

## The Neural Basis of Successful Word Reading in Aphasia

Rutgers University has made this article freely available. Please share how this access benefits you.  
Your story matters. [\[https://rucore.libraries.rutgers.edu/rutgers-lib/55887/story/\]](https://rucore.libraries.rutgers.edu/rutgers-lib/55887/story/)

This work is an **ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT (AM)**

This is the author's manuscript for a work that has been accepted for publication. Changes resulting from the publishing process, such as copyediting, final layout, and pagination, may not be reflected in this document. The publisher takes permanent responsibility for the work. Content and layout follow publisher's submission requirements.

Citation for this version and the definitive version are shown below.

**Citation to Publisher** Pillay, Sara B., Gross, William L., Graves, William W., Humphries, Colin, Book, Diane S. & Binder, Jeffrey R. (2017). The Neural Basis of Successful Word Reading in Aphasia. *Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience*, 1-12. [https://doi.org/10.1162/jocn\\_a\\_01214](https://doi.org/10.1162/jocn_a_01214).

**Citation to this Version:** Pillay, Sara B., Gross, William L., Graves, William W., Humphries, Colin, Book, Diane S. & Binder, Jeffrey R. (2017). The Neural Basis of Successful Word Reading in Aphasia. *Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience*, 1-12. Retrieved from [doi:10.7282/T3N58QJM](https://doi.org/10.7282/T3N58QJM).

**Terms of Use:** Copyright for scholarly resources published in RUcore is retained by the copyright holder. By virtue of its appearance in this open access medium, you are free to use this resource, with proper attribution, in educational and other non-commercial settings. Other uses, such as reproduction or republication, may require the permission of the copyright holder.

*Article begins on next page*

**The Neural Basis of Successful Word Reading in Aphasia**

Journal:	<i>Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience</i>
Manuscript ID	JOCN-2017-0233.R2
Manuscript Type:	Original
Date Submitted by the Author:	12-Nov-2017
Complete List of Authors:	Pillay, Sara; Medical College of Wisconsin, Neurology Gross, William; Medical College of Wisconsin, Neurology Graves, William; Rutgers The State University of New Jersey Humphries, Colin; Medical College of Wisconsin, Department of Neurology Book, Diane; Medical College of Wisconsin Binder, Jeffrey; Medical College of Wisconsin, Neurology;
Keywords:	Functional MRI, Stroke, Language: Phonology, Language: Semantics, Aphasia

Running Head: WORD READING IN APHASIA

## The Neural Basis of Successful Word Reading in Aphasia

Authors: Sara B. Pillay<sup>1</sup>, William L. Gross<sup>1</sup>, William W. Graves<sup>2</sup>, Colin Humphries<sup>1</sup>,  
Diane S. Book<sup>1</sup>, Jeffrey R. Binder<sup>1</sup>

Author Affiliations:

<sup>1</sup>Department of Neurology and the Center for Imaging Research, Medical College of  
Wisconsin, Milwaukee, WI 53226.

<sup>2</sup>Department of Psychology, Rutgers University, Newark, NJ, 07102

Corresponding Author:

Sara Pillay, PhD

Department of Neurology, Medical College of Wisconsin, 8701 Watertown Plank Rd.,  
Milwaukee, WI, 53226.

Phone: (414) 955-4481.

Email: [sapillay@mcw.edu](mailto:sapillay@mcw.edu)

Fax: (414) 456-6335.

Word count (body of manuscript) = 6,210

Abstract word count = 249

Title character count (including spaces) = 54

Table count = 3

Figure count = 4

**ABSTRACT**

Objective: Understanding the neural basis of recovery from stroke is a major research goal. Many functional neuroimaging studies have identified changes in brain activity in people with aphasia, but it is unclear whether these changes truly support successful performance or merely reflect increased task difficulty. We addressed this problem by examining differences in brain activity associated with correct and incorrect responses on an overt reading task. Based on previous proposals that semantic retrieval can assist pronunciation of written words, we hypothesized that recruitment of semantic areas would be greater on successful trials.

Methods: Participants were 21 left hemisphere stroke patients with phonologic retrieval deficits. They read words aloud during an event-related fMRI paradigm. Blood oxygen-level dependent (BOLD) signals obtained during correct and incorrect trials were contrasted to highlight brain activity specific to successful trials.

Results: Successful word reading was associated with higher BOLD signal in the left angular gyrus. In contrast, BOLD signal in bilateral posterior inferior frontal cortex, supplementary motor area, and anterior cingulate cortex was greater on incorrect trials.

Interpretation: These data show for the first time the brain regions where neural activity is correlated specifically with successful performance in people with aphasia. The angular gyrus is a key node in the semantic network, consistent with the hypothesis that additional recruitment of the semantic system contributes to successful word production when phonologic retrieval is impaired. Higher activity in other brain regions during incorrect trials likely reflects secondary engagement of attention, working memory, and error monitoring processes when phonologic retrieval is unsuccessful.

