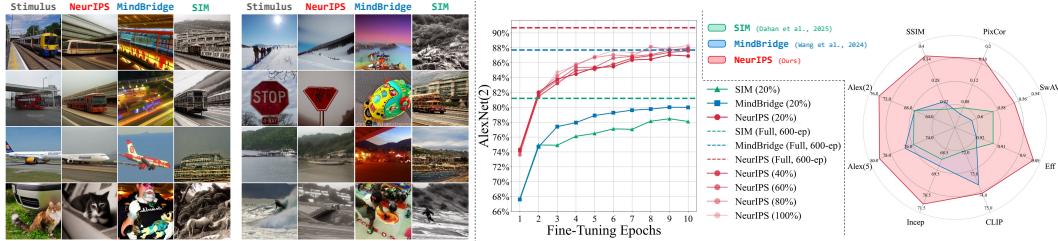


000 NEURIPS: NEURO-ANATOMICAL INDUCTIVE PRIORS 001 FOR SPHERE-BASED VISION BRAIN DECODING

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004 Figure 1: **NeurIPS achieves remarkable personalization efficiency.** NeurIPS adapts to a new
005 user with minimal data and training. This figure shows the results for a held-out subject after per-
006 sonalizing a 3-subject, pre-trained model. The personalization is remarkably efficient, using only
007 **20%** of the new subject’s data for just **one epoch**. **(Left)** High-fidelity reconstructions after a single
008 epoch demonstrate that the model quickly learns the new subject’s neural patterns, already outper-
009 forming baselines. **(Middle & Right)** Performance metrics confirm the rapid adaptation. With only
010 20% of the data, the personalized model (solid lines) nearly matches the performance of a reference
011 model trained on 100% of the data (dashed lines).

ABSTRACT

004 Generalizable fMRI decoding is hindered by the challenge of aligning signals
005 from anatomically unique brains. Prevailing methods treat this anatomical vari-
006 ation as noise, creating a false performance-fidelity trade-off where efficient 1D
007 encoders outperform geometrically faithful surface-based models. We argue this
008 trade-off is an artifact of two core mismatches: inefficient surface tokenization
009 and the failure to use anatomy as a predictive signal. We present **NeurIPS**, a
010 framework that [improves surface-based decoding](#) by reframing anatomical varia-
011 tion from a nuisance to a powerful inductive prior. NeurIPS unites two innova-
012 tions: a **Selective ROI Spherical Tokenizer (SRST)** for efficient geometric en-
013 coding, and a **Structure-Guided Mixture of Experts (SG-MoE)** that explicitly
014 models individual anatomy using cortical features. On the Natural Scenes Dataset,
015 NeurIPS establishes a new state-of-the-art for surface decoders and achieves per-
016 formance comparable to strong 1D baselines. This is achieved with unprecedented
017 efficiency, as the model converges dramatically faster (**10 vs. 600 epochs**). This
018 efficiency enables rapid adaptation to new subjects using only **20%** of data and
019 ensures robust scalability as the training cohort is expanded. Ablations provide
020 causal evidence that these gains are driven by the model’s use of cortical features,
021 not by memorizing subject IDs. By leveraging anatomical priors, NeurIPS pro-
022 vides a principled and scalable path toward robust, generalizable brain decoding.¹

1 INTRODUCTION

045 “*Variation is the hard reality, not a set of imperfect measures for a central ten-
046 dency. Means and medians are the abstractions.*”

047 — Stephen Jay Gould, *The Median Isn’t the Message* (1985)

050 What separates one mind from another? Is it noise to be averaged away, or is it the signal itself? We
051 argue the latter: that the precise brain geometry of our individual differences holds the key to map-
052 ping all minds onto a single, shared canvas. This question is central to the field of brain decoding.

053 ¹We will release all training and inference code, data, and model weights after acceptance.

054 Reconstructing images from fMRI has become a key proving ground for neural representation learning,
 055 with the goal of building systems that can generalize across people (Takagi & Nishimoto, 2023;
 056 Chen et al., 2023; Scotti et al., 2023). Such generalization is not merely an academic benchmark; it
 057 is a prerequisite for a new generation of clinical and brain-computer interface (BCI) applications that
 058 can be deployed robustly in the real world. However, the path to building such a universal decoder
 059 is obstructed by a significant challenge.

060 We believe the field’s core obstacle should be viewed through the lens of *representation alignment*.
 061 The fundamental task is to map the functionally and anatomically unique cortical surface of each
 062 individual onto a common representational sphere, where the same stimulus evokes a consistent
 063 neural code. From this perspective, the current landscape reveals a deep divide. On one hand,
 064 computationally efficient 1D pipelines dominate benchmarks but achieve their speed by discarding
 065 the brain’s native cortical geometry, thereby sacrificing the very structural information crucial for
 066 principled alignment (Scotti et al., 2023; Huo et al., 2025). On the other hand, surface-based models,
 067 which preserve this geometry, have historically lagged in performance, creating what is often framed
 068 as an unavoidable performance-fidelity trade-off (Gu et al., 2023; Dahan et al., 2025; Yu et al.,
 069 2025). This trade-off, we argue, is not fundamental but a byproduct of two concrete architectural
 070 mismatches that prevent effective alignment: (i) inefficient surface tokenization, and (ii) treating
 071 individual anatomical variation as noise.

072 These architectural mismatches manifest as specific limitations in prior work. Existing surface meth-
 073 ods for fMRI (Gu et al., 2023; Yu et al., 2025) apply spherical convolutions across entire hemi-
 074 spheres. For static visual decoding tasks, this allocates significant computation to non-visual re-
 075 gions that may carry less stimulus-specific information, generating excessive tokens that destabilize
 076 **model training**. Similarly, prior cross-subject frameworks tackle anatomical variance inefficiently.
 077 They often condition their computations on subject IDs, which encourages the model to memorize
 078 individual patterns rather than learn generalizable rules about how structure shapes function. The
 079 root cause of these issues is a failure to leverage anatomical structure as a powerful inductive bias. A
 080 principled solution must therefore directly correct these flaws by adhering to two design principles:
 081 (1) efficient, geometry-aligned tokenization, and (2) anatomy-conditioned computation.

082 We implement these principles with two innovations, **by introducing a hybrid architecture: a surface-**
 083 **based encoder that strictly operates on visual cortical ROIs to preserve geometry, followed by a**
 084 **compact latent transformer for efficient cross-subject modeling**. The **Selective ROI Spherical To-**
 085 **kenizer** (SRST) directly addresses the first principle by confining spherical convolutions to visual
 086 ROIs, creating a stable, efficient token space that respects cortical geometry. The **Structure-Guided**
 087 **Mixture of Experts** (SG-MoE) implements the second principle by gating experts based on an in-
 088 dividual’s cortical thickness, curvature, and sulcal depth, rather than their ID, forcing specialization
 089 along meaningful structure-to-function axes. This anatomy-guided architecture provides the strong
 090 inductive bias that has been missing. Recent work on representation alignment (REPA) (Yu et al.,
 091 2024) has shown that such biases enable models to achieve strong performance in remarkably few
 092 epochs. This insight suggests that the slow convergence of existing methods is not fundamental but
 a consequence of poor inductive biases, a problem our architecture is designed to solve.

093 **Additionally, rather than aiming for zero-shot generalization, we evaluate what matters for deploy-**
 094 **ment: fast adaptation and scalability, demonstrating that anatomy-conditioned representations en-**
 095 **able data-efficient transfer to new subjects**. Our anatomy-guided architecture confirms that strong
 096 inductive biases unlock unprecedented learning speed. On the Natural Scenes Dataset (NSD) (Allen
 097 et al., 2022), our model adapts to a new subject by achieving 90% of its full performance with
 098 just 10 epochs of fine-tuning on only 20% of the subject’s data. This represents a dramatic accel-
 099 eration compared to conventional methods that require 200-600 epochs to converge (Wang et al.,
 100 2024). This rapid adaptation also translates to robust population-level scaling. As the training co-
 101 hort grows, our model’s performance remains stable while baselines that ignore anatomy degrade.
 102 This stability is a critical feature for building decoders that can be deployed reliably across diverse,
 103 real-world populations. Under matched compute, our model achieves comparable peak performance
 104 to competitive 1D pipelines while converging dramatically faster. A full suite of diagnostics and ab-
 105 lations confirms that these gains are driven by our two core principles: efficient, geometry-aligned
 tokenization and anatomy-conditioned computation.

106 **Contributions.** Our contributions are threefold, spanning technical innovation, empirical perfor-
 107 mance, and mechanistic validation. **(A) Technical Innovations.** We introduce two modules that

108 make surface-based decoding both efficient and anatomy-aware: the Selective ROI Spherical Tokenizer (SRST), which uses learnable, ROI-restricted convolutions to preserve cortical topology
 109 while controlling the token budget, and the Structure-Guided Mixture of Experts (SG-MoE), which
 110 conditions on cortical features like sulcal depth and thickness to model cross-subject variability. **(B)**
 111 **Empirical Performance at Scale.** On the NSD benchmark, **NeurIPS** sets a new state-of-the-art
 112 among surface decoders while achieving compatible performance with strong 1D pipelines under
 113 matched compute (Table 1). It demonstrates remarkable efficiency, adapting to new subjects with
 114 just 20% of their data in a few epochs, and proves highly scalable, exhibiting the smallest perfor-
 115 mance drop when the training cohort is expanded (Figure 4). **(C) Mechanistic Evidence.** Finally,
 116 we provide interventional evidence that these gains are driven by our proposed design. Ablation
 117 studies (Table 2) and attribution analyses (Figure 6) confirm that performance relies on our key
 118 components and that the model systematically uses anatomical features for its computations, rather
 119 than memorizing subject identities. **Together, NeurIPS advances the line of geometry-aware fMRI**
 120 **modelling by improving how geometry and anatomy are operationalised in a scalable encoder.**
 121

122 2 RELATED WORK

124 **Modern fMRI-to-Image Pipelines.** Reconstructing images from fMRI has rapidly advanced by
 125 adopting a two-stage pipeline: an fMRI encoder maps brain activity to a pre-trained latent space,
 126 which then conditions a powerful generative model, typically a diffusion model, for image synthesis
 127 (Takagi & Nishimoto, 2023; Chen et al., 2023; Shen et al., 2024). Recent progress within this
 128 framework has focused on enhancing reconstruction quality through multi-modal guidance, such
 129 as using dual objectives with both semantic (e.g., CLIP) and perceptual (e.g., VAE) targets (Scotti
 130 et al., 2023; 2024), or by incorporating spatial control mechanisms like ControlNet (Huo et al.,
 131 2025). While the generative backend is crucial, the performance ceiling is largely determined by the
 132 architectural choices made in the initial fMRI encoder, which is the primary focus of our work.

133 **Surface-based fMRI decoders and the encoder dilemma.** fMRI encoder design faces a trade-
 134 off between efficient flat/1D representations (Beliy et al., 2019) that ignore cortical topology and
 135 biologically faithful surface-based methods that suffer from high computational overhead. **A growing**
 136 **family of fMRI decoders model brain activity directly on cortical manifolds: spherical CNNs**
 137 **and U-Nets** (Zhao et al., 2019; 2021; Gu et al., 2023) apply convolutions on spherical or surface
 138 meshes, capturing local topology and geodesic neighborhoods; transformer-based surface models
 139 such as **SIM** (Dahan et al., 2025; 2023; 2022) tokenize an icosahedral tessellation and learn patch-
 140 level features; and prior work (Yu et al., 2025) uses a ResNet-style surface encoder equipped with
 141 spherical convolution kernels derived from SphericalUNet (Zhao et al., 2019), together with cortical
 142 metrics (thickness, curvature, sulcal depth), for image reconstruction. These approaches already
 143 treat fMRI and anatomical measures as signals defined on cortical manifolds and explicitly encode
 144 surface geometry, but their computational cost makes them challenging to scale to large cohorts
 145 and cross-subject training. In parallel, cross-subject decoders either learn shared alignment spaces
 146 (Wang et al., 2024) or condition MoE routing on subject IDs (Quan et al., 2024), which can improve
 147 fit but scales linearly with the number of subjects and risks memorization. NeurIPS builds directly
 148 on this foundation by developing an *efficient* surface-based encoder that (i) uses a selective ROI
 149 spherical tokenizer (SRST) to restrict spherical convolutions to task-aligned visual ROIs, and (ii)
 replaces ID-based conditioning with a principled, anatomy-guided routing mechanism (SG-MoE).

