cortex (Fig. 2, marked in yellow).

To test for regions that were involved in processing the stimuli only in one group and not in the other, we performed a two-step analysis (see Methods section for details). Notably, we found political-group-dependent differences only with regard to the political clips, and not for the neutral clip (Fig. 2a). For the right-wing content, we found many regions (25 nodes) that were involved in processing the stimuli in the right-wing participants, but not in the left-wing participants (Fig. 2b-c, marked in red).

These regions included right dorso-lateral pre-frontal cortex (dlPFC), TPJ, PCC, right Caudate, as well as part of the somatosensory cortex, motor, and pre-motor areas. Only one node (right temporal pole in RWC, Fig.2b, marked in blue) was involved in processing the clip in left-wing participants, but not right-wing participants.

For the left-wing clips, there was a substantial difference between the brain response to the campaign ad and to the politician's speech. For the left-wing campaign ad, we saw a similar pattern as for the right-wing clips, with five nodes such as the insula and l-dlPFC that were involved in processing the stimuli in the right-wing participants, but not in the left-wing participants (Fig. 2d, marked in red; see Table 1). Only one area, adjacent to the retrosplenial cortex (RSC) was involved in processing the stimulus only in the left-wing group, and not in the right (Fig. 2d, marked in blue).

364 For the left-wing politician's speech there was an opposite pattern than that found
 365 for the other political content. Here, we found regions that were involved in processing
 366 the stimulus only within left-wing participants, but not within their right-wing
 367 counterparts (Fig. 2e, marked in blue; see Table. 1). These included the dmPFC, ACC,
 368 ventrolateral prefrontal cortex (vlPFC), and the cerebellum.

369 Taken together, these results suggest that in addition to the expected DMN and
 370 high-order regions, partisanship-dependent differences were identified already in motor
 371 and somatosensory brain regions.

372 Partisanship-dependent neural synchronization

373 To further understand partisanship-dependent differences in the neural response,
 374 manifested in neural synchronization, we applied a support-vector machine (SVM)
 375 classifier and inter-subject representational similarity analysis (IS-RSA) (Finn et al., 2020).

376 (i) Within-group neural synchronization predicts individual's partisanship

377 We tested whether participant's neural synchronization with their group would allow us
 378 to predict their political views (i.e., right- or left-wing). We did so using a very simple SVM
 379 classifier (see Methods for details). We found significant classification accuracy in many
 380 brain regions: for the RWC there were 88 such parcels, in which the classification accuracy
 381 ranged from 58% to 85% (Fig.3a); for the RWS there were 43 such parcels, in which the
 382 classification accuracy ranged from 60% to 81% (Fig.3b); for the LWC there were 82 such
 383 parcels, in which the classification accuracy ranged from 55% to 82% (Fig.3c); for the LWS
 384 there were 80 such parcels, in which the classification accuracy ranged from 61% to 84%

385 (Fig.3d). Interestingly, in addition to regions within the DMN, the classifier achieved high
386 accuracy rates (up to 85%) in visual, auditory, somatosensory, and motor cortices, as well
387 as in the Cerebellum (Fig. 3, lower panels).

388 Consistent with the ISC results, for the right-wing clips and the left-wing campaign ad, in
389 most regions with significant classification accuracy there was a clear pattern of high
390 correlation within right-wing participants and low correlation within left-wing
391 participants (Fig. 3a-c, lower panel).

392 For the RWC, out of the 88 parcels with significant classification accuracy, in 78 parcels
393 there was higher synchronization within the right-wing group than within the left wing-
394 group, and in 56 of these parcels this difference was significant. For the RWS, out of the
395 43 parcels with significant classification accuracy, in 35 parcels there was higher
396 synchronization within the right-wing group than within the left wing-group, and in 22 of
397 these parcels this difference was significant.

398 An opposite pattern was identified for the left-wing politician's speech, in which
399 regions with significant classification accuracy had higher within-group synchronization
400 for the left-wing group (Fig. 3d, lower panel). For the LWS, out of the 80 parcels with
401 significant classification accuracy, in 70 parcels there was higher synchronization within
402 the left-wing group than within the right wing-group, and in 46 of these parcels this
403 difference was significant.

404 Taken together, these results suggest that an individual's neural synchronization
 405 with other members of their partisanship group was enough to predict an individual's
 406 political views.

407 (ii) Stronger partisanship results in higher neural synchronization

408 We applied IS-RSA (Finn et al., 2020) to test whether the stronger any two participants'
 409 political views were (to the right or left), the more similar were their brain responses. For
 410 each video clip, we generated political views similarity matrix by averaging each pair of
 411 participants' degree of agreement with the main message of the clip (Fig. 4a), and a brain
 412 similarity matrix, by calculating the pairwise correlation between every two participants.
 413 We then computed Spearman's rank correlation between the behavioral matrix and the
 414 brain-similarity matrix. Stronger right-wing views were associated with similar brain
 415 responses for most of the stimuli, particularly with regard to the political campaign ads
 416 (RWC and LWC) in many brain regions (Fig. 4b). These regions included areas within the
 417 DMN (e.g., TPJ and PCC), dlPFC and somatosensory cortices (similar regions to those
 418 identified in the ISC results), as well as primary visual area, primary auditory cortex, insula,
 419 fusiform, and subcortical regions (e.g., thalamus, caudate, and nucleus accumbens). We
 420 found that stronger left-wing views while processing the left-wing politician's speech,
 421 were associated with more synchronized brain activation in many brain regions, including
 422 the visual cortex, precuneus, dmPFC, ACC, orbitofrontal cortex and thalamus (Fig. 4c).