**Keywords:** reading, aphasia, fMRI, phonology, semantics

## WORD READING IN APHASIA

**INTRODUCTION**

Recovery of language functions after brain damage is often assumed to involve a degree of reorganization of neural processing, but this recovery mechanism is still not well understood. Despite a large number of functional neuroimaging studies documenting perilesional and contralesional activation in patients with aphasia during language tasks (e.g., Crosson et al., 2007; Fridriksson, Baker, & Moser, 2009; Hamilton, Chrysikou, & Coslett, 2011; Heiss, Kessler, Thiel, Ghaemi, & Karbe, 1999; Mohr et al., 2016; Saur et al., 2006; Thompson & den Ouden, 2008), there is continued debate about the nature of this activation and how it contributes to recovery (Crosson et al., 2007; Fridriksson, Richardson, Fillmore, & Cai, 2012; Gainotti, 2015; Geranmayeh, Brownsett, & Wise, 2014; Hillis, 2005; Lee, Zreik, & Hamilton, 2017; Price & Crinion, 2005; Turkeltaub et al., 2012). An inherent confounding factor in such studies is that the tasks used are likely to be more difficult for patients with brain damage than for healthy controls, therefore any additional activation in patients might simply reflect additional effort or recruitment of attention and working memory resources (Geranmayeh et al., 2014). Furthermore, it is unclear whether such recruitment necessarily improves performance, and there is even evidence that such activation can be a marker of poorer recovery (Martin et al., 2009; Naeser et al., 2004; Postman-Caucheteux et al., 2010; Rosen et al., 2000).

To address more directly the question of how neural activity enhances performance after stroke, we asked whether activation in patients is directly correlated with improved performance. Recovery of language after stroke is almost never an all-or-none phenomenon; instead, patients typically show partial recovery characterized by variable degrees of success across a set of trials. This trial-to-trial variability makes it possible to examine patterns of neural activity that are uniquely associated with correct and incorrect responses.

Performance-correlated brain activity has been explored only rarely in patients with aphasia. Fridriksson and colleagues (2009) compared fMRI signals during correct and incorrect responses on a picture naming task in 11 patients with aphasia. Although qualitative differences were reported between the correct and incorrect trial activation

## WORD READING IN APHASIA

maps obtained from contrasts with a low-level sensory control, no significant differences emerged when correct and incorrect responses were directly contrasted. This null result suggests that any difference in activation between correct and incorrect responses may be subtle. In addition, the sample of aphasia patients examined was small and had heterogenous behavioral profiles, thus power was likely reduced for finding a significant result (Fridriksson et al., 2009). Postman-Caucheteux et al. (2010) studied 3 patients with fMRI during picture naming, using a similar event-related analysis to compare activation during correct and incorrect responses. The authors observed relatively greater right frontal activation during incorrect responses, but no consistent areas of greater activation during correct trials. Lee et al. (2017) compared correct and incorrect trials during picture naming in a single patient with semantic deficits. In contrast to the right frontal activation reported by Postman-Caucheteux, error trials were associated with greater activation in the right superior temporal sulcus and supramarginal gyrus (Lee et al., 2017). Similar to the Postman-Caucheteux results, no areas showed greater activation during correct responses. These results are all in direct contrast to a single case study by Meinzer et al. (2006), who showed that correct responses on a similar picture naming task were associated with greater right frontal activation compared to incorrect responses.

The present study uses an overt word reading task to assess performance-correlated brain activity. We reasoned that this task might be more sensitive than picture naming for detecting adaptive brain reorganization because of the availability of alternative processing strategies for phonologic retrieval in the case of words. Whereas picture naming cannot proceed without activation of the concept (semantic representation) that the picture represents, word pronunciation is thought to involve only partial or optional activation of a semantic representation (Graves et al., 2014; Plaut, McClelland, Seidenberg, & Patterson, 1996). Strokes affecting the middle cerebral artery (MCA) territory very often damage perisylvian phonological processing networks while leaving semantic systems relatively intact (Pillay, Stengel, Humphries, Book, & Binder, 2014; Rapcsak et al., 2009; Ripamonti et al., 2014). We hypothesized, therefore, that in stroke patients with primarily phonologic system damage, the relatively preserved semantic network might play a role in facilitating word pronunciation. In some well-supported theories of word pronunciation, activation of a word's meaning (semantic representation)

## WORD READING IN APHASIA

1  
2  
3 is thought to provide additional information that can assist in retrieving a phonologic  
4 code (Plaut et al., 1996). Activation in undamaged regions of the semantic network  
5 (Binder, Desai, Graves, & Conant, 2009) was therefore predicted to be greater on trials in  
6 which pronunciation was successful compared to trials in which pronunciation was  
7 incorrect.  
8  
9  
10  
11