150 **Inter-subject variability and registration.** Anatomical and functional variability across subjects
 151 has long been addressed using surface-based registration and multimodal alignment (Fischl, 2012;
 152 Robinson et al., 2014; 2018; Glasser et al., 2016b). In this work we adopt the standard NSD pre-
 153 processing pipeline, which maps each subject’s cortex to the *fsaverage6* template via FreeSurfer’s
 154 spherical registration. NeurIPS is designed to sit *on top of* these well-validated pipelines: registration
 155 provides a topology-preserving common space and a shared visual ROI mask, and SG-MoE
 156 then models residual inter-subject variability by conditioning on cortical features instead of subject
 157 IDs. Our contribution is thus not to replace registration, but to combine classical alignment with
 158 anatomy-conditioned feature learning in a single encoder.

159 **Representation Alignment as a Path to Efficiency.** Recent results show that aligning internal
 160 features to strong, frozen targets (e.g., REPA) can reach high quality in few epochs, suggesting
 161 slow convergence often reflects weak inductive bias rather than task difficulty (Yu et al., 2024). This
 principle of accelerated learning through alignment has been demonstrated across generative models

(Chen et al., 2025), vision-language systems (Liu et al., 2023a), and large language models (Liu et al., 2023b; Kong et al., 2024). These results suggest that the lengthy training of brain decoders is not inevitable. By leveraging brain anatomy as a powerful prior, our model is better initialized to quickly align neural activity with a shared semantic space, enabling highly efficient learning.

Neuroscientific and Geometric Foundations. Our approach is motivated by the topographical organization of the visual system on the 2D cortical surface (Felleman & Van Essen, 1991; Engel et al., 1997). Geometric deep learning (Bronstein et al., 2017; 2021) provides the appropriate tools, namely spherical CNNs, which respect the topology of the cortical hemispheres (Cohen et al., 2018; Esteves et al., 2018). However, their significant computational cost has limited their use in neuroscience. Our proposed SRST overcomes this barrier by restricting computation to the NSD-General visual ROI, making these powerful geometric methods practical for large-scale neural decoding while remaining consistent with prior NSD work that focuses on visual cortex for static image tasks.

3 METHODOLOGY

3.1 A CONDITIONAL INFORMATION BOTTLENECK VIEW OF CROSS-SUBJECT DECODING

We framed the challenge of cross-subject fMRI decoding through the lens of a Conditional Information Bottleneck (C-IB). Let X_s be ROI-restricted surface fMRI for subject s , A_s be the subject’s anatomy, and Y be the target representation (e.g., VAE or CLIP latents). The goal is to learn a representation $Z = T_\theta(X_s, A_s)$ that is maximally informative about the target Y while suppressing subject-specific information, all conditioned on the known anatomy:

$$\max_{\theta} I(Z; Y | A_s) - \beta I(Z; \text{ID} | A_s). \quad (1)$$

While we do not optimize this mutual information objective directly, the C-IB framework serves as a core design principle. Our architecture is designed to address both terms of this objective: an **efficient, geometry-preserving tokenization scheme** preserves and enhances task-relevant information ($I(Z; Y | A_s)$), while an **anatomy-conditioned computational mechanism** suppresses identity-specific information ($I(Z; \text{ID} | A_s)$). This enables the model to learn a generalizable structure-to-function mapping instead of memorizing individuals.

In our implementation, SRST and SG-MoE provide concrete approximations to the two terms in Equation (1). SRST increases $I(Z; Y | A_s)$ by restricting encoding to a geometry-aligned visual ROI and preserving local neighborhoods and sulcal topology during spherical downsampling. SG-MoE decreases $I(Z; \text{ID} | A_s)$ by conditioning computation on anatomy rather than subject identity: expert selection depends on cortical features shared across subjects, not on ID embeddings. The empirical predictions from this C-IB are efficient, rapid adaptation, resilience to cohort scaling, and systematic utilization of anatomical features, are validated by our experiments (see B.1).

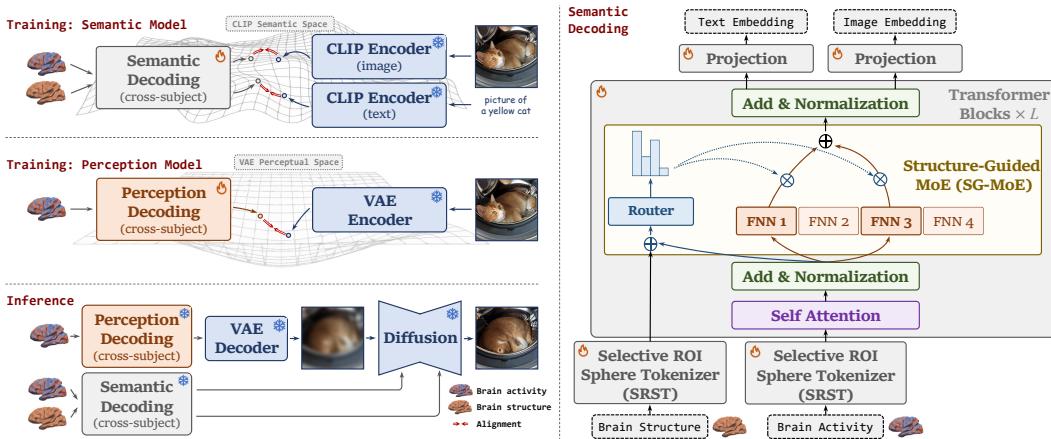
3.2 PROBLEM DEFINITION AND ALIGNMENT-GUIDED PRINCIPLES

We study fMRI responses on the cortical surface within predefined visual ROIs (see Appendix Figure 9 for details), registered to the standard FreeSurfer *fsaverage6* mesh (Fischl, 2012). Given NSD’s static visual stimuli, we adopt a task-aligned strategy by restricting modeling to visual ROIs (consistent with Scotti et al. (2023); Wang et al. (2024); Yu et al. (2025)). This contrasts with full-cortex designs suited for multimodal paradigms (e.g., SIM (Dahan et al., 2025)); our analyses (Fig. 6D,E) confirm that signal contributions for this task concentrate in the visual hierarchy. For an image y_{img} , we utilize the GLM-estimated beta weights (which summarize the stimulus-locked BOLD response) as our input. The ROI-restricted beta maps on the left and right hemispheres are denoted as $x_L \in \mathbb{R}^{N_L}$ and $x_R \in \mathbb{R}^{N_R}$. We reconstruct \hat{y}_{img} while conditioning on structural features $c_{s,L}$ and $c_{s,R}$ (thickness, area, sulcal depth, curvature), such that $\hat{y}_{\text{img}} = \mathcal{D}(x_L, x_R | c_{s,L}, c_{s,R})$. Our framework is guided by two principles designed to solve the alignment mismatches:

Principle 1: Efficient, Topology-Preserving Tokenization for Geometric Alignment. Surface/spherical operators preserve cortical neighborhoods and provide the correct inductive bias for alignment (Bronstein et al., 2017; Cohen et al., 2018). To optimize the information density under a fixed compute budget, our SRST concentrates surface modeling on task-relevant visual ROIs. This avoids the $\mathcal{O}(T^2)$ burden of processing full hemispheres (which is necessary for multimodal

216 tasks but less efficient for static image decoding) and generates multi-scale *local and global* tokens,
 217 yielding a compact, topology-preserving space suitable for joint training.
 218

219 **Principle 2: Anatomy as a Conditional Prior for Functional Alignment.** Neuroscientific evi-
 220 dence shows anatomy predicts function, from V1 retinotopy to ventral stream organization (Engel
 221 et al., 1997; Dumoulin & Wandell, 2008; Weiner et al., 2014; Natu et al., 2021). Instead of using
 222 arbitrary subject IDs (Quan et al., 2024), we condition expert computation on anatomical features
 223 c_s . This approximates the conditional distribution $p(Y | X_s, A_s)$ and reduces inter-subject hetero-
 224 geneity, enabling a more generalizable functional alignment.
 225



240 **Figure 2: The NeurIPS Framework. (Left)** Following established methods (Scotti et al., 2023),
 241 the overall pipeline is trained using a dual-decoder approach. The perception model maps fMRI to
 242 a VAE latent space for low-level detail, while the semantic model (aligns fMRI with a CLIP space
 243 for high-level content. During inference, both pathways jointly guide a frozen diffusion model to
 244 synthesize the final image. **(Right)** The core contributions of NeurIPS. A Selective ROI Spherical
 245 Tokenizer (SRST) first efficiently extracts features from both brain activity and anatomical structure.
 246 These are then processed by a transformer backbone where the standard feed-forward network is
 247 replaced by our Structure-Guided Mixture of Experts (SG-MoE), which uses anatomical information
 248 to route tokens to specialized experts for improved cross-subject generalization.
 249

3.3 THE NEURIPS FRAMEWORK OVERVIEW

251 To instantiate these principles, our **NeurIPS** framework (Figure 2) uses a dual-decoder architecture
 252 to align fMRI signals with target representations. The pipeline includes a perceptual decoder \mathcal{D}_p
 253 mapping to a semantic decoder \mathcal{D}_s mapping to a CLIP space (§3.4) and a VAE space (§3.5). We in-
 254 tegrate our two innovations within the critical semantic path: the Selective ROI Spherical Tokenizer
 255 (SRST) to solve the topology mismatch (§3.4), and the Structure-Guided Mixture of Experts (SG-
 256 MoE) to solve the identity mismatch (§3.4). Finally, the outputs from both decoders are combined
 257 to steer a versatile diffusion model for high-quality image reconstruction (§3.6). **To further validate**
 258 **the generalizability of our learned representations, we also present results on secondary tasks such**
 259 **as brain captioning in Appendix Table 6 and Appendix Figure 10.**

260 **Information Flow.** The overall pipeline proceeds as follows (Fig. 2): First, **SRST** extracts
 261 geometry-aware tokens from the visual cortex (Fig. 3). These tokens are processed by the trans-
 262 former backbone, where **SG-MoE** dynamically routes information based on anatomical structure.
 263 The resulting representations simultaneously drive the Semantic Decoder (aligning with CLIP) and
 264 the Perception Decoder (aligning with VAE). Finally, both outputs guide a frozen diffusion model
 265 to generate the reconstruction.

3.4 SEMANTIC PATH: SRST + SG-MoE

266 The semantic model \mathcal{D}_s maps fMRI signals to the semantic space of CLIP (Radford et al., 2021).
 267 For a given fMRI pair (x_L, x_R) and corresponding subject-specific structure features $(c_{s,L}, c_{s,R})$, \mathcal{D}_s
 268 outputs the predicted CLIP image and text embeddings by $\hat{e}_{\text{image}}, \hat{e}_{\text{text}} = \mathcal{D}(x_L, x_R | c_{s,L}, c_{s,R})$.
 269

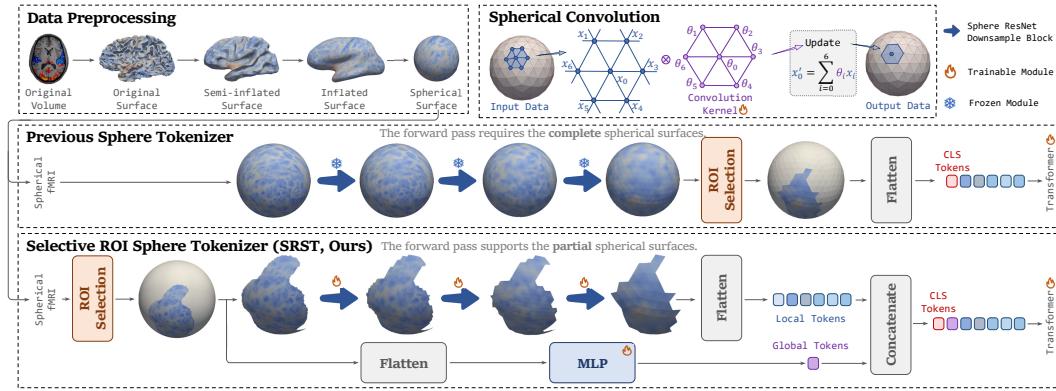


Figure 3: **Selective ROI Spherical Tokenizer (SRST) design and efficiency gains.** The standard pipeline maps volumetric fMRI signals to a spherical surface where hexagonal convolution kernels can preserve local topology. However, prior methods inefficiently processed all $40,962 \times 2$ hemisphere vertices (Yu et al., 2025). In contrast, our SRST restricts computation to only the 9,488 vertices within visual ROIs, **yielding an 88.4% reduction in processed surface points**, while preserving local topology. From these selected vertices, SRST generates both **spatially-detailed local tokens** and a **semantically-rich global token**. This efficiency is critical, making end-to-end training of a deep transformer on surface-based fMRI data both practical and stable.

The ground truth e_{image} and e_{text} are derived by passing the image and its caption into the CLIP encoders $\mathcal{E}_{\text{image}}$ and $\mathcal{E}_{\text{text}}$, respectively. The model \mathcal{D}_s is then optimized using an MSE loss: $\mathcal{L} = \|e_{\text{image}} - \hat{e}_{\text{image}}\|_2^2 + \|e_{\text{text}} - \hat{e}_{\text{text}}\|_2^2$.