423 Taken together, these results reveal that the content of the clips shaped the
 424 synchronization patterns of regions within the DMN (along partisan lines), and – more

surprisingly – the synchronization of early sensory and somatosensory regions as well. Moreover, these synchronization patterns were more pronounced within participants sharing strong (right or left, depending on the content) political opinions.

Partisanship-dependent differences in functional connectivity between sensory, somatosensory, motor and DMN regions

The ISC and IS-RSA analysis revealed partisanship-dependent differences in the response of regions within the DMN as well as regions within the sensory, somatosensory and motor regions. We used ISFC to test whether political views were associated with stronger connectivity between 10 of these regions (Fig.5a). This analysis revealed that for the right-wing content there was significantly higher functional connectivity among the right-wing group (compared to the left-wing group) in 20 edges for RWC and 20 edges for RWS, and 0 edges demonstrated the opposite pattern of higher connectivity in the left-wing group (Fig.5b and c). As for the left-wing campaign ad, there was significantly higher functional connectivity among the right-wing group in 8 edges (Left A1 and (i) somato-sensory (ii)pre-SMA (iii) SMA and (iv) right TPJ; PCC and (v) somatosensory and (vi) pre SMA; and (vii) SMA and somatosensory and (viii) right A1 and right TPJ) and significantly higher functional connectivity among the left-wing group in 4 edges (visual and (i) dmPFC (ii) rTPJ (iii) pre SMA and (iv) somatosensory) (see Fig.5c). Finally, for the left-wing politician's speech there was significantly higher functional connectivity among the right-wing group in 2 edges (right A1 with (i) visual and (ii) PCC) and significantly higher functional connectivity among the left-wing group in 7 edges (left A1 with (i) pre-SMA (ii) SMA and (iii) dmPFC; SMA with (iv) pre SMA and (v) somatosensory; (vi) right A1 and pre SMA and

447 (vii) dmPFC and right TPJ). The range of the significant functional connectivity T-values
 448 was between 2.5 and 6.4.

449 Taken together these results suggest that while right-wing participants processed
 450 right-wing content there was increased functional connectivity between many regions of
 451 the DMN, sensory, somatosensory and motor cortices, and while left-wing participants
 452 processed left-wing content there was increased functional connectivity between a few
 453 of these regions.

454 **Discussion**

455 Our results demonstrated partisanship-dependent differences in brain activation
 456 and synchronization of individuals processing political content. These differences
 457 emerged already in early sensory, somatosensory, and motor regions, and not only in the
 458 DMN, as was predicted in light of existing research.

459 The involvement of certain regions within the DMN – such as parts of the TPJ, PCC,
 460 and dmPFC – depended on the interplay between the political content and participants’
 461 political views. That is, they were involved only when right-wing participants watched the
 462 right-wing stimuli, or when left-wing participants watched the left-wing politician’s
 463 speech. This is in line with prior studies that used non-political narratives and found that
 464 the DMN was involved in comprehension and interpretation of naturalistic stimuli (Ames
 465 et al., 2015; Finn et al., 2018; Nguyen et al., 2019; Yeshurun et al., 2017). Moreover, recent
 466 studies suggested that dmPFC and TPJ responses differed between conservatives and
 467 liberals while they watched polarized political content (Dieffenbach et al., 2021; van Baar

et al., 2021), and that this difference increased when emotional language was involved (Leong et al., 2020).

Our results revealed that the somatosensory, pre-motor, and motor regions were involved in processing the right-wing stimuli only in right-wing individuals (Fig. 2b & c). Moreover, there was increased connectivity between these regions and regions within the DMN while right-wing individuals processed right-wing content (Fig. 5b& c). We interpret these findings through the lens of embodied cognition (Feldman and Narayanan, 2004), simulation theory (Jeannerod, 2001), and the bi-directional link between body movements and cognition (Neumann et al., 2003). It has been suggested that the sensorimotor experience is part of how an event is represented in the brain (Garbarini & Adenzato, 2004), as demonstrated by findings that people use sensorimotor representation to process action and non-action words and sentences (Marino et al., 2012; Tettamanti et al., 2005) as well as facial expressions (Adolphs et al., 2000). Moreover, such simulative representation mechanisms allow a better understanding of other people's actions and intentions (Blakemore & Decety, 2001; Gallese, 2000). We suggest that our findings that right-wing individuals activated the somatosensory, pre-motor, and motor regions while processing right-wing content may imply that they used sensorimotor simulative representation to process this content. We further suggest that this representation may facilitate their identification with the right-wing content through a mechanism similar to that found in other studies among people who felt enhanced empathy for their in-group members who were experiencing pain (Hein et al., 2010; Xu et al., 2009). In other words, we argue that this potential sensori-motor representation

490 allows the right-wing participants to better understand the intentions behind the actions
 491 of the main character in the right-wing movie-clips, and identify with him.