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

*Participants*

12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20 Participants were 21 chronic left hemisphere ischemic stroke patients (10 women, 11  
21 men) who demonstrated a residual phonologic retrieval deficit together with intact  
22 semantic processing. Participants were selected based on their behavioral deficit from a  
23 group of chronic aphasia patients enrolled prospectively in a larger study. All patients  
24 with this behavioral profile were eligible, regardless of where in the left hemisphere the  
25 lesion was located. To determine phonologic and semantic function, patients were tested  
26 on behavioral tasks (described below) prior to MRI scanning. Impaired phonologic  
27 processing was defined as a z-score less than -1.67 (critical value for bottom tail of  
28 distribution,  $p = .05$ ) on a pseudoword rhyme matching task, and intact semantic  
29 processing was defined as a z-score greater than -1.67 on a semantic matching task. Raw  
30 scores were transformed to z-scores based on performance data from 24 healthy, right-  
31 handed, age- and education-matched controls (mean age = 57.7 years, mean education =  
32 15 years).  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42

43 All patients were at least 180 days post-stroke, native English speakers, and pre-  
44 morbidly right-handed according to the Edinburgh Handedness Inventory handedness  
45 quotient ( $M = 84.0$ ,  $SD = 25.9$ ) (Oldfield, 1971). Lesions included 17 MCA infarcts, 2  
46 combined MCA/anterior cerebral artery infarcts, and 2 combined MCA/posterior cerebral  
47 artery infarcts. Demographic data for patients are listed in Table 1, and individual subject  
48 data are presented in Table 2. All patients provided written informed consent to  
49 participate and were enrolled prospectively under a protocol approved by the Medical  
50 College of Wisconsin Institutional Review Board and undertaken in accord with the  
51 Declaration of Helsinki.  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

## WORD READING IN APHASIA

*Screening Language Assessment*

Behavioral tasks were given to characterize key language abilities for inclusion in the study prior to fMRI scanning. The tasks were administered on a laptop computer connected to a touch-sensitive LCD monitor (ELO model 1522L) and programmed in the “LiveCode” environment (<https://livecode.com>). Testing occurred in a quiet clinic room. Participants initiated each trial by touching an empty green square on the computer screen.

To measure phonologic impairment, participants were asked to complete a 72-trial pseudoword rhyme matching task (Figure 1, left). On each trial, a sample pseudoword (e.g., *hoark*) was presented in the center of a computer display with two choice items (e.g., *lorque* and *rauke*) presented side by side below the sample. Subjects indicated via button press which of the two items rhymed with the sample. Trials were designed to take advantage of the fact that English has multiple possible spellings for the same sound (e.g., *vair* » *plare/shar*), enabling decoupling of phonologic similarity from orthographic similarity. All items had unambiguous (i.e., highly consistent) pronunciations.

To assess semantic processing, participants completed a 120-trial semantic picture matching task, similar to the “Camel and Cactus” test (Bozeat, Lambon Ralph, Patterson, Garrard, & Hodges, 2000) (Figure 1, right). This task required participants to select from two choices the item that was most similar to the sample picture (i.e., *eagle* » *robin* vs. *hawk*).

Patients also completed an 80-item picture-naming task described elsewhere (Pillay, Binder, Humphries, Gross, & Book, 2017). Results are provided in Table 2 to further characterize the aphasia severity in each patient, but were not used in the context of the present study and are not discussed further.

*Functional Imaging**fMRI Tasks*

Participants who met inclusion criteria on the language screening assessment then underwent an fMRI session, during which they performed an overt reading task with single words. Spoken responses were used because they allowed for definitive scoring of



## WORD READING IN APHASIA

1  
2  
3 responses and classification of correct and incorrect trials. Participants read aloud 72  
4 concrete nouns ranging in length from 4-6 characters. Imageability (ease of mental image  
5 retrieval, rated on a 1-7 scale (Cortese & Fugett, 2004) ranged from 3.66 to 6.43,  $M =$   
6 5.50. Written word frequency ranged from 8 to 260/million,  $M = 59$ /million (Baayen,  
7 Piepenbrock, & Gulikers, 1995). In addition to the reading trials, 72 fixation intervals  
8 were randomly dispersed among the trials to create a variable inter-stimulus interval for  
9 optimal fast event-related analysis.  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16

*Stimulus Presentation and Response Recording*

17  
18  
19 Timing and order of stimulus presentation was controlled with E-prime software and  
20 synchronized to MRI data acquisition. Standard 800 x 600 pixel RGB output was sent  
21 from a PC to an LCD video projector. Images were back-projected on a screen located  
22 240 cm from a prism lens mounted within the head coil just above the subject's eyes.  
23 Individual stimuli were presented in the center of a screen in white font on a black  
24 background and subtended a visual angle of 2.0-2.5°. Stimuli were presented for 2000  
25 milliseconds and followed by a fixation cross until the next stimulus. The mean trial  
26 duration was 6.58 seconds.  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33