Selective ROI Spherical Tokenizer (SRST). Our SRST implements this geometric efficiency principle through selective computation. As illustrated in Figure 3, while prior methods apply spherical convolutions uniformly across the hemisphere, SRST adopts a task-aligned approach, performing computation on vertices within visual ROIs. For the NSD benchmark, this selective approach reduces the token budget by 88.7%, creating a compact token space suitable for stable joint-optimization with a transformer backbone. To capture information at multiple scales, SRST generates two complementary representations: **local tokens** from the localized convolutions to preserve fine-grained geometric patterns, and **global tokens** via flattening and pooling to provide overall scene context. This dual-token design provides the transformer with both high-fidelity spatial details and high-level semantic information without resorting to destructive flattening.

Structure-Guided Mixture of Experts (SG-MoE). While prior frameworks often use subject embeddings or adapters, these scale linearly with cohort size and risk overfitting. Our SG-MoE replaces identity-based routing with anatomy-conditioned expert selection. By gating experts based on local cortical features rather than subject IDs, we force the model to learn generalizable structure-to-function rules shared across individuals, rather than memorizing subject-specific patterns. A standard Mixture of Experts (MoE) replaces a transformer’s feed-forward network (FFN) with N parallel expert FFNs, and a router network \mathcal{R} selects a sparse subset of these experts for each token. Instead of conditioning this routing on a learned subject ID embedding as in prior work (Quan et al., 2024), we implement a purely structure-guided router. The gating network receives only local cortical features (thickness, curvature, sulcal depth, and location descriptors) as input; it does not receive any subject-ID tokens or embeddings. This ensures that the MoE experts specialize based solely on local cortical geometry rather than memorizing subject identity. The four cortical features (c_s) are first mapped into a structural embedding $e_{s,\text{stru}}$ via a lightweight SRST tokenizer. The routing decision for an input token e is then modified to be $w = \mathcal{R}(e|e_{s,\text{stru}})$. We implement the SG-MoE based on DeepSeek-V3 (Liu et al., 2024; Guo et al., 2025) MoE framework, with $N = 16$ experts per layer and a top- k routing strategy ($k = 6$). This design forces experts to specialize based on structural properties, allowing NeurIPS to learn a generalizable structure-to-function mapping and thereby enhancing its cross-subject performance.

3.5 PERCEPTION PATH

The perceptual decoding model, \mathcal{D}_p , aims to project fMRI responses into the latent perceptual space of a Variational Autoencoder (VAE) (Kingma et al., 2013). **Unlike the semantic path, this auxiliary**

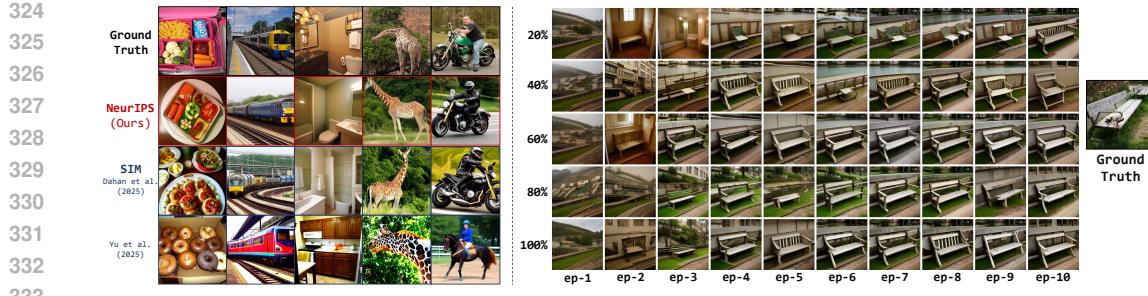


Figure 4: NeurIPS demonstrates superior reconstruction quality and rapid new-subject adaptation on the NSD test set. **(Left)** Qualitative comparison on the standard **within-subject benchmark**, where each model is trained on a single subject’s full dataset. NeurIPS reconstructions show higher fidelity to object identity, layout, and fine details compared to prior surface-based models. **(Right)** Demonstration of **fast new-subject adaptation**. The model is pretrained on a cohort of subjects and then fine-tuned on a held-out subject using a limited data budget. Rows correspond to the percentage of fine-tuning data (20-100%), and columns represent the number of training epochs (1-10). Even with minimal exposure (**one epoch on 20% of data**), the model generates a semantically coherent reconstruction, with quality progressively improving as the data and training budget increase.

branch prioritizes low-level visual fidelity over geometric interpretability. Therefore, we follow Scotti et al. (2023) and flatten the ROI-masked fMRI signals into a 1D vector input, treating this stream as a standard **MLP-based mapping**. Given an input fMRI pair (x_L, x_R) , the model predicts the corresponding VAE latent code $\hat{z} = \mathcal{D}_P(x_L, x_R)$. We use the same pre-trained VAE as Stable Diffusion (Rombach et al., 2022). The ground-truth perceptual latent for a given image y_{img} is obtained via the VAE encoder, $z = \mathcal{E}_{VAE}(y_{img})$. The model \mathcal{D}_P is then optimized using a standard MSE loss: $\mathcal{L}(z, \hat{z}) = \|z - \hat{z}\|_2^2$.

3.6 IMAGE RECONSTRUCTION

The final image reconstruction is performed by a pre-trained, versatile diffusion model (Xu et al., 2023). The model is guided by the outputs of both the perceptual and semantic decoders. The predicted VAE latent \hat{z} from the perceptual decoder \mathcal{D}_P provides low-level structural information. The predicted CLIP text embeddings \hat{e}_{text} and image embeddings \hat{e}_{image} from the semantic decoder \mathcal{D}_S provides high-level semantic guidance. Both latents are injected into the diffusion model’s U-Net architecture via separate cross-attention layers, allowing the model to synthesize an image \hat{y}_{img} that is faithful to both the perceptual details and the semantic content of the original stimulus.

4 EXPERIMENTS AND RESULTS

4.1 EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

Dataset and Preprocessing. We utilize the Natural Scenes Dataset (NSD) (Allen et al., 2022), a large-scale fMRI-image paired benchmark. Four subjects (subj01, 02, 05, 07) completed the full protocol, viewing 10,000 images from COCO (Lin et al., 2014) with three repetitions each. Among these, 1,000 images were shared by all subjects and are designated as the common test set. The remaining are partitioned into 8,500 for train and 500 for val. For scalability experiments, train data from four additional subjects (subj03, 04, 06, 08) are included in the training set.

Evaluation Metrics. Following standard evaluation protocols, we assess reconstruction quality using 8 metrics. For low-level visual fidelity, we use pixel-wise correlation (PixCor) and structural similarity (SSIM) (Wang et al., 2004). For feature-level similarity, we use 2-way comparisons on activations from AlexNet’s 2nd and 5th layer (Alex(2), Alex(5)) (Krizhevsky et al., 2012), InceptionV3 (Incep) (Szegedy et al., 2016), and CLIP ViT-L/14 (CLIP) (Radford et al., 2021). Last, we measure average correlation distance using EfficientNet-B1 (Eff) (Tan & Le, 2019) and SwAV-ResNet50 (SwAV) (Caron et al., 2020).

Baseline Configuration and Parity. To ensure a fair comparison, we re-implemented the surface-based baselines (SIM and Yu et al. (2025)) using their official code or reported settings, aligning loss functions, data splits, and optimization schedules with our method. For SIM (Dahan et al.,

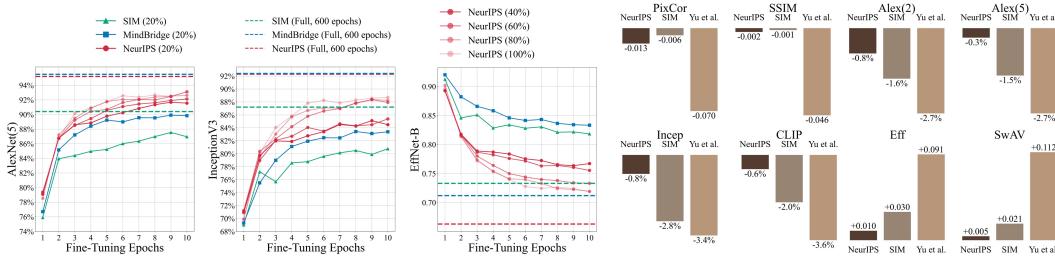


Figure 5: **NeurIPS achieves rapid new-subject adaptation and robust scalability.** In all panels, models were pretrained on 3 subjects and then fine-tuned on a held-out subject. We compared our results with prior models (SIM (Dahan et al., 2025), MindBridge (Wang et al., 2024), and Yu et al. (2025)). **(Left)** The adaptation curves plot performance over 10 fine-tuning epochs. With just 20% of the new subject’s data (solid lines), NeurIPS (red) consistently outperforms baselines and rapidly approaches its asymptotic performance (dashed line). **(Right)** The bar plot illustrates scalability by showing the performance degradation when the training cohort is expanded from 4 to 8 subjects. Taller bars indicate a larger drop (note: Eff/SwAV signs are inverted for consistency). NeurIPS shows the smallest degradation across 7 out of 8 metrics, confirming its superior robustness.

2025), we specifically scaled its transformer to match our model’s width and depth, reporting this stronger variant in Table 2. Crucially, **all reconstruction results** in this paper, including those for MindBridge, SIM, and Yu et al., were generated using the exact same Versatile Diffusion backend and identical inference hyperparameters (50 steps, guidance scale 7.5, text-image mixup 0.5).

4.2 DO GEOMETRY- AND ANATOMY-AWARE DECODERS REACH SOTA?

To answer this, we present a comprehensive quantitative comparison in Table 1. The results show that NeurIPS attains a new state-of-the-art among surface-based decoders across all 8 metrics. For instance, on the high-level CLIP metric, NeurIPS achieves 93.2%, significantly outperforming the prior surface model, SIM (89.4%). Critically, this performance closes the long-standing gap with 1D pipelines. While computationally intensive 1D models like MindBridge reach a CLIP score of 94.7%, our model’s 93.2% achieves comparable under matched compute, demonstrating that incorporating biological fidelity no longer requires a performance trade-off. This quantitative strength is supported by qualitative results in Figure 4 (Left), where NeurIPS reconstructions better preserve object identity, layout, and fine-grained texture compared to prior surface models. We provide further qualitative results in Appendix Figure 13, showcasing our model’s high-fidelity reconstructions across a diverse range of visual categories, including animals, vehicles, and complex scenes.

4.3 HOW EFFICIENTLY DOES NEURIPS ADAPT TO NEW SUBJECTS?

NeurIPS adapts with unprecedented data and time efficiency. To test this, we pretrained a model on three subjects and then fine-tuned it on a held-out subject (subj01) using only a fraction of their available data. The adaptation curves in Figure 5 show that with just 20% of the new subject’s data, NeurIPS (red curve) rapidly approaches its asymptotic performance within 10 epochs. After just one epoch on this limited dataset, NeurIPS already produces a high-fidelity reconstruction, capturing the core semantic content of the scene, as seen in Figure 4 (Right). Driven by its strong anatomical inductive biases, the model achieves this rapid convergence and reaches a performance level in a few epochs that conventional models require hundreds to achieve. Appendix Figure 14 provides a comprehensive set of qualitative examples, illustrating the progressive improvement in reconstruction fidelity as the fine-tuning budget (both data percentage and epochs) increases.

4.4 DOES PERFORMANCE REMAIN STABLE AS THE COHORT SCALES?

Our model’s anatomy-conditioned routing provides superior scalability. To assess this, we compare performance when training on four subjects versus all eight, evaluating on the same four-subject test set. The results (Figure 5, Right) reveals superior robustness: when the training cohort expands from 4 to 8 subjects, SIM’s CLIP score drops by 2.0 points, whereas NeurIPS drops by only 0.6 points. This suggests that anatomy-conditioned routing effectively treats increased subject variability as signal rather than noise. Our model’s stability confirms that it effectively leverages this variability,

432
 433 Table 1: Quantitative comparison of cross-subject performance on the NSD (Allen et al., 2022)
 434 test set. All methods were trained as a single model on four subjects 01, 02, 05, 07, and the results
 435 shown are averaged across the shared test set. Performance is evaluated across eight standard
 436 metrics (\uparrow higher is better), with the best result in each category (1D-vector and Sphere-based)
 437 marked in bold. The Input size column clarifies the input dimensionality, distinguishing between
 438 ROI voxels for 1D methods and surface tokens for sphere-based methods (where “ $\times 2$ ” denotes
 439 both hemispheres). The results show that our model, NeurIPS, establishes a new state-of-the-art
 440 for surface-based decoders and achieves performance parity with top-tier 1D pipelines on high-level
 441 semantic metrics. See related analysis in §4.2.