492 Partisanship-dependent differences also emerged in the groups' neural
 493 synchronization. We found that we could classify a participant's political views based on
 494 the level of synchronization with their in-group members (Fig. 3) and that these
 495 differences in synchronization were more pronounced for participants holding stronger
 496 political views (Fig. 4). Moreover, most of the political stimuli were more potent in
 497 synchronizing the brain responses of individuals with right-wing views, while the left-wing
 498 politician's speech was more potent in synchronizing the brain responses of left-wing
 499 participants (Fig. 3 and Fig. 4). Notably, this pattern was striking in its dichotomy: agreeing
 500 with a right-wing message presented in most of the clips synchronized the participants'
 501 responses in many different brain regions, whereas in the same clips, agreeing with a left-
 502 wing message did not synchronize participant responses in any brain region (and vice
 503 versa for the left-wing politician's speech; Fig. 4). Specifically, the results revealed that
 504 individuals' political outlook shaped synchronization in various brain regions, including
 505 the DMN, dlPFC, Parahippocampus, somatosensory and motor regions, primary visual and
 506 auditory cortices, as well as in subcortical areas (Fig.3 and Fig. 4). While these highly
 507 synchronized responses of the DMN and lateral pre-frontal cortex are in line with previous
 508 studies that found these regions to be involved in subjective interpretation (Bruneau et
 509 al., 2012; Finn et al., 2018; Skerry & Saxe, 2015; van Overwalle & Baetens, 2009; Yeshurun
 510 et al., 2017), and specifically in political contexts (Leong et al., 2020; Schmälzle et al., 2015;

511 van Baar et al., 2021), we would like to focus on the unexpected increase in partisanship-
 512 dependent synchronization in primary sensory cortices.

513 We found partisanship-dependent synchronization in primary visual and auditory
 514 cortices (i.e., it was possible to predict one's political views based on their within-group
 515 synchronization in these regions). In other words, the political views of individuals shape
 516 their neural responses at a very basic level. Moreover, we found partisan-dependent
 517 differences in the functional connectivity between these primary sensory regions, and
 518 regions with the DMN (Fig.5). These discrepancies in early-brain processing might result
 519 from top-down processes that lead to differences in attention; that is, participants'
 520 attention is likely to diverge according to their view of a given speaker (e.g., right-wing
 521 individuals will pay more attention to a right-wing speaker they endorse). These findings
 522 complement previous studies that found similar between-groups activation in primary
 523 sensory regions regardless of whether participants understood the narrative or not (Ames
 524 et al., 2015; Honey et al., 2012), or understood it in different ways (Leong et al., 2020;
 525 Schmälzle et al., 2015; van Baar et al., 2021; Yeshurun et al., 2017). We suggest that these
 526 effects, which have not been previously demonstrated, stem from participants' high
 527 levels of engagement and emotional reaction to the stimuli. These, in turn, may result
 528 from the timing of the experiment (three weeks before the elections in Israel, when the
 529 political atmosphere was tense and fraught), and our recruitment of individuals that were
 530 politically involved to begin with. Our findings that political views shape the response of
 531 early-sensory regions may suggest that these regions are involved in processing high-level
 532 (and not merely low-level) aspects of external stimuli.

533 It is evident that the political sphere has become highly polarized in recent years
 534 (Leonard et al., 2021; Mason, 2015). Our finding of partisanship-dependent differences in
 535 activation and synchronization already in primary sensory and motor regions may
 536 contribute to our understanding of how such differences come about. In this study we
 537 focused on political views, but our results could be relevant to any instance of
 538 partisanship. In this, we argue that these results can help us better understand the neural-
 539 basis of group-based interpretive perspectives, and therefore potentially address multiple
 540 psychological and social challenges facing society.

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705 **Figure legends:**

706 **Figure 1:** Stimuli and behavioral results. Left- and right- wing participants watched (a)
 707 five video clips inside the fMRI scanner and following each clip answered three
 708 questions: Q1: “How much did you agree with the main message of this clip?”, Q2: “How
 709 much did this clip interest you?”, Q3: “How emotionally engaged were you?”.
 710 Participants’ ratings for these three questions (b) demonstrated large differences
 711 between the two groups in terms of how much they agreed with the main message of
 712 the political clips, and relatively similar emotional engagement and interest with the
 713 clips. The graphs in the upper row of (c) demonstrate post-scan questionnaires’
 714 interpretation questions . Significant differences were found in each interpretation
 715 question for the political clips (except from one question in RWS). The graphs in the
 716 lower row of (c) demonstrate post-scan questionnaires’ comprehension questions, in
 717 which there was no significant difference between the groups. The error bars denote
 718 the standard error.

719 **Figure 2:** Similarities and differences in regions involved in processing the video-clips. ISC
 720 analysis for the (a) Neutral video clip, (b) Right-wing campaign ad, (c) Right-wing
 721 politician's speech, (d) Left-wing campaign ad and (e) Left-wing politician's speech. The
 722 upper panels show brain maps demonstrating regions involved in processing the stimuli
 723 in both groups (overlap between both-groups ISC, marked in yellow), only in the right-
 724 wing group (marked in red), or only in the left-wing group (marked in blue). The lower
 725 panels show ISC Pearson r-values of both groups in each of the “red” and “blue” brain
 726 regions (mean \pm ste). The dashed lines represent the group’s ISC threshold and all results

are FDR corrected ($q < 0.05$). The regions included are: IPS, intraparietal sulcus; IFG, inferior frontal gyrus; dlPFC, dorsal lateral prefrontal cortex; SSC, somatosensory cortex; TPJ, temporal parietal junction; vlPFC, ventrolateral prefrontal cortex; SMA, supplementary motor area; dmPFC, dorsal medial prefrontal cortex; ACC, anterior cingulate cortex; RSC, retrosplenial cortex adjacent to the RSC. LH, Left Hemisphere; RH, Right hemisphere.