34 Spoken responses were captured via a fiber-optic dual-channel noise-canceling  
35 microphone (FOMRI-III, Optoacoustics) positioned near the subject's mouth. Tones  
36 marking the onset of each trial (inaudible to the subject) were recorded on a second audio  
37 channel. Responses were then phonetically transcribed off-line for accuracy, response  
38 time, and error analyses. Responses were considered errors if the participant failed to  
39 produce a complete response or failed to produce a correct response. Incomplete or  
40 incorrect responses that were followed immediately by correct responses were counted as  
41 correct as long as the correct response occurred before the next trial. For completeness,  
42 error responses were also subclassified as omissions (i.e., no response or fragmentary  
43 utterance), phonologic paraphasias (i.e., phonologically related neologism or word),  
44 semantic paraphasias, or phonologically and semantically unrelated errors, though these  
45 error types were not separately analyzed in the fMRI analysis.  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54

55 Word reading is often a challenging task for people with aphasia, and becomes more  
56 challenging when coupled with performing in an unfamiliar fMRI environment with  
57  
58  
59  
60

## WORD READING IN APHASIA

constraints on available response time. Functional neuroimaging measurements are sensitive to response time, working memory, and attentional effort (Binder, Medler, Desai, Conant, & Liebenthal, 2005), and the use of an overt production task permits collection of response times for assessment of overall trial difficulty. A custom Matlab script was used to estimate RT, from stimulus onset to response onset, for each trial in each subject. Each auditory waveform and response onset marker was visually inspected for accuracy and manually adjusted as needed. These RT data were incorporated directly into the image analysis in an attempt to delineate brain areas modulated by task difficulty (Binder, Medler, et al., 2005). Two patients did not have RT data available due to error in collecting stimulus onset times, reducing the  $n$  to 19 for this additional analysis.

### *MRI Acquisition*

All fMRI data were acquired at 3T using a GE Excite whole-body scanner. Four patients were scanned with a 32-channel head coil. The remaining participants were scanned with an 8-channel head coil. A gradient-echo, echo-planar imaging (EPI) sequence (flip angle =  $77^\circ$ , TE = 25 ms, TR = 2000 ms, NEX = 1, FOV = 192 cm, matrix = 64 x 64, slice thickness = 3 mm, inter-slice gap = 0.5 mm, 36 axial slices) was used for isotropic (3 x 3 x 3mm) whole-brain fMRI data acquisition. Head movement was monitored during scanning using real-time image registration. High resolution T1-weighted anatomical reference images were obtained using a spoiled gradient-recalled (SPGR) sequence (flip =  $12^\circ$ , TE = MinFull, T1 (prep) = 450 ms, TR = 8.2 ms, NEX = 1, voxels 1.0 x 1.0 x 1.0 mm, 162 axial slices).

### *Lesion Tracing and Template Registration*

Lesioned areas were identified using a semi-automated procedure to create an individual lesion map for each patient (Pillay et al., 2014). Each patient's anatomical image and associated lesion map were then morphed to a stereotaxic template ("Colin N27") using 3dQwarp, a nonlinear registration routine in the Analysis of Functional NeuroImages (AFNI) software package (<https://afni.nimh.nih.gov>). The registration included constrained cost-function masking using the lesion volume as a mask, and resampling to a nominal 1x1x1 mm voxel grid. The parameters used for warping each individual's

## WORD READING IN APHASIA

1  
2  
3 anatomy to the template were then applied to the functional images. This nonlinear  
4 registration process corrects for anatomical distortions that are common after focal brain  
5 damage, particularly local ventricular enlargement. The group lesion overlap map is  
6 presented in Figure 2.  
7  
8  
9

*FMRI Data Analysis*

10  
11  
12 Image processing and statistical analyses were performed using AFNI software.  
13  
14 Preprocessing steps included slice timing correction and image registration. For each  
15 subject, the first four images in each time series were discarded prior to regression  
16 analysis to avoid saturation effects. Translation and rotation parameters, estimated during  
17 registration, were saved for use as noise covariates. EPI volumes were then registered to  
18 the T1 anatomical image using a modality-specific cost function based on weighted local  
19 Pearson coefficients (Saad et al., 2009) using the AFNI script “align\_epi\_anat.py”.  
20 Images contaminated by large artifacts, such as motion, were detected automatically  
21 using regression techniques built into the AFNI program “3dToutcount” and censored  
22 from the analysis. No data sets required censoring of more than 10% of the images (mean  
23 percent censored = 3.78, SD = 2.11).  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32

33  
34 BOLD signal changes were analyzed with a multiple linear regression model using  
35 the AFNI program 3dDeconvolve. Stimulus regressors were created for each task  
36 condition, convolved with a canonical gamma variate hemodynamic response function.  
37 Six motion vectors computed during image registration were included as covariates of no  
38 interest, along with an additional covariate from signal in the ventricles to estimate  
39 speech movement artifact (Graves, Grabowski, Mehta, & Gordon, 2007). A Gaussian  
40 kernel of 5 mm FWHM was used for smoothing prior to the regression analysis.  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45