Method	Trained Voxels	Low-Level				High-Level			
		PixCor \uparrow	SSIM \uparrow	Alex(2) \uparrow	Alex(5) \uparrow	Incep \uparrow	CLIP \uparrow	Eff \downarrow	SwAV \downarrow
<i>1D-vector-based fMRI Methods</i>									
Mind-Vis (Chen et al., 2023)	13811	0.067	0.196	67.7%	74.2%	67.9%	69.3%	0.898	0.513
Takagi & Nishimoto (2023)	13811	0.246	0.410	78.9%	85.6%	83.8%	82.1%	0.811	0.504
MindEye (Scotti et al., 2023)	13811	0.129	0.255	84.2%	89.2%	84.1%	85.0%	0.812	0.487
MindBridge (Wang et al., 2024)	13811	0.151	0.263	87.7%	95.5%	92.4%	94.7%	0.712	0.418
UMBRAE (Xia et al., 2025)	13811	0.283	0.328	93.9%	96.7%	93.4%	94.1%	0.700	0.393
NeuroPictor (Huo et al., 2025)	13811	0.141	0.349	91.4%	95.7%	88.3%	88.9%	0.722	0.417
<i>Sphere-based fMRI Methods</i>									
Gu et al. (2023)	32492 $\times 2$	0.103	0.264	-	-	-	-	0.892	0.508
Yu et al. (2025)	9548	0.165	0.305	78.2%	89.0%	85.1%	88.3%	0.733	0.398
SIM (Dahan et al., 2025)	40962 $\times 2$	0.119	0.260	81.2%	90.4%	87.2%	89.4%	0.733	0.448
NeurIPS (w/o perception decoding)	9488	0.148	0.283	86.7%	94.5%	92.2%	92.9%	0.662	0.396
NeurIPS (Ours)	9488	0.248	0.370	90.7%	95.2%	92.3%	93.2%	0.663	0.404

452
 453 Table 2: Ablation studies on the NSD (Allen et al., 2022) test set providing causal evidence for
 454 our architectural design. Each row modifies a single component relative to the full model. Detailed
 455 analysis is provided in Section 4.5.

#	Setting	Low-Level				High-Level			
		PixCor \uparrow	SSIM \uparrow	Alex(2) \uparrow	Alex(5) \uparrow	Incep \uparrow	CLIP \uparrow	Eff \downarrow	SwAV \downarrow
1	w/o global token	0.236	0.370	87.7%	92.7%	87.7%	89.4%	0.723	0.441
2	subject ID gating	0.247	0.370	90.2%	94.9%	92.0%	92.7%	0.668	0.407
3	w/o perception decoding	0.148	0.283	86.7%	94.5%	92.2%	92.9%	0.662	0.396
4	w/o semantic decoding	0.369	0.512	69.5%	65.4%	53.3%	55.0%	1.004	0.651
5	Yu-style structure fusion	0.239	0.359	89.7%	94.2%	90.9%	91.7%	0.669	0.412
6	full brain	0.193	0.316	85.4%	91.7%	89.4%	91.0%	0.723	0.443
7	functional features gating	0.241	0.371	90.1%	94.9%	91.7%	92.7%	0.661	0.397
8	w/o left brain tokens	0.151	0.288	85.2%	93.3%	90.1%	91.5%	0.691	0.414
9	w/o right brain tokens	0.153	0.289	85.2%	93.5%	90.2%	91.6%	0.688	0.414
10	shuffle spherical position	0.159	0.292	86.5%	93.3%	90.6%	91.5%	0.686	0.419
11	convolution receptive field = 1	0.160	0.292	87.1%	93.6%	90.4%	91.7%	0.682	0.416
12	Full Model	0.248	0.370	90.7%	95.2%	92.3%	93.2%	0.663	0.404

467 enabling it to generalize robustly to larger, more realistic population sizes. For a complete, per-
 468 subject breakdown, see Appendix Tables 4 and 5.

469 4.5 WHICH ARCHITECTURAL COMPONENTS DRIVE PERFORMANCE?

470 To isolate component contributions, we conducted the ablation studies in Table 2. **Anatomy-Guided**
 471 **Routing**. Replacing dynamic routing with static Yu-style fusion (#5) significantly drops performance,
 472 confirming the benefit of conditional computation. Moreover, anatomy-based gating out-
 473 performs both functional statistics (#7) and subject IDs (#2), verifying anatomy as a superior stable
 474 prior. **Geometric Validity**. Disrupting topology via spherical shuffling (#10) or restricting receptive
 475 fields to 1 (#11) impairs performance, confirming SRST leverages cortical neighborhoods rather
 476 than simple feature pooling. Removing left (#8) or right (#9) tokens further confirms hemispheric
 477 information is non-redundant. **Efficiency**. A full-cortex tokenizer (#6) increases memory cost while
 478 lowering CLIP scores, validating our task-aligned ROI efficiency. **Dual Decoders**. Finally, re-
 479 moving the semantic (#4) or perception (#3) decoders leads to collapse in their respective metrics,
 480 proving both are indispensable.

481 4.6 ARE THE LEARNED PATTERNS NEUROSCIENTIFICALLY PLAUSIBLE?

482 Our analyses reveal that NeurIPS’s cross-subject alignment stems from its ability to operate on a
 483 geometrically appropriate coordinate system and to condition on the true source of inter-subject
 484 variability. An analysis of the SG-MoE router (Figure 6A) shows that expert selection exhibits high
 485 dependence on a token’s cortical origin but minimal dependence on the subject’s identity. This

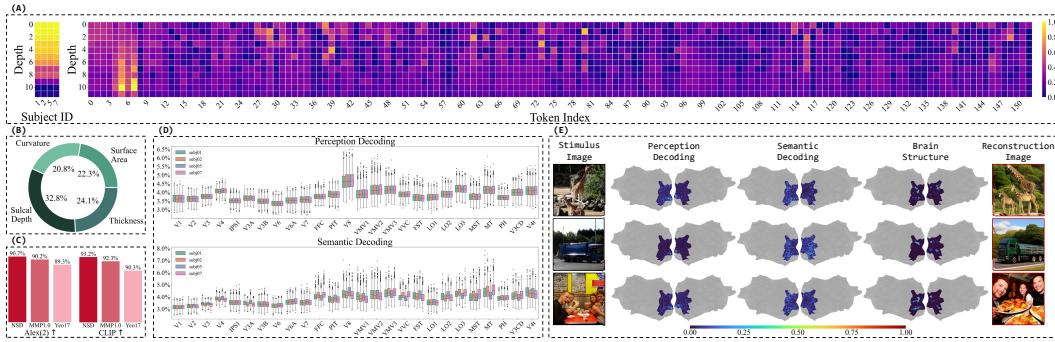


Figure 6: **NeurIPS learns anatomy-aware representations on a geometry-preserving basis.** (A) Expert routing dependence maps show that computation is driven by a token’s cortical location (high *region* dependence, right) rather than the subject’s identity (low *subject* dependence, left). Special tokens are indicated: $[\text{CLS}] = 0-3$, $[\text{global}] = 4-7$. (B) Structural feature attributions confirm a complementary use of all four anatomical features, ruling out single-feature shortcuts. (C) The geometry-aligned tokenization of SRST is validated, as the NSD visual-ROI scheme outperforms generic atlases on key high-level metrics. (D) An ROI-wise analysis reproduces the brain’s visual hierarchy across all subjects, with performance improving from early (V1-V3) to higher-order ventral areas. (E) Surface contribution maps confirm that decoding activity is concentrated in the visual cortex, with semantic decoding extending further into the ventral stream than perception decoding.

demonstrates a progressive disentanglement of information: subject-specific signals are suppressed from task-general tokens ($[\text{CLS}]$) with network depth, while being intentionally carried by the dedicated $[\text{global}]$ tokens (See Appendix §D for detailed discussion). Furthermore, feature attributions (Figure 6B) confirm that the router systematically relies on a complementary set of anatomical cues, a finding that is consistent across all subjects (see Appendix Figure 11 for individual results). This rules out identity memorization or single-feature shortcuts.

The representations learned via this anatomy-aware mechanism are neuroscientifically plausible. An ROI-wise performance analysis (Figure 6D) reproduces the known visual hierarchy across all subjects, with decoding accuracy improving from early visual areas (V1-V3) toward the ventral stream. Furthermore, contribution maps (Figure 6E) confirm that the model’s decoding activity is correctly concentrated in the visual cortex. Crucially, we also validate our foundational design choice. The superiority of our task-focused, topology-preserving tokenizer over generic atlases (Figure 6C) provides direct evidence that an appropriate geometric basis is critical for effective alignment (see Appendix Figure 12 for full results across all metrics). Together, these findings provide a mechanistic explanation for our model’s empirical success: a stable geometric basis from SRST combined with anatomy-aware computation from SG-MoE directly enables the rapid new-subject adaptation and robust scalability demonstrated in our results.

5 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

We demonstrate that the perceived trade-off between performance and biological fidelity in neural decoding is an artifact of inefficient tokenization and a failure to model anatomical variance. Our Selective ROI Spherical Tokenizer (SRST) enables efficient, stable training on cortical surfaces, while our Structure-Guided MoE (SG-MoE) provides a principled approach to cross-subject generalization by conditioning on anatomy. Together, these innovations achieve performance comparable to strong 1D baselines while delivering superior scalability, evidenced by robust performance as the training cohort grows and rapid adaptation to new subjects. We propose this combination of geometry-aware tokenization and anatomy-conditioned computation as a robust recipe for the next generation of neuro-AI models.

We explicitly clarify our scope: while restricting computation to visual ROIs maximizes efficiency for vision-only datasets like NSD, full-cortex modeling remains preferable for multimodal paradigms engaging distributed networks. We further acknowledge dependencies on upstream registration quality and the need for broader validation. Ethically, we rely exclusively on consented data and advocate for strong safeguards as this technology matures.

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ETHICS STATEMENT542
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This work involves human participants, which may potentially give rise to ethical considerations.
All data employed in this study are derived from the NSD dataset (Allen et al., 2022). The dataset
authors have provided ethical statements, noting that all participants gave informed consent for the
use of their physiological data in scientific research. In addition, we open-source NeurIPS and
require that all users refrain from employing it for unethical or illegal purposes.548
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REPRODUCIBILITY STATEMENT550
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We provide detailed technical information in the Appendix §E to facilitate the reproduction of this
work. In addition, we will open-source all code, model weights, and preprocessed data related to
this work after the paper is accepted.554
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A LLMS USAGE

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In the preparation of this manuscript, we employed Large Language Models to support our research
process. Our primary tools were OpenAI’s GPT-4o and Gemini 2.5 Pro. The use of LLMs was
limited to assisting with code debugging, generating plotting scripts for statistical figures, and im-
proving the language and clarity of the text. All outputs were carefully reviewed and edited by the
authors, who are fully responsible for all content herein.
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B AN INFORMATION-THEORETIC AND ANATOMICAL VIEW OF NEURIPS

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The relationship between artificial intelligence (AI) and neuroscience has become a highly produc-
tive area of research. The “black-box” nature of both deep neural networks and the human brain has
motivated using AI frameworks to model and interpret neurological processes (Kriegeskorte, 2015). Such
efforts include capturing spatial encoding in the hippocampus (Whittington et al., 2021; Kim et al.,
2023; Ellwood, 2024), replicating semantic representations (Huth et al., 2016; Millet et al., 2022;
Caucheteux et al., 2023; Antonello & Huth, 2024), and reproducing visual representations in
the cortex (Wen et al., 2018; Ozcelik & VanRullen, 2023; Benchetrit et al., 2023; Tang et al., 2023).
Here, we provide a theoretical framework to explain why our proposed architecture, NeurIPS, is
inherently better suited for this task. We argue that the benefits of our two main contributions: the
Selective ROI Spherical Tokenizer (SRST) and the Structure-Guided Mixture of Experts (SG-MoE),
can be rigorously understood through the lens of information theory and neuroanatomy.
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B.1 A CONDITIONAL INFORMATION BOTTLENECK FRAMEWORK FOR DECODING

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Let X_s denote the ROI-restricted fMRI signals on the cortical surface of subject s (registered to a
common spherical chart), A_s be the corresponding anatomical fields (e.g., cortical thickness, area,
sulcal depth, and curvature), and Y be the target representation we aim to align with (e.g., SD-
VAE latents or CLIP embeddings (Kingma et al., 2013; Radford et al., 2021)). A decoder is a
transformation T that maps the brain data to a compressed representation $Z = T(X_s, A_s)$.
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The goal of cross-subject decoding can be formalized as a **Conditional Information Bottleneck**
(**C-IB**) problem. We seek a representation Z that is maximally informative about the target Y
while being minimally informative about the subject’s identity (ID), all conditioned on the known
anatomical features A_s . This can be expressed as:
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$$\max_T I(Z; Y | A_s) - \beta I(Z; \text{ID} | A_s)$$