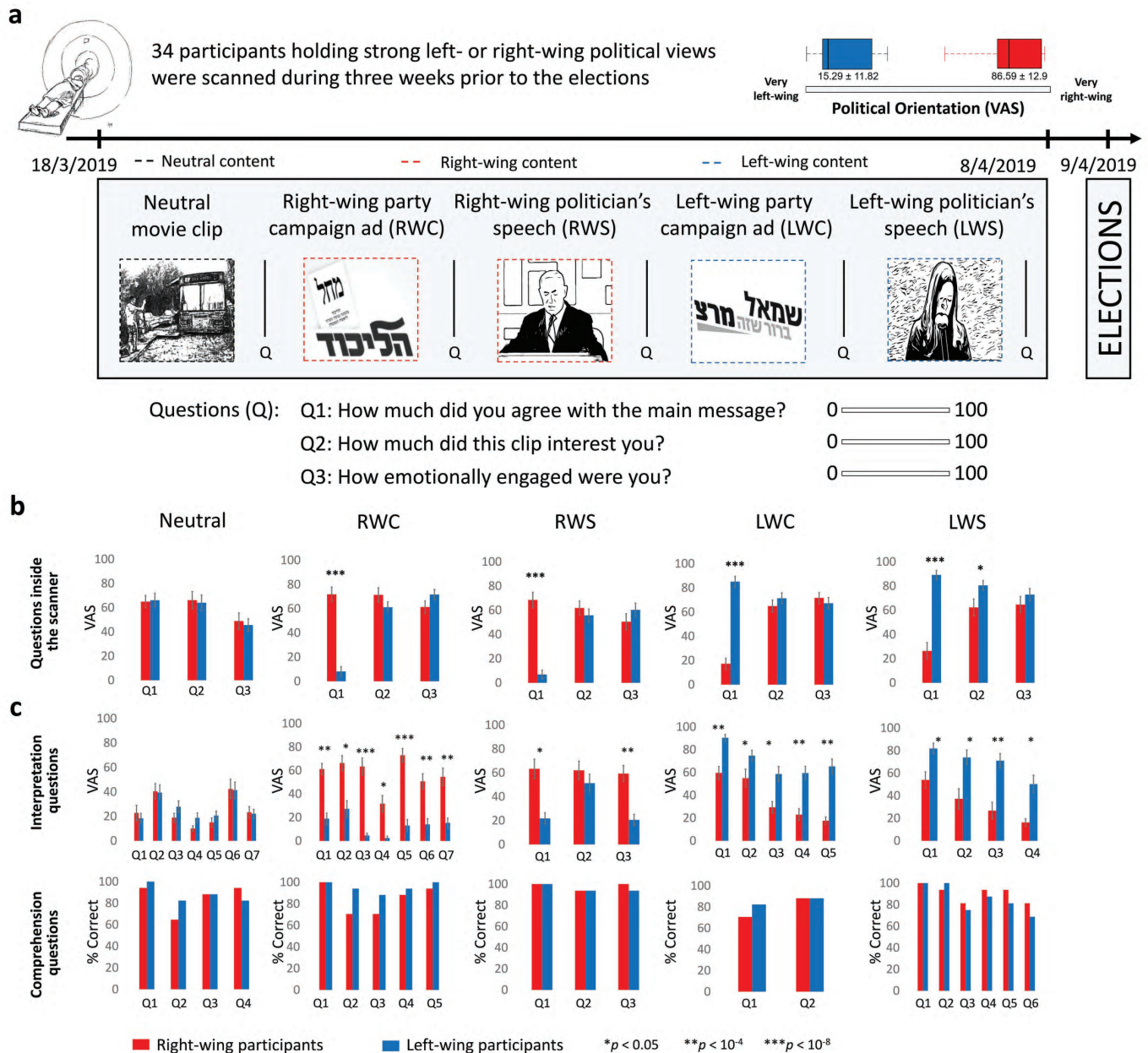
Figure 3: Classifying partisanship based on within-group synchronization. SVM classifier results for (a) Right-wing campaign ad, (b) Right-wing politician's speech, (c) Left-wing campaign ad, and (d) Left-wing politician's speech. The upper panel shows brain maps demonstrating regions that significantly classified participant's partisanship according to their within-group synchronization (FDR corrected, $q < 0.05$). The graphs in the lower panel demonstrate ISC Pearson r -values of both groups ($\text{mean} \pm \text{ste}$), as well as the correlation coefficient of each participant's brain response with the averaged brain response of the rest of their group in six representative brain regions. The regions included are: TPJ, temporal parietal junction; SMA, supplementary motor area; dmPFC, dorsal medial prefrontal cortex; ACC, anterior cingulate cortex; PCC, posterior cingulate cortex; LH, Left Hemisphere; RH, Right hemisphere.