46  
47 *Group Contrasts.* The contrast of interest was between words that were read  
48 successfully and words that elicited errors (Correct - Error), which specifically identifies  
49 brain activity correlated with successful performance. Due to variable patient  
50 performance, and therefore unequal numbers of trials in each condition across patients, it  
51 was necessary to determine the lower limit of trials acceptable for subject inclusion in the  
52 analysis. As the number of trials for a particular condition (correct or incorrect)  
53 decreases, the reliability of the corresponding parameter estimate also decreases (i.e., the  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

## WORD READING IN APHASIA

standard deviation of the estimate increases). Increasing the criterion for minimum trial number, however, reduces power at the group level because of the reduction in number of subjects who meet criteria. Model quality for a given combination of minimum trial number and group sample size can be determined by inverting the regressor matrix and taking the standard deviation of the resulting values. In formal terms, the linear regression model for this analysis is given by:  $y = X\beta + \varepsilon$  where  $y$  = the measured response,  $X$  = the design matrix,  $\beta$  = vector of unknown parameters, and  $\varepsilon$  = measurement error. The least squares estimate of  $\beta$  is given by:  $b = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T y$ , and the variance of the parameter estimate is estimated by:  $s^2(b) = \text{MSE}(X^T X)^{-1}$  where MSE is the mean square error, a scalar that estimates the error measurement variance. The standard deviation for a particular element of the  $b$  vector,  $s(b_k)$ , is given by the square root of the corresponding diagonal element of the  $s^2(b)$  matrix. If the measurement variance is assumed to be constant across experimental designs, then  $s^2(b)$  is a function of the structure of  $X$  alone, allowing computation of a normalized standard deviation (nSD) for each experimental design (i.e., each combination of minimum trial number criterion and resulting group sample size). Minimizing this nSD produces the most reliable final parameter estimates (Ward, 2006). Using this method, nSD was calculated by setting a minimum trial number criterion and using the observed distribution of trial numbers in the real data to determine the resulting group sample size. This procedure was repeated over a range of minimum trial number criteria. A minimum of 2 time points for subject inclusion was determined to be optimal for minimizing nSD and thus maximizing the reliability of the parameter estimates and power at the group level. Thus, patients were included in the analysis if they made at least 2 error responses.

The result of this simulation may seem surprising, given that a sample of 2 trials would be very unlikely to yield a reliable activation map at the individual subject level. The crucial point here is that there is a direct trade-off between minimum number of trials allowed and sample size at the group level. The simulation indicates that sample size at the group level has a much larger effect than power at the individual subject level on power at the group level. The majority of the sample (62%) made more than 10 error responses. Two patients made just 2 error responses, yet the simulation suggests that power at the group level is enhanced when these patients are included. To test this

## WORD READING IN APHASIA

prediction, we repeated the main contrast between correct and incorrect trials but included only patients with at least 10 errors, which reduced the sample size to 13 patients. The results were similar, however, they did not survive significance, likely due to reduced power.

Patients were selected for inclusion if they had a phonologic access deficit and relatively preserved semantic store. We hypothesized that the preserved semantic network may play a role in facilitating word production (Plaut et al., 1996), and that activation in undamaged regions of the semantic network may be greater for correct trials than incorrect trials. The overlap between the thresholded Correct – Error activation map and semantic regions identified in a previous meta-analysis (Binder et al., 2009) was examined to determine whether patients engaged semantic regions more for correct than incorrect trials.

Two additional analyses were completed in an effort to reduce variance due to individual factors. In the first, the phonologic impairment z-score for each patient was included as a covariate to remove variation correlated with impairment severity. In theory, the severity of phonologic impairment might systematically modulate the degree of compensatory activation in undamaged brain regions, thus adding between-participant variance. Controlling for this factor might enhance detection of activation that is independent of severity level. In the second analysis, lesioned tissue was excluded on a voxel-wise basis from the group-level *t*-test. That is, the group-level *t*-test at each voxel included only the subset of patients who did not have a lesion involving the voxel. Presumably this reduces variance at each voxel resulting from the presence or absence of a lesion, which may improve sensitivity despite the smaller sample size at some voxels. This method results in the degrees of freedom varying across voxels, depending on the group level lesion burden (e.g., a voxel in the center of the left insula would have fewer degrees of freedom because it is more likely to be lesioned than a voxel in the left occipital lobe). Each voxel was thresholded, however, to the same alpha level ( $p < .01$ ).

Finally, the RTs on each trial (including error trials) were included in a regression model, after normalization of the RT values, to account for variance due solely to time on task, a presumed marker of task difficulty. Separate RT maps were created for correct and incorrect conditions, and these maps were then combined within subjects so that the

## WORD READING IN APHASIA

1  
2  
3 resulting RT map captured variance independent of condition. As there were different  
4 numbers of trials in each condition, within-subject RT maps were weighted by the  
5 number of trials per condition before being averaged.  
6  
7