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Here, $I(Z; Y | A_s)$ is the task-relevant information we want to preserve, while $I(Z; \text{ID} | A_s)$ is the
subject-specific “nuisance” information we want to suppress. The hyperparameter β controls this
trade-off.
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B.2 WHY SURFACE REPRESENTATIONS ARE INFORMATIONALLY SUPERIOR TO 1D FLATTENING

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The superiority of surface-based methods stems from how they handle the inherent geometry of the
cortex.
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The **Information Cost of Flattening**. According to the Data-Processing Inequality (DPI), any
preprocessing step $X_s \rightarrow \tilde{X}_s$ cannot increase information, i.e., $I(\tilde{X}_s; Y) \leq I(X_s; Y)$. Flattening
fMRI data into a 1D vector is a destructive form of preprocessing that discards explicit geodesic
neighborhoods and sulcal topology. This overlooks the meaningful spatial auto-correlation of signals
across the cortex (Margulies et al., 2016; Bijsterbosch et al., 2018; Kong et al., 2019; Shinn et al.,
2023; Leech et al., 2023) and forces the network to implicitly relearn these fundamental spatial
relationships from the data.861
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The **SRST as an Efficient Information-Preserving Transformation**. In contrast, our SRST is designed
to be a more efficient information processor. This is motivated by evidence that the spatial connec-
tivity features of the cortex are key to its function (Smith et al., 2013; Glasser et al., 2016a; Vidaurre
et al., 2017; Pervaiz et al., 2022), making surface modeling a more accurate representation that

864 has long been employed in cortical analysis (Glasser et al., 2016b; Margulies et al., 2016; Gordon
 865 et al., 2017a;b). By restricting computation to task-relevant visual ROIs, SRST removes a significant
 866 source of noise (non-visual brain signals), thereby improving information *efficiency*. Crucially, by
 867 using spherical convolutions, it explicitly preserves the local surface neighborhoods, retaining the
 868 geometric information that 1D flattening discards.

870 B.3 WHY ANATOMY-CONDITIONING (SG-MOE) IS SUPERIOR TO ID-CONDITIONING

871 The core of cross-subject generalization lies in how a model handles inter-subject variability.

873 **ID-Conditioning as Memorization.** Prior MoE models that condition on a subject’s ID (Quan
 874 et al., 2024) essentially learn a mixture of subject-specific experts. This encourages the model to
 875 *memorize* “who” a subject is, which directly increases the nuisance information term $I(Z; \text{ID})$.

877 **Anatomy-Conditioning as Principled Generalization.** Our SG-MoE instead conditions the ex-
 878 pert routing on anatomical features A_s . This leverages the well-established empirical link be-
 879 tween cortical morphology and function (e.g., retinotopic organization follows sulcal patterns (Eng-
 880 el et al., 1997; Natu et al., 2021)). By doing so, SG-MoE approximates the conditional distribution
 881 $p(Y | X_s, A_s)$ rather than just $p(Y | X_s)$. This allows the model to “explain away” the portion
 882 of variance in X_s that is attributable to anatomy A_s . This directly reduces the remaining subject-
 883 specific information, lowering $I(Z; \text{ID} | A_s)$ and leading to a more generalizable representation.
 884 The expert selection for a token $X_s^{(i)}$ with corresponding anatomy $A_s^{(i)}$ can be modeled as:

$$885 Z^{(i)} = \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k(X_s^{(i)}, A_s^{(i)}) \cdot \text{Expert}_k(X_s^{(i)})$$

888 where the gating weights π_k depend **exclusively** on the anatomical structure $A_s^{(i)}$, ensuring that
 889 routing decisions generalize across subjects with similar local geometry.

891 B.4 EMPIRICAL CONFIRMATION OF THEORETICAL PREDICTIONS

893 Our theoretical framework leads to several testable predictions, all of which are confirmed by our
 894 experiments in the main paper.

- 895 **Prediction (Efficiency):** SRST’s ROI restriction should reduce computational load with-
 896 out sacrificing performance. **Confirmation:** This is validated in §4.5. Our ablation (Ta-
 897 ble 2, #6) shows that a full-cortex tokenizer consumes significantly more memory (74GB
 898 vs 61GB) while achieving lower accuracy than our visual-ROI SRST.
- 900 **Prediction (Fast Personalization):** A model that learns generalizable structure-function
 901 rules should adapt to a new subject’s anatomy much faster. **Confirmation:** This is shown
 902 in §4.4, where NeurIPS achieves high-fidelity results with just 20% of a new subject’s data
 903 in a few epochs.
- 904 **Prediction (Scaling Robustness):** A model that explains away anatomical variance should
 905 be more stable when the diversity of the training cohort increases. **Confirmation:** This is
 906 demonstrated in §4.4, where NeurIPS exhibits the smallest performance degradation when
 907 scaling from 4 to 8 training subjects.
- 908 **Prediction (Anatomy Usage):** The SG-MoE router should genuinely use anatomical in-
 909 formation, and removing this information should harm performance. **Confirmation:** This
 910 is proven by multiple ablations (Table 2): replacing anatomy with **subject ID** (#2) or **func-**
 911 **tional statistics** (#7) both degrade performance. Furthermore, feature attribution analysis
 912 (Fig. 6) confirms systematic reliance on sulcal depth and curvature.

913 C HOW NEURIPS DIFFERS FROM PRIOR SURFACE MODELS

916 NeurIPS integrates several key architectural innovations that distinguish it from prior surface-based
 917 decoders, moving from static, full-hemisphere processing to a learnable, anatomy-aware, and ROI-
 918 restricted framework. We summarize the differences in spherical operations in Table 3.

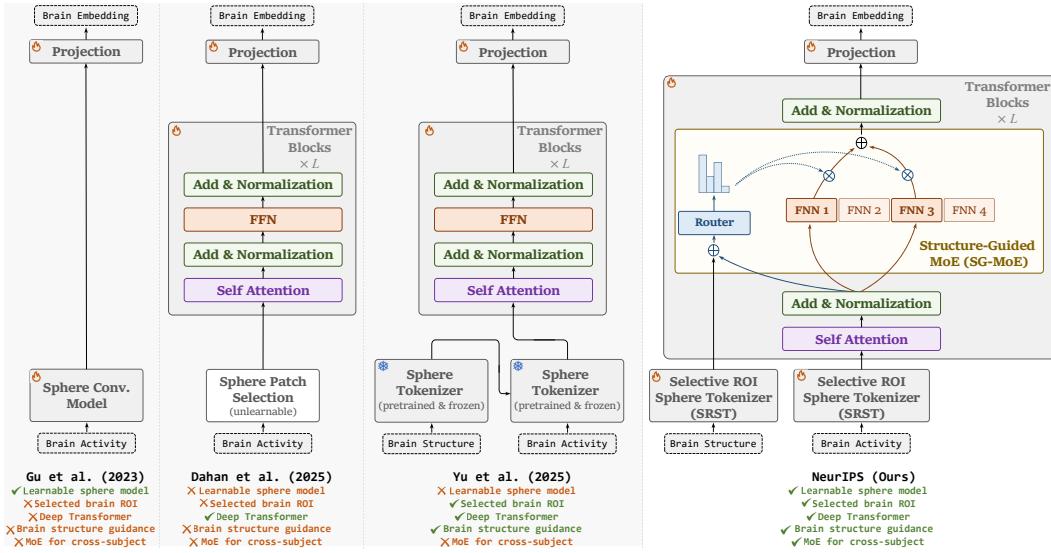


Figure 7: **Comparison with other surface-based fMRI decoders.** This figure contrasts prior methods with our proposed **NeurIPS** framework. Early approaches like Gu et al. (2023) used a shallow spherical convolutional stack on the full hemisphere. Subsequent work incorporated deep transformers but with key limitations: SIM (Dahan et al., 2025) selected surface patches with a fixed, non-learnable heuristic, while Yu et al. (2025) used frozen, pretrained tokenizers. These models either ignored anatomical structure or used it only as a static input feature. **NeurIPS** introduces two key advances: (1) its Selective ROI Sphere Tokenizers (SRST) are fully learnable and restrict computation to relevant visual areas, and (2) its Structure-Guided MoE (SG-MoE) uses cortical anatomy to dynamically route information. This end-to-end, anatomy-aware design makes surface-based decoding computationally efficient and robust to cross-subject differences.

Table 3: Comparison of spherical operations across surface-based fMRI decoders.

Method	Spherical Operation	Kernel/Projection	Spatial Selection	Training Status
Yu et al. (2025)	SphericalUNet-style (Zhao et al., 2019)	Learned	Full Hemisphere	Pretrained & Frozen
SIM (Dahan et al., 2025)	Icosahedral Patches	Learned Linear Proj.	Fixed Grid (Unlearnable)	Learned End-to-End
NeurIPS (Ours)	SphericalUNet-style (Zhao et al., 2019)	Learned	Visual ROI (Task-Aligned)	Learned End-to-End

C.1 TOKENIZATION: FROM BRUTE-FORCE TO SELECTIVE AND LEARNABLE

A major bottleneck in prior work has been inefficient tokenization. While prior surface decoders utilize learned operations, they are often constrained by fixed grids or frozen weights.

Learnable vs. Fixed Spherical Operations. It is important to clarify the distinction between learned kernels and fixed heuristics in prior work:

- **Yu et al. (Yu et al., 2025)** employ a ResNet-style spherical downsampling architecture with SphericalNet-style (Zhao et al., 2019) convolutions. While their convolutional kernels are indeed result of optimization (learned) rather than hand-crafted filters, these layers are typically pretrained and subsequently *frozen* during the fMRI-to-image training phase.
- **SIM (Dahan et al., 2025)** uses a regular icosahedral tessellation to define a grid of surface patches. While it applies a learned linear projection within each patch, the patch selection itself is based on a fixed grid. We describe this as “unlearnable” because the grid locations are predefined and not adapted to the task; the patch encoder is trainable, but the spatial selection is not.

The NeurIPS Approach. In contrast, NeurIPS solves the issues of frozen representations and excessive token counts. SRST uses SphericalUNet-style (Zhao et al., 2019) convolutions following Yu et al. (2025) but learns all kernels *end-to-end* from scratch on the NSD dataset. Furthermore, rather than processing the entire hemisphere (which incurs an $\mathcal{O}(T^2)$ complexity burden) (Yu et al.,

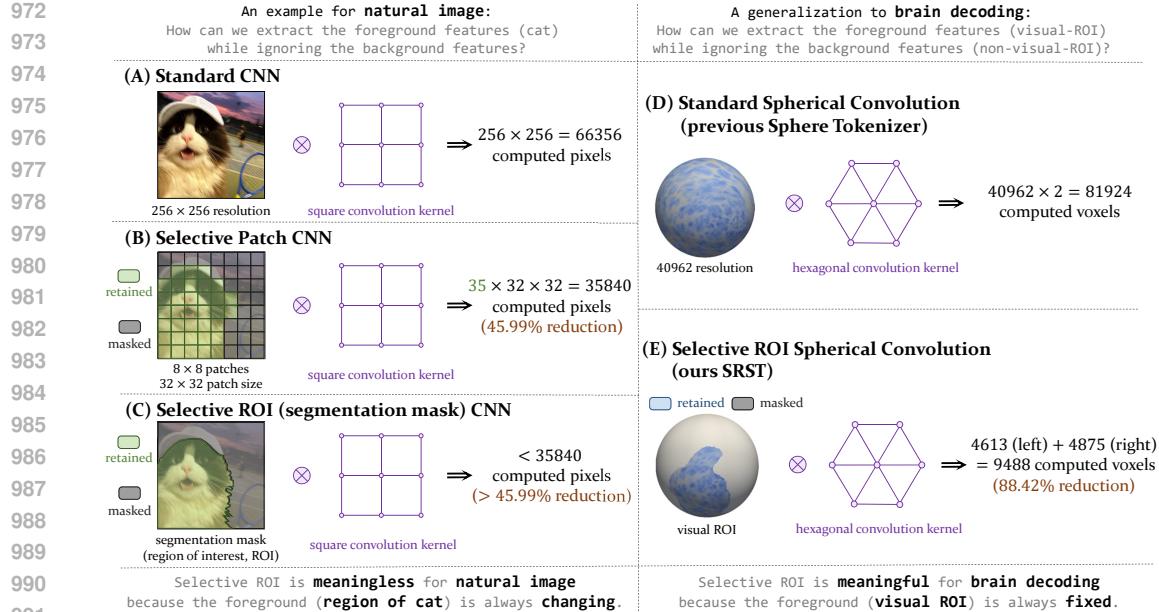


Figure 8: Efficiency of Selective ROI Spherical Convolution. We contrast standard CNNs (A) and Spherical Convolutions (D) with our proposed selective approach. While selective masking is difficult in natural images due to shifting foregrounds (C), it is highly effective in brain decoding where the visual cortex is anatomically consistent. By applying spherical convolutions exclusively to the visual ROI (E), our SRST achieves an **88.42% reduction** in computational cost compared to processing the full cortical mesh, focusing the model capacity solely on task-relevant features.