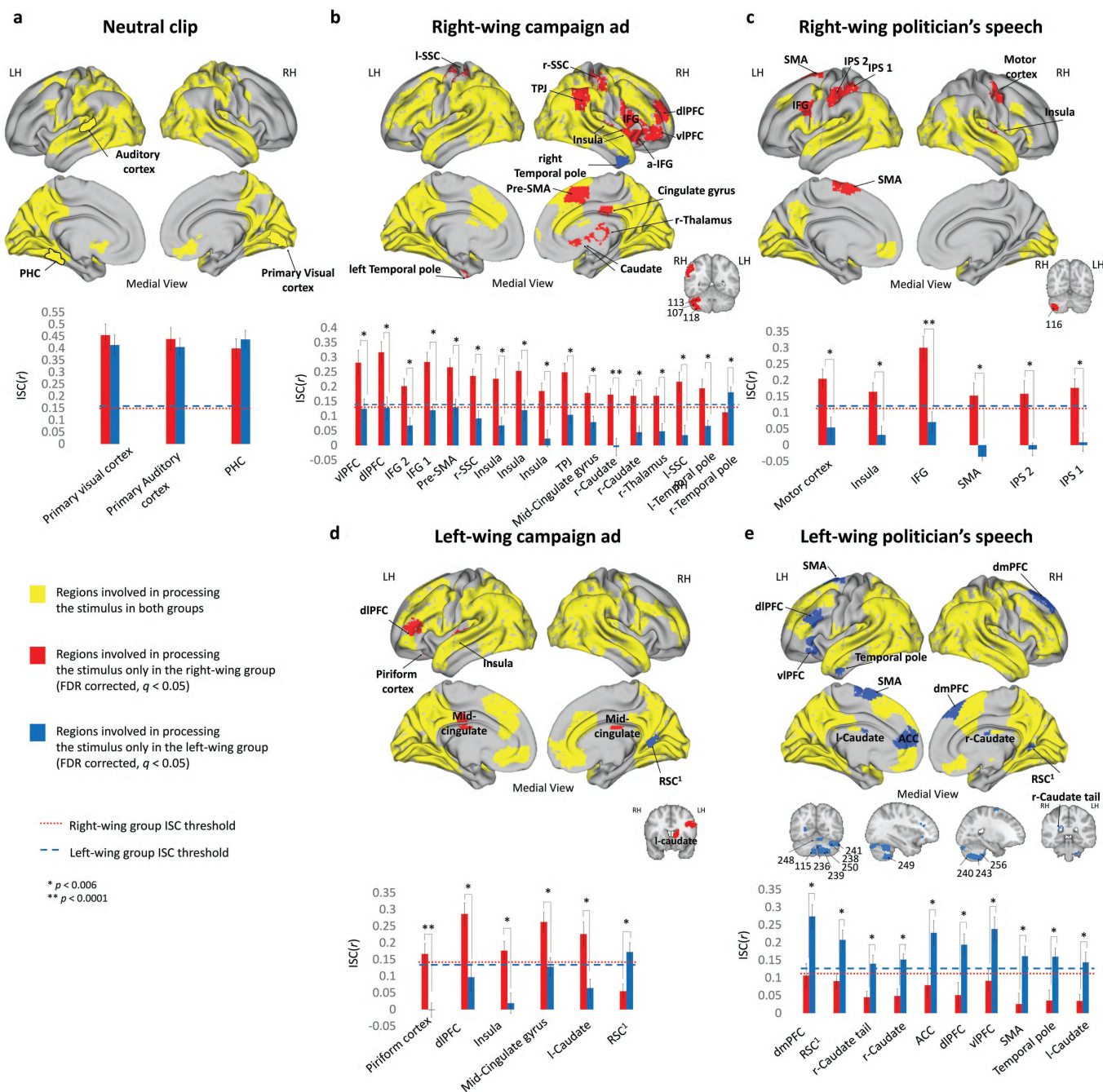
Figure 4: Higher neural synchronization associated with stronger political views. The matrices in (a) represent behavioral similarity based on "agreement with the main message". The IS-RSA brain maps for (b) agreeing with a right-wing view revealed many regions that were more synchronized between participants holding strong right-wing views while processing the right-wing content and the left-wing campaign ad. The IS-