8  
9 All contrasts were first computed at the individual subject level. Beta coefficient  
10 maps for these contrast maps (registered to the common template space) were then  
11 analyzed with a single-sample  $t$ -test at the group level. Activation maps were thresholded  
12 at voxel-wise  $p < .01$  and minimum cluster size of 1609  $\mu\text{l}$ , corresponding to a whole  
13 brain  $p < 0.05$ . The whole brain probability was derived from Monte Carlo simulations  
14 using simulated data. Spatial smoothing was applied to the simulated data using a model  
15 composed of a Gaussian and mono-exponential function, which was fit to the residual  
16 dataset from the regression analysis (using 3dFWHMx in AFNI). The addition of the  
17 mono-exponential function to the Gaussian model was performed to address the  
18 increased false positive rates found when using a Gaussian model alone (Cox, Chen,  
19 Glen, Reynolds, & Taylor, 2017; Eklund, Nichols, & Knutsson, 2016).  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29

**RESULTS***Task performance*

30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35 Performance on the two behavioral measures completed outside the MRI environment are  
36 reported in Table 1. Across all patients, semantic matching performance ( $M = 93.8$ ,  $SD =$   
37  $1.7$ ) was significantly better than pseudoword rhyme matching performance ( $M = 67.5$ ,  
38  $SD = 14.1$ ), as prescribed by the inclusion criteria. Patients performed worse than  
39 controls on the pseudoword rhyme matching task ( $t(37) = -7.89$ ,  $p < .001$ ), but did not  
40 perform differently from controls on the semantic matching task, ( $t(37) = -1.43$ ,  $p = .16$ ).  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45

46 Mean accuracy on the fMRI word reading task was 75.9% ( $SD = 20.4$ ). The number  
47 of errors ranged from 2 (2.8%) to 52 (72.2%). Words read correctly were significantly  
48 more imageable ( $M = 5.56$ ,  $SD = 0.06$ ) than words read incorrectly ( $M = 5.14$ ,  $SD =$   
49  $0.28$ ;  $p < .001$ ). In addition, words read correctly had higher frequencies ( $M = 64.2$ ,  $SD =$   
50  $3.3$ ) than words read incorrectly ( $M = 41.2$ ,  $SD = 13.1$ ;  $p < .001$ ). The majority of errors  
51 were phonologically related to the target item ( $M = 10.4$ ,  $SD = 8.2$ ), followed by errors  
52 that were unrelated to the target item ( $M = 3.7$ ,  $SD = 6.7$ ). Semantically related errors  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

## WORD READING IN APHASIA

1  
2  
3 were rare ( $M = 1.7$ ,  $SD = 1.4$ ), as were omissions ( $M = 1.4$ ,  $SD = 2.2$ ). Reading accuracy  
4 was not correlated with age, education, gender, or days-post-onset. Individual patient  
5 performances are shown in Table 2.  
6  
7

8  
9 Mean RT on the reading task was 1291 ms ( $SD = 380$ ) across all trials. Correct  
10 responses ( $M = 1228$  ms,  $SD = 356$ ) were faster than incorrect responses ( $M = 1362$  ms,  
11  $SD = 399$ ), but this difference was not statistically significant ( $p = .469$ ). Across  
12 participants, mean RT for correct trials was negatively correlated with reading accuracy  
13 ( $r = -.50$ ,  $p = .03$ ).  
14  
15  
16  
17

*FMRI results*

18  
19  
20 Stereotaxic coordinates of activation peaks are listed in Table 3. Areas that were  
21 differentially engaged during successful and unsuccessful reading are shown in Figure  
22 3A. The left angular gyrus (AG) was more active for correct word trials (Correct >  
23 Error). In contrast, four regions were more active for incorrect word trials (Error >  
24 Correct). The largest of these were located bilaterally in the supplementary motor area  
25 (SMA) and dorsal anterior cingulate gyrus. The other two clusters involved similar  
26 regions in the right and left posterior inferior frontal cortex, extending from the inferior  
27 precentral gyrus to the pars opercularis of the inferior frontal gyrus (IFG). On the right  
28 side this cluster extended farther ventrally into the anterior insula.  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36

37 Brain areas modulated by RT regardless of stimulus condition are shown in Figure  
38 3B. Several regions identified in the Error > Correct contrast also showed positive  
39 correlations with time on task, including the SMA and dorsal anterior cingulate cortex  
40 bilaterally, the right posterior IFG and precentral gyrus, and the right anterior insula.  
41 Other areas modulated by RT included the right central sulcus, bilateral mid-cingulate  
42 and posterior cingulate gyrus, bilateral cuneus and lingual gyrus, and bilateral thalamus.  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47 No areas were negatively correlated with RT.  
48

49 To assess the relationship between the left AG area activated during successful  
50 reading and areas previously identified with semantic processing, the Correct – Error  
51 activation map was overlapped with a meta-analysis map of regions activated by  
52 semantic contrasts in healthy participants (Binder et al., 2009). As shown in Figure 4, the  
53 left AG region associated with correct reading performance in patients overlapped  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

## WORD READING IN APHASIA

1  
2  
3 completely with the previously identified semantic network, while only a minute portion  
4 of the Error > Correct map overlapped with semantic areas in the left IFG.  
5  
6