2025) or using a fixed grid (Dahan et al., 2025), SRST restricts computation to functionally defined visual ROIs. This makes the tokenization process both fully learnable and computationally efficient.

C.2 USE OF ANATOMY: FROM STATIC FEATURE TO DYNAMIC ROUTING

Previous models have either ignored cortical anatomy or included it as just another static feature concatenated with brain activity. This fails to capture how anatomical differences shape functional responses. Our **Structure-Guided MoE (SG-MoE)** represents a paradigm shift, using an individual's anatomical features (e.g., sulcal depth, cortical thickness) to dynamically route information through different expert pathways. This allows the model to learn a generalizable structure-to-function mapping, rather than simply memorizing subject-specific patterns.

Table 4: Quantitative results for each subject on NSD test (4 subjects training).

Subject	Method	Low-Level				High-Level			
		PixCor \uparrow	SSIM \uparrow	Alex(2) \uparrow	Alex(5) \uparrow	Incep \uparrow	CLIP \uparrow	Eff \downarrow	SwAV \downarrow
subj01	Yu et al. (2025)	0.172	0.314	78.6%	88.7%	84.8%	88.9%	0.736	0.396
	SIM (Dahan et al., 2025)	0.125	0.262	82.0%	91.0%	88.2%	89.7%	0.728	0.447
	NeurIPS (Ours)	0.271	0.375	91.8%	95.8%	93.0%	93.8%	0.656	0.398
subj02	Yu et al. (2025)	0.167	0.302	77.7%	89.0%	85.9%	88.2%	0.733	0.394
	SIM (Dahan et al., 2025)	0.121	0.262	81.7%	90.9%	86.9%	88.7%	0.735	0.449
	NeurIPS (Ours)	0.256	0.373	91.0%	94.9%	91.7%	92.2%	0.672	0.407
subj05	Yu et al. (2025)	0.163	0.305	78.6%	90.1%	86.4%	89.6%	0.717	0.393
	SIM (Dahan et al., 2025)	0.119	0.262	81.9%	91.0%	88.6%	90.8%	0.720	0.437
	NeurIPS (Ours)	0.239	0.368	90.6%	95.6%	93.9%	94.1%	0.645	0.395
subj07	Yu et al. (2025)	0.157	0.298	78.0%	88.3%	83.2%	86.7%	0.746	0.409
	SIM (Dahan et al., 2025)	0.113	0.255	79.3%	88.8%	85.0%	88.4%	0.749	0.461
	NeurIPS (Ours)	0.226	0.364	89.3%	94.4%	90.6%	92.6%	0.679	0.415

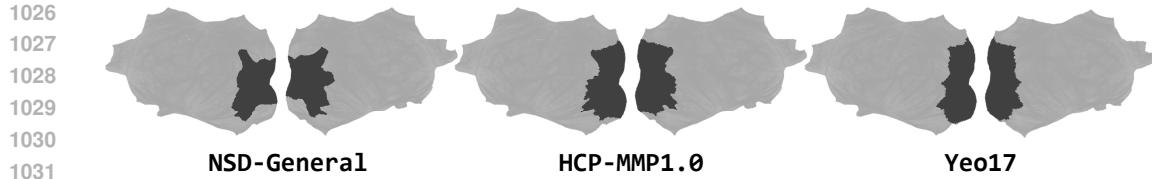


Figure 9: Schematic diagrams of visual ROIs for three different parcellations.

Table 5: Quantitative results for each subject on NSD test (8 subjects training).

Subject	Method	Low-Level				High-Level			
		PixCor \uparrow	SSIM \uparrow	Alex(2) \uparrow	Alex(5) \uparrow	Incep \uparrow	CLIP \uparrow	Eff \downarrow	SwAV \downarrow
subj01	Yu et al. (2025)	0.094	0.257	74.0%	83.5%	80.2%	83.0%	0.834	0.519
subj01	SIM (Dahan et al., 2025)	0.123	0.264	81.3%	90.0%	85.0%	87.9%	0.761	0.467
subj01	NeurIPS (Ours)	0.255	0.371	91.4%	95.4%	91.7%	93.3%	0.667	0.402
subj02	Yu et al. (2025)	0.095	0.261	75.6%	86.5%	80.8%	84.0%	0.836	0.518
subj02	SIM (Dahan et al., 2025)	0.109	0.258	79.2%	88.8%	83.8%	86.8%	0.771	0.472
subj02	NeurIPS (Ours)	0.242	0.370	90.0%	94.3%	90.5%	91.3%	0.686	0.417
subj03	Yu et al. (2025)	0.083	0.257	71.1%	80.2%	74.9%	77.7%	0.882	0.555
subj03	SIM (Dahan et al., 2025)	0.092	0.259	74.5%	81.7%	74.7%	77.3%	0.852	0.535
subj03	NeurIPS (Ours)	0.204	0.362	84.2%	90.1%	83.7%	86.4%	0.769	0.477
subj04	Yu et al. (2025)	0.072	0.256	71.8%	80.5%	75.6%	76.0%	0.856	0.548
subj04	SIM (Dahan et al., 2025)	0.080	0.256	72.8%	80.5%	76.1%	79.3%	0.841	0.533
subj04	NeurIPS (Ours)	0.200	0.360	84.2%	90.1%	83.7%	86.4%	0.769	0.477
subj05	Yu et al. (2025)	0.095	0.257	76.6%	88.7%	85.0%	87.7%	0.792	0.486
subj05	SIM (Dahan et al., 2025)	0.115	0.262	80.4%	89.5%	86.5%	88.7%	0.744	0.456
subj05	NeurIPS (Ours)	0.228	0.366	89.4%	95.6%	93.6%	94.1%	0.650	0.396
subj06	Yu et al. (2025)	0.082	0.254	71.6%	86.5%	78.3%	75.9%	0.857	0.545
subj06	SIM (Dahan et al., 2025)	0.089	0.250	72.6%	81.0%	76.1%	79.0%	0.843	0.533
subj06	NeurIPS (Ours)	0.201	0.360	84.5%	89.4%	84.6%	86.4%	0.763	0.473
subj07	Yu et al. (2025)	0.095	0.261	75.6%	86.5%	80.8%	84.0%	0.836	0.518
subj07	SIM (Dahan et al., 2025)	0.105	0.251	77.5%	87.1%	82.3%	86.1%	0.776	0.481
subj07	NeurIPS (Ours)	0.216	0.363	88.3%	93.7%	90.0%	91.7%	0.688	0.419
subj08	Yu et al. (2025)	0.070	0.255	70.0%	77.1%	68.4%	71.6%	0.886	0.551
subj08	SIM (Dahan et al., 2025)	0.074	0.247	70.6%	76.6%	69.1%	73.2%	0.887	0.571
subj08	NeurIPS (Ours)	0.194	0.361	81.5%	86.8%	78.4%	82.2%	0.814	0.504

C.3 SYNTHESIS: AN END-TO-END, ANATOMY-AWARE SYSTEM

In summary, NeurIPS is the first surface-based decoder to combine end-to-end learnable, ROI-restricted tokenization with dynamic, anatomy-conditioned routing in a deep transformer. This principled design directly addresses the core challenges of computational efficiency and cross-subject heterogeneity, making surface-based decoding practically scalable and competitive with top-tier 1D pipelines.

D AN ANALYSIS OF MOE: WHAT DETERMINES EXPERTS ROUTING?

Our analysis of the model reveals that two main factors influence experts routing: the **brain region** (i.e., the model selects experts based on which brain region the current token belongs to) and the **subject** (i.e., the model selects experts based on which subject the current token corresponds to). In order to examine the dependence of experts routing on various factors, we compute the activated experts count of the i -th token at the d -th layer of the Transformer for every subject and every NSD test sample ($\forall i, \forall d$). The results are represented as a vector of length N , with each element indicating the activation count for the corresponding expert. Here, N denotes the total number of experts (as defined in §3.4). We ultimately obtain an array $\text{count} \in \mathbb{N}^{4 \times \text{depth} \times T \times N}$ to record the expert activation for each token in the Transformer for the 4 subjects.

Experts Routing Dependence on Brain Region. To study the degree of experts selection dependence on brain regions, we compute the variance of the statistical results at the token level (ignoring [CLS] and [global] tokens). Positions with higher variance indicate greater differences in experts activation across tokens, suggesting a higher dependency of experts selection on the brain

1080 region at those positions. As shown on the Figure 6A, the dependence on brain regions is higher
 1081 in the shallower layers (closer to the input). As the model progressively extracts and integrates
 1082 embeddings, the reliance on brain regions decreases in the deeper layers (closer to the output).

1083 **Experts Routing Dependence on Subject.** Similarly, we compute the variance of the statistical
 1084 results across the 4 subjects to measure the extent to which expert routing is influenced by different
 1085 subjects, as shown on the Figure 6A. (1) For the [CLS] tokens, we find that experts selection
 1086 exhibits slight dependence on the subject in the shallower layers, but almost no subject dependence
 1087 in the deeper layers. This is because the [CLS] tokens in the final layer directly aligns with the CLIP
 1088 embeddings, which is a subject-independent target. (2) For the [global] tokens, we observe a
 1089 significant subject dependence in its experts routing overall, as the [global] tokens aggregates the
 1090 complete brain information from fMRI. Moreover, the subject dependence of the [global] tokens
 1091 increases layer by layer, whereas the subject dependence of regular tokens decreases across layers.
 1092 This indicates that the [global] tokens serves to capture subject-specific information. In the
 1093 cross-subject brain decoding task, as the model deepens, the subject specificity of the [CLS] tokens
 1094 and regular tokens is gradually eliminated to better generalize across subjects, while subject-specific
 1095 information is transferred to the [global] tokens via the attention mechanism. This observation
 1096 supports the rationale of our model design, demonstrating its effectiveness.

E IMPLEMENTATION DETAILS

1100 **Model Frameworks.** For perception decoding (§3.5), we fully adopt the MindEye (Scotti et al.,
 1101 2023) approach, using our ROI-mask fMRI (i.e., voxels within the visual brain region) as a 1D
 1102 vector input to the network. For semantic decoding (§3.4), we employ the frozen pretrained CLIP
 1103 model, specifically OpenAI’s ViT-L/14. In the SRST (§3.4), the functional module gradually
 1104 downsamples the fMRI from the *fsaverage6* space to the *fsaverage3* space with the resolution at
 1105 each layer being [64, 128, 256, 512], while the structural module downsamples the spherical brain
 1106 structure from the *fsaverage6* space to the *fsaverage1* space with the resolution at each layer being
 1107 [16, 32, 64, 128, 256, 512]. In the SG-MoE (§3.4), the implementation of the MoE module is based
 1108 on DeepSeek-V3 (Liu et al., 2024; Guo et al., 2025). Our model consists of $N = 16$ routed experts
 1109 and 2 shared experts, with the number of activated experts set to 6 and the intermediate dimension
 1110 set to 512. The Transformer has an embedding dimension of 768, a depth of 12 layers, and 12
 1111 attention heads. Dropout is applied in the sphere tokenizer with a probability of 0.3 and in the
 1112 attention mechanism with a probability of 0.5.

1113 **Training Strategy.** For perception decoding (§3.5), we train with a total batch size of 64 (in the
 1114 4-subject training case, 16 samples per subject per iteration). The model is trained for a total of 100
 1115 epochs. For semantic decoding (§3.4), the total batch size is 96 (with a batch size of 24 per subject
 1116 in the 4-subject training case). The model is trained for a total of 600 epochs. For both perception
 1117 and semantic decoding, the learning rate is set to 10^{-4} , weight decay is 0.01, and the maximum
 1118 gradient norm is 0.1. The same settings are used for fine-tuning. All experiments are conducted on
 1119 an 80GB Nvidia A800 GPU.

1120 **Inference Strategy.** We employ Versatile Diffusion (VD) (Xu et al., 2023) for image reconstruction.
 1121 Let the prediction of perception decoding (§3.6) be z_{fMRI} . We mix it with Gaussian noise $\varepsilon \sim$
 1122 $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ at intensity t to obtain the initial noise z for diffusion: $z = t \cdot z_{\text{fMRI}} + (1 - t) \cdot \varepsilon$. We set
 1123 $t = 0.1$. The number of inference steps is set to 50, the text-image mixup ratio in VD is 0.5, and the
 1124 classifier-free guidance scale is set to 7.5.