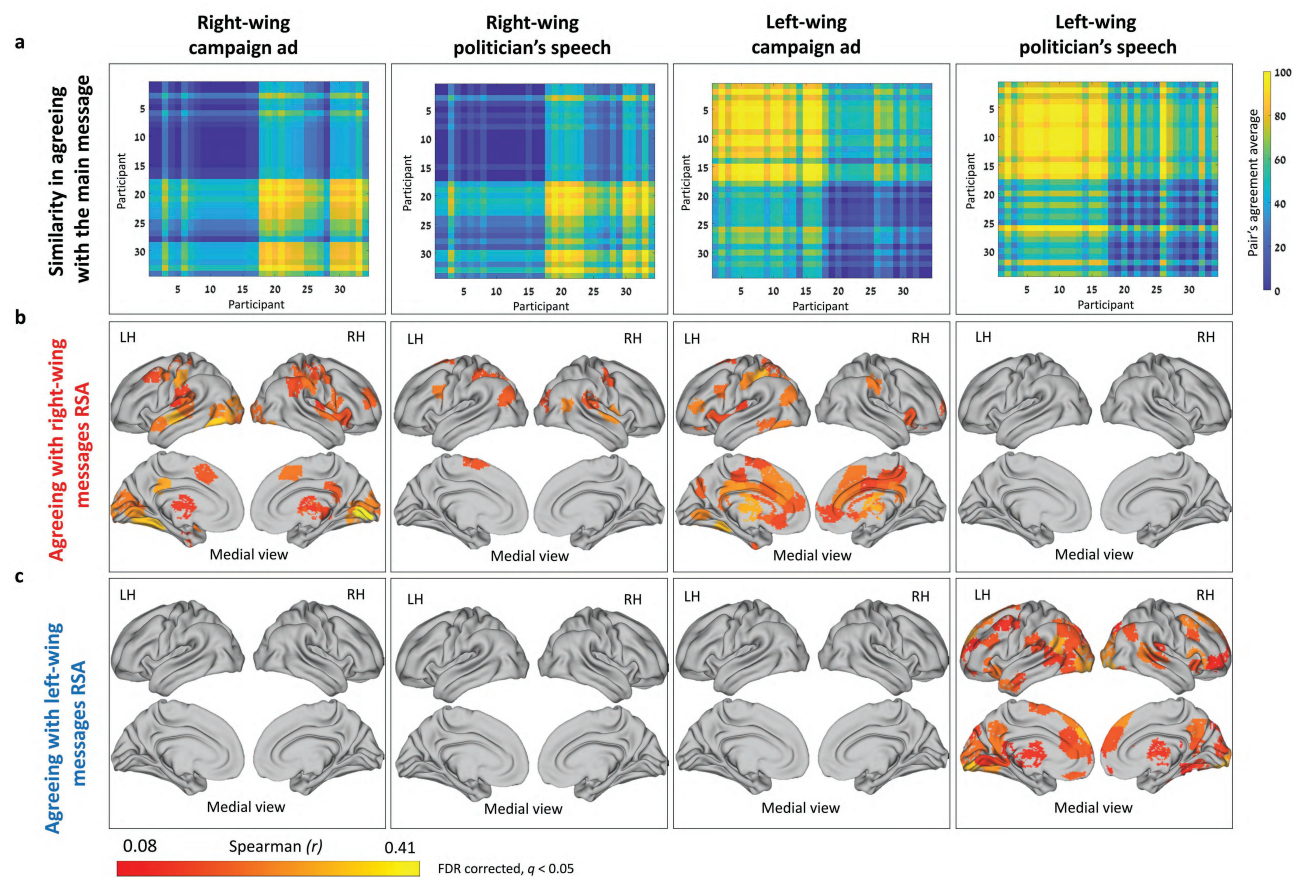
749 RSA brain maps for (c) agreeing with a left-wing view revealed many regions that were
750 more synchronized between participants holding strong left-wing views while
751 processing the left-wing politician's speech. Red to yellow brain areas are areas with an
752 $r\text{-value} \leq 0.407$ and FDR-corrected, $q < 0.05$. LH, Left Hemisphere; RH, Right hemisphere.

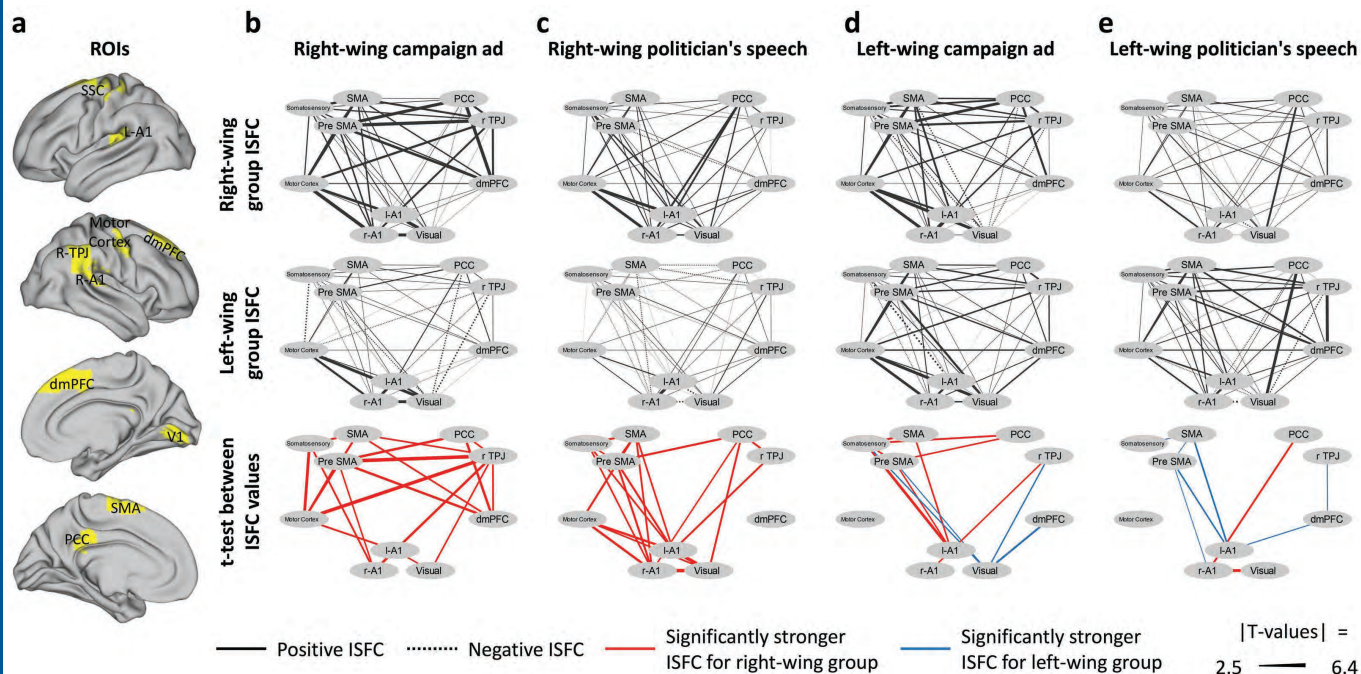
753 **Figure 5:** Functional connectivity between sensory, somatosensory, motor and DMN
754 regions. ISFC between (a) 10 regions of interest (primary visual cortex, bilateral primary
755 auditory cortex, somatosensory cortex, primary motor cortex, pre SMA, SMA, dmPFC,
756 right TPJ and PCC) for the (b) Right-wing campaign ad, (c) Right-wing politician's speech,
757 (d) Left-wing campaign ad and (e) Left-wing politician's speech. The upper panel shows
758 functional connectivity within the right-wing group; the middle panel shows functional
759 connectivity within the left-wing group; and the lower panel shows the edges in which
760 there was significantly higher connectivity within the right-wing group (compared to the
761 left-wing group, marked in red) or within the left-wing group (compared to the right-
762 wing group, marked in blue). All results are FDR corrected ($q < 0.05$).