7 Inclusion of phonological impairment z-score as a covariate at the group level had no  
8 notable effect on the results. Similarly, exclusion of lesioned voxels, which constrains the  
9 analysis at each voxel to only those patients who do not have a lesion at the voxel, did not  
10 noticeably change the results.  
11  
12  
13

**DISCUSSION**

14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19 This study shows for the first time the brain regions where neural activity is correlated  
20 specifically with successful word reading in people with aphasia. By contrasting the brain  
21 states present during correct and incorrect responses, the analysis distinguishes activation  
22 supporting successful phonologic retrieval from non-specific activation related to  
23 increased effort. Activation associated with correct word reading responses was located  
24 in the left AG. In contrast, activation associated with incorrect responses was located  
25 mainly in regions linked with attention and working memory processes (Binder, Medler,  
26 et al., 2005; Hampshire, Chamberlain, Monti, Duncan, & Owen, 2010; Owen, McMillan,  
27 Laird, & Bullmore, 2005), including bilateral SMA and dorsal anterior cingulate gyrus,  
28 posterior IFG and precentral gyrus, and anterior insula.  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36

37 The left AG has been strongly implicated in semantic processing in healthy  
38 participants, and was the most consistently activated region in a meta-analysis of 120  
39 functional imaging studies using semantic task contrasts (Binder et al., 2009). The left  
40 AG has also been linked with semantic processing during reading tasks in healthy  
41 controls, showing positive modulatory effects of imageability (Binder, Medler, et al.,  
42 2005; Binder, Westbury, McKiernan, Possing, & Medler, 2005; Graves, Desai,  
43 Humphries, Seidenberg, & Binder, 2010) and word frequency (Graves et al., 2010;  
44 Prabhakaran, Blumstein, Myers, Hutchison, & Britton, 2006). Word imageability (the  
45 ease with which a word evokes an associated mental image) has a weak facilitatory effect  
46 on RT in overt reading tasks (Balota, Cortese, Sergent-Marshall, Spieler, & Yap, 2004;  
47 Strain, Patterson, & Seidenberg, 1995; Woollams, 2005), suggesting that retrieving word  
48 meaning can speed computation of phonology. This idea is made explicit in the "triangle  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60



## WORD READING IN APHASIA

1  
2  
3 model" of word reading, in which phonologic units receive input from both orthographic  
4 and semantic representations (Plaut et al., 1996). Graves et al. (2014) showed that the  
5 degree to which healthy participants access semantic information in reading aloud, as  
6 indexed by the size of their imageability facilitation effect, is correlated with the volume  
7 of the white matter pathway connecting left AG with the posterior left superior temporal  
8 gyrus, a region implicated in phonologic retrieval (Graves, Grabowski, Mehta, & Gupta,  
9 2008; Pillay et al., 2014). Together, these computational and empirical studies suggest  
10 that activation of semantic information can facilitate phonologic retrieval in healthy  
11 readers, and that one neurobiological mechanism for this facilitation is input from the left  
12 AG to the perisylvian phonologic system. Other ancillary support for this model comes  
13 from a performance-based study in healthy subjects examining neural activity for naming  
14 famous faces, in which activation in the left AG (Talairach coordinates -42, -56, 47;  
15 Euclidean distance from peak AG point in the present study = 6 mm) was associated with  
16 greater activation for correct compared to incorrect naming (Gesierich et al., 2012),  
17 suggesting that increased semantic access for proper nouns also boosts phonologic  
18 retrieval.

19  
20  
21 The present results are consistent with this "semantic boost" mechanism in two ways.  
22 First, the left AG was more active when correct responses were produced, suggesting that  
23 phonologic retrieval was facilitated by AG activation. Second, correctly pronounced  
24 words were, on average, higher in imageability and frequency than incorrectly  
25 pronounced words. These factors index the ease with which word meaning is retrieved  
26 (Binder, Westbury, et al., 2005; Graves et al., 2010; Monsell, Doyle, & Haggard, 1989;  
27 Paivio, 1990). Thus, the results suggest that phonologic retrieval in chronic aphasia is  
28 more likely when word meaning is successfully activated.

29  
30  
31 Although we have interpreted the left AG activation as reflecting more extensive  
32 semantic retrieval during correct trials, an alternative possibility is that this region was  
33 more extensively deactivated during incorrect trials. The concept of deactivation refers to  
34 a relative decrease in neural activity compared to a putative baseline "resting" state,  
35 however it is now widely accepted that the condition called "resting" is actually a  
36 cognitively active state involving "mind wandering", reactivation of episodic memories,  
37 future planning, and other mental activities that require complex semantic processing  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