1125 **ROI Parcellation.** We use a total of 3 ROI parcellations: NSD-General (Allen et al., 2022), HCP-
 1126 MMP1.0 (Glasser et al., 2016a), and Yeo17 (Yeo et al., 2015). An analysis of the influence of dif-
 1127 ferent parcellations on brain decoding performance is provided in §4.6 and Figure 6. NSD-General
 1128 is the visual brain region ROI provided by the official NSD dataset (Allen et al., 2022), consisting
 1129 of 9,488 visual voxels (4,613 for left, 4,875 for right). NSD-General is used by default for all other
 1130 experiments. For HCP-MMP1.0 (Glasser et al., 2016a), we select the following brain regions as
 1131 visual ROIs, resulting in a final ROI containing 10,192 voxels (5,147 for left, 5,045 for right).

1132
 1133 V1, V2, V3, V3A, V3B, V3CD, V4, V4t, V6, V6A, V7, V8,
 IPS1, FFC, PIT, VMV1, VMV2, VMV3, VVC, FST, LO1, LO2, LO3, MST, MT, PH

	Stimuli	Brain Caption (Ours)	Stimuli	Brain Caption (Ours)
1134		subj01: cars are driving down a street in a city with tall buildings subj02: there are many cars driving down the street in this town subj03: there are many buses that are driving down the street subj04: cars driving down a street in a city with tall buildings		subj01: skier in black jacket sliding down a snowy slope on a cloudy day subj02: skier in black jacket skiing down a steep slope with trees in the background subj03: skier in black jacket skiing down a snowy slope with trees in background subj04: skier in black and green gear skiing down a snowy slope
1135		subj01: there are a lot of ripe bananas in a bowl on the table subj02: there is a bowl of fruit that is sitting on a table subj03: there is a bowl of fruit that is sitting on a counter subj04: there is a bowl of green peas and carrots on a table		subj01: several people sitting at a table with plates of food and drinks subj02: several women sitting at a table with plates of food and drinks subj03: people sitting at a table with plates of food and drinks subj04: several people sitting at a long table eating food and drinking
1136				subj01: there is a computer and a laptop on a desk in a room subj02: there is a computer desk with a monitor and keyboard on it subj03: there is a computer on a desk with a keyboard and monitor subj04: there is a computer monitor and keyboard on a desk
1137				subj01: there is a bathroom with a sink, tub, and shower subj02: there is a bathroom with a sink, mirror, and bathtub subj03: there is a bathroom with a sink, toilet, and shower subj04: there is a bathroom with a toilet, sink, and mirror
1138				
1139				
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1143				

Figure 10: Qualitative examples of brain captioning. Our model accurately describes visual stimuli for different subjects, validating its generalization ability in the brain captioning task.

For Yeo17 (Yeo et al., 2015), we chose Visual A and Visual B as visual ROIs, yielding a final ROI consisting of 9,128 voxels (4,549 for left, 4,579 for right). In Figure 9, we present the visual brain regions corresponding to the three different parcellations.

Brain Heatmaps and Importance Analysis. Figure 6 presents an analysis of the contribution and importance of the input data, conducted using Grad-CAM (Selvaraju et al., 2017).

F MORE RESULTS

Brain Captioning. Although not our primary objective, we follow UMBRAE (Xia et al., 2025) and conducted brain captioning experiments. Quantitative comparisons with sphere-based baselines are reported in Table 6, while qualitative examples of brain captioning are shown in Figure 10, demonstrating both the effectiveness of our model and its adaptability to different tasks.

Brain Retrieval. We follow MindEye’s (Scotti et al., 2023) pipeline for the brain retrieval task, with quantitative results reported in Table 7. The results of the retrieval task corroborate and support our claims alongside the outcomes of the image reconstruction task.

Comparison to Previous Work. We provide a detailed quantitative comparison against state-of-the-art baselines in Table 1. Since the original SIM paper (Dahan et al., 2025) did not conduct training on the NSD dataset (Allen et al., 2022), we rigorously reproduced their method using the official open-source code. We trained it on NSD from scratch and report the corresponding metrics. To ensure a strictly fair comparison, we aligned all other components—including loss functions, training strategies, and the inference pipeline—to be identical to our NeurIPS framework. Furthermore, noting that the original SIM employed a relatively small Transformer backbone, we scaled up its hyperparameters (width and depth) to match our model capacity. We observed that this scaled version performed better than the original configuration, so we report this stronger “Improved SIM” variant in our tables to provide a competitive baseline. [Similarly, since the code for Yu et al. \(2025\) is not open-source, we meticulously reproduced their work based on the architectural details and](#)

Table 6: Brain captioning results for each subject on NSD test (4 subjects training). Our model surpasses the baselines, highlighting the applicability of our method across various tasks.

Subject	Method	BLEU1 ↑	BLEU2 ↑	BLEU3 ↑	BLEU4 ↑	METEOR ↑	ROUGE ↑	CIDEr ↑	SPICE ↑	CLIP-S ↑	RefCLIP-S ↑
1179	subj01 Yu et al. (2025)	49.66	31.58	19.57	12.23	16.34	36.02	40.07	9.83	59.35	65.67
1180	subj01 SIM (Dahan et al., 2025)	50.08	31.78	20.06	12.66	16.66	36.83	41.01	9.85	60.71	67.26
1181	subj01 NeurIPS (Ours)	54.57	36.13	23.97	15.89	18.94	39.83	55.40	11.87	64.67	71.00
1182	subj02 Yu et al. (2025)	49.37	30.92	19.22	12.17	15.99	36.07	39.48	9.38	59.08	65.59
1183	subj02 SIM (Dahan et al., 2025)	49.55	31.05	19.48	12.50	16.46	36.33	40.08	9.86	60.27	66.85
1184	subj02 NeurIPS (Ours)	52.58	34.31	22.24	14.48	18.05	38.53	50.53	11.47	63.19	69.47
1185	subj05 Yu et al. (2025)	49.70	31.60	19.97	12.82	16.77	36.61	42.63	10.83	60.17	66.49
1186	subj05 SIM (Dahan et al., 2025)	50.92	32.70	20.91	13.61	17.10	37.45	44.34	10.26	61.32	67.92
1187	subj05 NeurIPS (Ours)	55.36	36.66	23.94	15.73	19.59	40.41	57.91	13.05	65.85	72.05
1188	subj07 Yu et al. (2025)	48.61	30.09	18.43	11.47	15.97	35.87	37.38	9.33	58.05	64.45
1189	subj07 SIM (Dahan et al., 2025)	49.77	31.43	19.68	12.33	16.30	36.21	39.15	9.39	59.67	66.48
1190	subj07 NeurIPS (Ours)	53.36	35.11	22.88	15.11	18.36	39.40	51.06	11.82	63.25	69.72
Average	Yu et al. (2025)	49.33	31.05	19.30	12.17	16.27	36.14	39.89	9.84	59.16	65.55
Average	SIM (Dahan et al., 2025)	50.08	31.74	20.03	12.77	16.63	36.70	41.14	9.84	60.49	67.13
Average	NeurIPS (Ours)	53.96	35.55	23.26	15.30	18.73	39.54	53.72	12.05	64.24	70.56

1188

1189 Table 7: Quantitative results for brain retrieval on the NSD test. The brain retrieval pipeline
 1190 follows MindEye (Scotti et al., 2023). For each retrieval task, top-1 accuracy (Acc@1) and top-5
 1191 accuracy (Acc@5) are reported. The 95% confidence interval (CI) is also reported (mean \pm CI). The
 1192 results of the retrieval task align with those of image reconstruction, demonstrating the powerful
 1193 capability of our designed semantic decoder.

#	Method	Brain-to-Image (%)		Brain-to-Text (%)		Image-to-Brain (%)		Text-to-Brain (%)	
		Acc@1 \uparrow	Acc@5 \uparrow	Acc@1 \uparrow	Acc@5 \uparrow	Acc@1 \uparrow	Acc@5 \uparrow	Acc@1 \uparrow	Acc@5 \uparrow
	Yu et al. (2025)	68.9 \pm 2.9	89.6 \pm 2.4	49.0 \pm 2.7	71.8 \pm 2.5	61.2 \pm 2.7	85.7 \pm 2.3	57.2 \pm 3.1	79.6 \pm 2.8
	SIM (Dahan et al., 2025)	82.9 \pm 2.5	93.5 \pm 1.8	66.4 \pm 2.5	78.8 \pm 2.2	80.5 \pm 2.4	92.1 \pm 1.7	73.6 \pm 2.6	88.6 \pm 2.1
1	w/o global token	82.5 \pm 1.2	96.2 \pm 0.6	69.5 \pm 1.3	87.2 \pm 1.1	74.2 \pm 1.4	91.9 \pm 1.0	70.0 \pm 1.4	88.6 \pm 1.1
2	subject ID gating	89.8 \pm 1.0	99.3 \pm 0.3	77.8 \pm 1.2	97.5 \pm 0.5	81.5 \pm 1.2	99.0 \pm 0.3	76.4 \pm 1.2	98.0 \pm 0.4
5	Yu-style structure fusion	88.2 \pm 1.0	98.1 \pm 0.5	76.6 \pm 1.3	95.4 \pm 0.6	79.5 \pm 1.2	98.6 \pm 0.4	73.3 \pm 1.2	96.7 \pm 0.5
6	full brain	83.9 \pm 1.2	97.9 \pm 0.5	63.5 \pm 1.4	86.4 \pm 1.1	78.1 \pm 1.3	96.4 \pm 0.6	74.2 \pm 1.3	94.2 \pm 0.7
7	functional features gating	88.9 \pm 1.0	99.5 \pm 0.2	77.7 \pm 1.2	97.7 \pm 0.5	81.3 \pm 1.2	98.7 \pm 0.4	76.6 \pm 1.2	98.1 \pm 0.4
8	w/o left brain tokens	84.7 \pm 1.1	96.8 \pm 0.6	73.1 \pm 1.4	91.1 \pm 0.9	77.2 \pm 1.4	94.8 \pm 0.7	72.5 \pm 1.2	92.2 \pm 0.8
9	w/o right brain tokens	85.8 \pm 1.1	96.8 \pm 0.6	73.3 \pm 1.4	91.0 \pm 0.9	76.7 \pm 1.3	94.9 \pm 0.7	72.5 \pm 1.3	91.8 \pm 0.9
10	shuffle spherical position	86.7 \pm 1.1	97.4 \pm 0.6	74.3 \pm 1.3	91.2 \pm 0.8	76.5 \pm 1.4	95.0 \pm 0.7	71.1 \pm 1.4	92.2 \pm 0.8
11	convolution receptive field = 1	88.1 \pm 1.1	97.8 \pm 0.5	74.6 \pm 1.3	92.0 \pm 0.6	78.1 \pm 1.3	95.4 \pm 0.7	72.5 \pm 1.4	92.4 \pm 0.8
12	NeurIPS (Ours) (semantic decoding only)	91.1 \pm 0.9	99.7 \pm 0.2	78.9 \pm 1.3	97.8 \pm 0.4	82.2 \pm 1.2	99.1 \pm 0.3	77.0 \pm 1.1	98.4 \pm 0.4

1203

1204

1205 guidelines provided in their paper. The results in Table 1 are reported as averages across subjects
 1206 in the multi-subject setting. For a more granular view, detailed metrics for individual subjects are
 1207 provided in Table 4 for the 4-subject training case and in Table 5 for the 8-subject scalability experi-
 1208 ment. Crucially, to eliminate any confounding factors from the generative model, all reconstructions
 1209 presented in this paper—including those for MindBridge (Wang et al., 2024), SIM (Dahan et al.,
 1210 2025), Yu et al. (2025), and NeurIPS (Figure 1, Figure 4)—were generated using the exact same
 1211 Versatile Diffusion backend and identical inference hyperparameters (see Appendix E). Therefore,
 1212 the performance gaps observed in Table 1 and the visual quality differences in our figures can be
 1213 attributed solely to the quality of the fMRI encoder representations.

1214

1215 **More Reconstruction Results.** We provide additional qualitative results to demonstrate the robust-
 1216 ness of our model across diverse semantic categories. In Figure 4 of the main text, we highlighted
 1217 the superior reconstruction quality of NeurIPS compared to sphere-based baselines. Here, Figure 13
 1218 expands on this by showcasing randomly selected reconstructions for multiple subjects. NeurIPS ex-
 1219 hibits strong cross-subject consistency, faithfully reconstructing complex scenes involving animals
 1220 (e.g., zebras, bears), human activities (e.g., skiing, baseball), and indoor settings (e.g., kitchens,
 1221 bathrooms). The model captures not only the high-level semantics but also fine-grained details
 1222 such as object orientation, texture, and background elements, further validating the efficacy of our
 1223 geometry-aware tokenization.