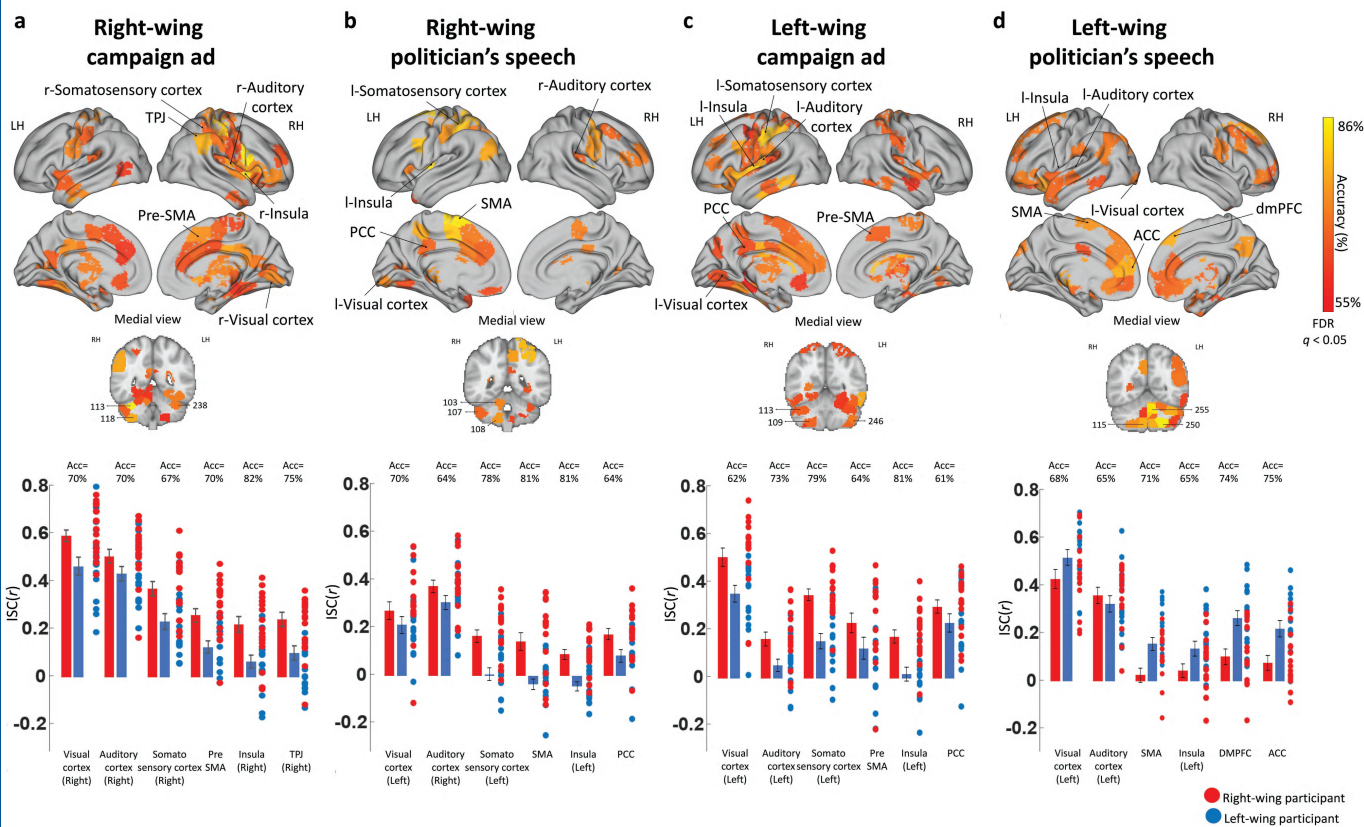
763











	Brain region	Parcel number	Right-wing group r-value	Left-wing group r-value	p-value
RWC	ventro-lateral Prefrontal cortex (vlPFC)	8	0.281663618	0.124647609	0.005740883
	dorsal lateral Prefrontal cortex (dlPFC)	9	0.317106272	0.127869051	0.000680215
	inferior Frontal gyrus (IFG) 2	16	0.201838607	0.067854314	0.000997031
	inferior Frontal gyrus (IFG) 1	21	0.284261697	0.11984986	0.000177213
	Pre-Supplementary Motor cortex (pre-SMA)	28	0.265853675	0.129722755	0.001480891
	right-Somatosensory cortex	33	0.236741798	0.091950018	0.000249812
	Insula	34	0.226793931	0.06793036	0.001001179
	Insula	36	0.253632625	0.120036147	0.004058332
	Insula	37	0.185117948	0.023285424	0.000219385
	Temporal parietal junction	47	0.248938271	0.104259211	0.001838113
	right Temporal pole	57	0.112859953	0.180711552	0.005745508
	mid-Cingulate gyrus	88	0.178596062	0.079448883	0.001986054
	right-Caudate nucleus	121	0.173126603	-0.005745837	2.03E-05
	right-Caudate nucleus	123	0.168722399	0.045106209	0.000323011
	right Thalamus	128	0.168996137	0.048147906	0.002678115
	left-Somatosensory cortex	167	0.216761205	0.035082372	0.000567027
	left Temporal pole	202	0.194293245	0.066491606	0.001402024
	Cerebellum	107	0.222779931	0.112676192	0.002041348
	Cerebellum	113	0.286654288	0.10891178	1.92E-05
	Cerebellum	118	0.200593547	0.098199341	0.001361587
	Pre-Motor cortex	26	0.292530619	0.181054906	0.005665347
	Somatosensory cortex 1	38	0.360109424	0.202224634	0.001793549
	Somatosensory cortex 2	45	0.381966359	0.238585623	4.26E-03
	Visual cortex	82	0.426501239	0.290809337	0.00563985
	Parahippocampus gyrus (PHC)	198	0.492957399	0.391656067	0.004953297
	posterior Cingulate cortex (PCC)	223	0.318108321	0.16844128	0.000839135
LWC	adjacent to the Retrospleneal cortex (RSC)	87	0.054760134	0.172599501	0.001834386
	Piriform cortex	135	0.166635939	-0.00164614	8.84E-05
	dorsal lateral Prefrontal cortex (dlPFC)	154	0.286743133	0.09685222	1.35E-03
	Insula	170	0.176572929	0.018787769	0.000530824
	Mid-Cingulate cortex	224	0.26267003	0.128300996	0.001866731
	l-Caudate nucleus	258	0.2261971	0.064225399	0.000982825
	inferior Frontal gyrus (IFG)	157	0.376030084	0.203038404	1.33E-03
	Intraparietal sulcus (IPS) 2	171	0.352879518	0.156949755	2.74E-05
	Intraparietal sulcus (IPS) 1	179	0.438333498	0.241452459	5.03E-05
	Motor cortex	27	0.204692104	0.054304817	0.001848954
RWS	Insula	37	0.164546285	0.031492065	0.001528941
	inferior Frontal gyrus	157	0.300264174	0.071035343	3.81232E-05
	Supplementary Motor cortex (SMA)	162	0.152740245	-0.035782314	0.000230684
	Intraparietal sulcus (IPS) 2	171	0.15823344	-0.013339452	0.000640032
	Intraparietal sulcus (IPS) 1	179	0.176638418	0.008657955	0.000235378
LWS	right dorsal medial Prefrontal cortex (dmPFC)	12	0.106593352	0.27403593	0.001365341
	adjacent to the Retrospleneal cortex (RSC)	87	0.090844607	0.20754255	0.002105866
	Caudate nucleus tale	120	0.045221768	0.139963159	0.003109876
	right-Caudate nucleus	122	0.048601543	0.151721747	0.000310526
	anterior Cingulate cortex (ACC)	140	0.079249108	0.227382029	0.004050548
	dorsal lateral Prefrontal cortex (dlPFC)	147	0.05103565	0.193957963	0.005359024
	ventro-lateral Prefrontal cortex (vlPFC)	151	0.09153541	0.238192891	0.003260951
	Supplementary Motor cortex (SMA)	162	0.025724141	0.16133073	0.002964581
	Temporal pole	194	0.035776768	0.159820123	0.002889317
	left Caudate nucleus	260	0.034555397	0.143986683	0.003256899
	Cerebellum	115	0.089186464	0.175682416	0.000766296
	Cerebellum	236	0.045861221	0.182617233	0.000914433
	Cerebellum	238	0.062093042	0.241649461	0.000741513
	Cerebellum	239	0.025576026	0.166012853	1.67E-05
	Cerebellum	240	0.093581625	0.212110632	0.001662393
	Cerebellum	241	0.106996004	0.273658258	0.005058712
	Cerebellum	243	0.040104712	0.151942451	0.001598643
	Cerebellum	248	0.10391465	0.241212581	0.003027496
	Cerebellum	249	0.068352422	0.212039562	0.00177103
	Cerebellum	250	0.020488189	0.217056111	8.61E-07
	Cerebellum	256	0.053953807	0.143541337	0.003604706
	medial Frontal gyrus (MFG)	14	0.165683261	0.332680307	0.003518403
	left dorsal medial Prefrontal cortex (dmPFC) 1	145	0.119074572	0.287968377	0.001574639
	left dorsal medial Prefrontal cortex (dmPFC) 2	148	0.124787167	0.264546108	0.003726805

Table 1. ISC results. All significant nodes, FDR corrected, $q < 0.05$. Light red: parcels that were significantly more correlated in the right-wing group; Light blue: parcels that were significantly more correlated in the left-wing group; bold: parcels that were involved in processing the stimulus in both groups but were significantly more correlated in one of them.