1224

1225 **More New Subject Adaption Fine-tuning Results.** A key advantage of our anatomy-guided archi-
 1226 tecture is its ability to rapidly adapt to new individuals with minimal data. To rigorously assess this,
 1227 we conducted extensive fine-tuning experiments simulating a "new user" scenario with limited data
 1228 and compute budgets. Figure 1 in the main text displays the impressive reconstruction results after
 1229 fine-tuning for just one epoch on 20% of the data. Figure 5 quantifies this rapid adaptation, showing
 1230 steep learning curves that quickly approach asymptotic performance. For a more comprehensive
 1231 visual analysis, Figure 14 presents a grid of reconstructions under varying constraints (y-axis: 20%-
 1232 100% data; x-axis: 1-10 epochs). We observe that even under the most stringent constraint (20%
 1233 data, 1 epoch), NeurIPS produces semantically coherent images that capture the gist of the stimulus.
 1234 As data and training time increase, the reconstructions progressively refine, recovering sharper de-
 1235 tails and more accurate textures. This confirms that our model effectively leverages the pre-learned
 1236 structure-function mapping to accelerate personalization.

1237

1238 **More Brain Structure Importance Results.** To verify that our SG-MoE router genuinely utilizes
 1239 anatomical information, we analyzed the feature attribution scores for the gating mechanism. In
 1240 Figure 6B of the main text, we presented the importance scores for Subject 1. Figure 11 extends this
 1241 analysis to all four subjects in the training cohort. Consistently across all subjects, we observe that
 1242 the router relies on a balanced combination of all four anatomical features—sulcal depth, curvature,
 1243 cortical thickness, and surface area—rather than overfitting to a single metric. This consistency
 1244 across individuals strongly supports our claim that the model has learned a generalizable, anatomy-
 1245 based rule for routing information, rather than memorizing subject-specific identities.

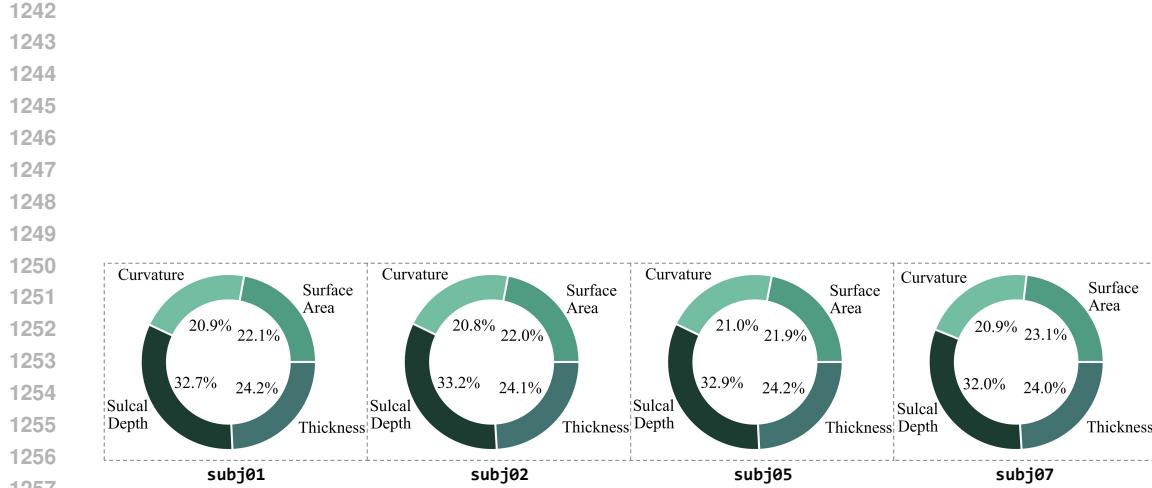


Figure 11: More analysis of cortical structural feature importance for different subjects.

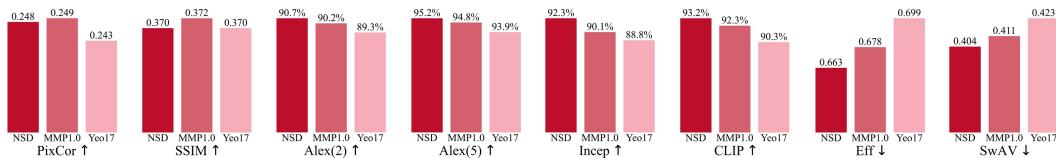


Figure 12: **Validation of the visual ROI parcellation scheme.** This figure compares the performance of our model when using three different visual Regions of Interest (ROIs) as the basis for the tokenizer. We evaluate our primary scheme, the functionally-defined NSD-General mask, against two standard anatomical atlases: HCP-MMP1.0 and Yeo17. The results show that the NSD-General parcellation consistently yields superior performance across all eight evaluation metrics. This validates our design choice and indicates that a task-aligned, functionally-defined ROI basis is more effective for image reconstruction than generic anatomical atlases.

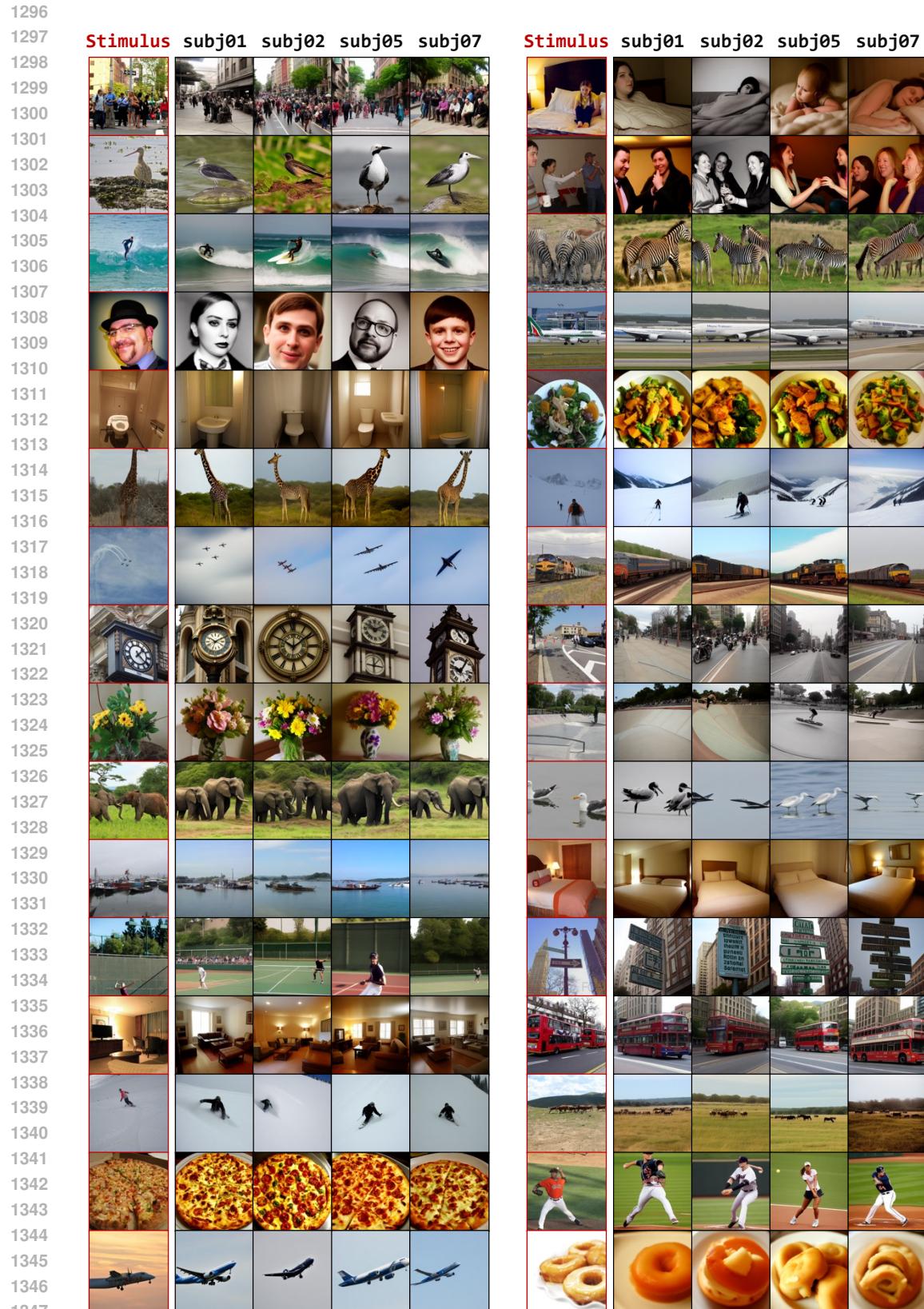


Figure 13: More visual reconstruction results for different subjects on NSD test.

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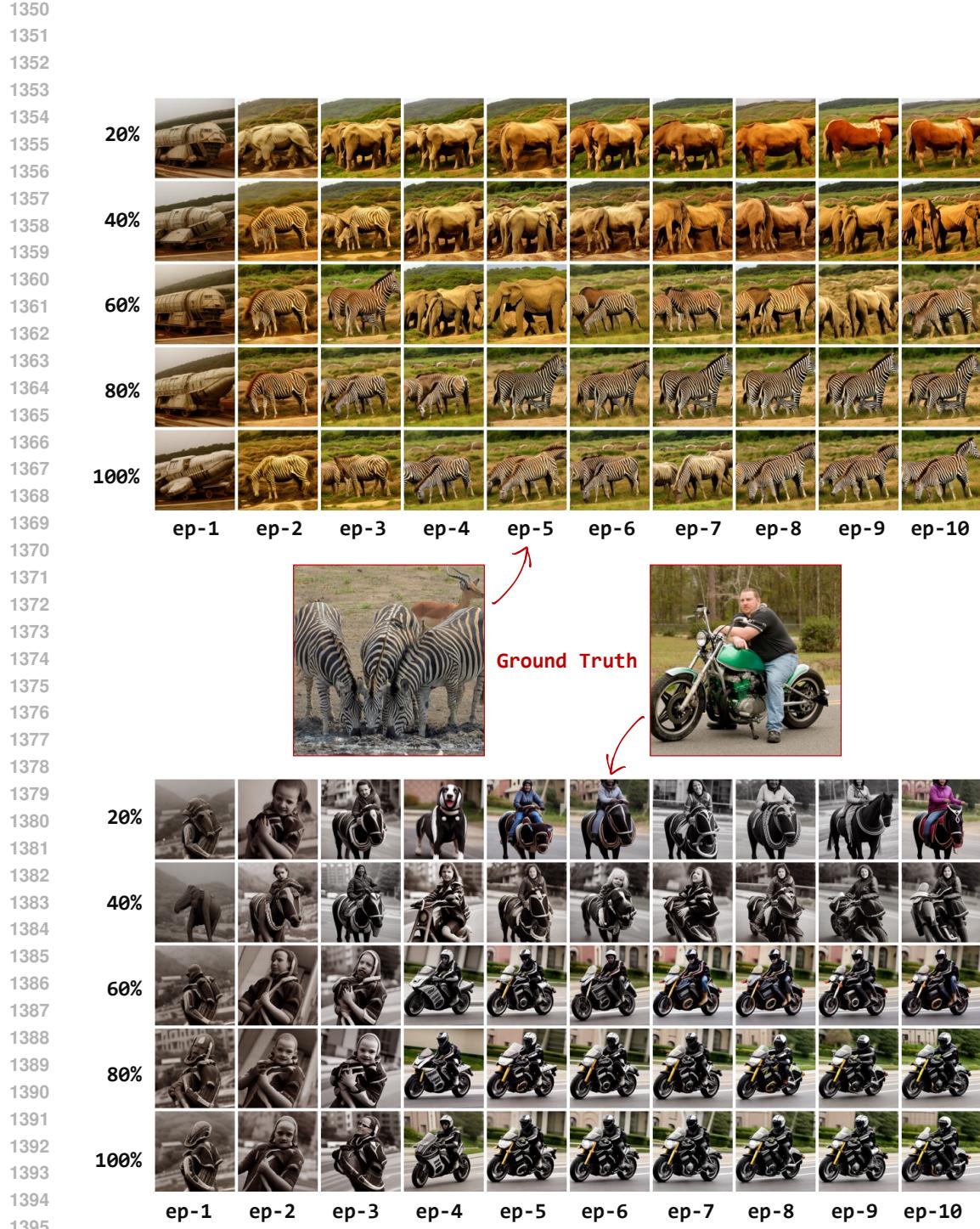


Figure 14: More visual reconstruction results for fine-tuning on NSD test. We pretrain the NeurIPS on three subjects (subj02, subj05, subj07) and fine-tune it on a completely new subject (subj01) under limited data (y -axis) and time constraints (x -axis). Overall, NeurIPS is able to achieve satisfactory reconstruction results under stringent constraints, demonstrating its strong cross-subject generalization ability and adaptability to new subjects.