## WORD READING IN APHASIA

(Andrews-Hanna, Saxe, & Yarkoni, 2014; Binder et al., 1999, 2009; Buckner, Andrews-Hanna, & Schacter, 2008; Mason et al., 2007; McKiernan, D'Angelo, Kaufman, & Binder, 2006; Smallwood & Schooler, 2006; Spreng & Grady, 2010). Deactivations in fMRI studies represent, at least in part, an interruption of these ongoing conceptual processes, and it is therefore possible that purported differences in activation between stimulus conditions in the left AG instead reflect differences in deactivation, without the need to postulate differences in semantic processing of the stimuli. Given the low temporal resolution of BOLD fMRI measurements, this method cannot distinguish between deactivation followed by different degrees of activation versus different degrees of initial deactivation. We believe the latter model is unlikely for several reasons. First, the postulated mechanism underlying variation in deactivation is variation in time-on-task. That is, a longer processing time would be expected to cause longer interruption of ongoing conceptual processes, and a larger decrease in the BOLD signal after integration of the signal over time. In contrast to this prediction, we observed no areas where BOLD signal was negatively correlated with RT. This result is consistent with other fMRI studies of single word reading that found little or no negative correlation between RT and BOLD signal, even for RT variations spanning hundreds of milliseconds (Binder, Medler, et al., 2005; Binder, Westbury, et al., 2005; Graves et al., 2010). This evidence suggests that, at least on the time scale of a single-word reading task, variation in difficulty is not associated with variation in the degree of deactivation. A second weakness of the alternative model is that it offers no alternative account of why some trials lead to successful phonological retrieval. If anything, greater suppression of "default mode" activity has been reported to *improve* stimulus processing rather than the converse (Esterman, Noonan, Rosenberg, & Degutis, 2013; Smallwood & Schooler, 2006; Weissman, Roberts, Visscher, & Woldorff, 2006). Finally, the alternative model offers no account of how differences in imageability and word frequency between successful and unsuccessful trials affect brain activation or phonologic retrieval.

To our knowledge, the only previous report of enhanced brain activation during correct compared to incorrect responses in chronic aphasia was the single case studied by Meinzer et al. (2006). Correct picture naming in that case was associated with greater activation in the right IFG, with the strongest effects in the anterior IFG (pars orbitalis).

## WORD READING IN APHASIA

1  
2  
3 The results thus differ from the present study in linking correct response activation to an  
4 entirely different region (right IFG vs. left AG) and in the direction of the effect observed  
5 in right IFG (stronger for correct responses in Meinzer et al. vs. stronger for error  
6 responses in the present study). Several factors could account for the conflicting findings.  
7 Unlike reading aloud, picture naming necessarily requires selection of a lexical label  
8 from competing alternatives prior to phonologic retrieval. The left anterior IFG has been  
9 linked with lexical selection in a number of fMRI studies (Badre, Poldrack, Paré-  
10 Blagoev, Insler, & Wagner, 2005; Thompson-Schill, D'Esposito, Aguirre, & Farah, 1997;  
11 Wagner, Paré-Blagoev, Clark, & Poldrack, 2001). Thus, right anterior IFG activation  
12 during picture naming could reflect a transfer of this selection mechanism to the right  
13 IFG in this patient. Another factor is that the current study is a composite or general  
14 result derived from a large sample of patients, thus the results capture effects that are  
15 common across individuals in the sample. It is possible that the right IFG effect observed  
16 by Meinzer et al. reflected the particular lesion pattern or premorbid language  
17 organization of their patient, and it is unknown whether this effect would be reliable  
18 across a sample. Finally, the region of right IFG implicated in the two studies is different,  
19 in that the positive effects observed by Meinzer et al. were in the anterior aspect of the  
20 gyrus, whereas the negative effects we observed were in the posterior IFG and precentral  
21 gyrus. Thus, different segments of the right IFG may have different functions in chronic  
22 aphasia recovery.

23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39 The results of our Error > Correct comparison are in general agreement with another  
40 previous performance-based fMRI study by Postman-Caucheteux and colleagues (2010),  
41 which used an overt picture naming task. Similar to our results, these authors observed  
42 activation associated with error responses in a region of the posterior right IFG in 3  
43 patients with aphasia from left MCA stroke. Together, these results suggest that posterior  
44 right IFG activation in chronic aphasia may be a marker of effort rather than a neural  
45 correlate of successful phonologic system reorganization. Several lines of evidence  
46 provide further support for this suggestion. First, the right IFG has been implicated in  
47 working memory and cognitive control processes in many prior functional imaging  
48 studies of healthy participants (Aron, Robbins, & Poldrack, 2014; Hampshire et al., 2010;  
49 Owen et al., 2005; White et al., 2014). Second, the same posterior right IFG region  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

## WORD READING IN APHASIA

1  
2  
3 associated with error responses in the present study also showed a positive correlation  
4 with time on task, suggesting sensitivity to item difficulty. This region has also shown  
5 positive correlations with RT in several prior reading studies in healthy participants  
6 (Binder, Medler, et al., 2005; Binder, Westbury, et al., 2005; Graves et al., 2010; Taylor,  
7 Rastle, & Davis, 2014). Third, suppression of the right IFG with transcranial magnetic  
8 stimulation has been shown to produce improved picture naming ability in people with  
9 chronic aphasia (Naeser et al., 2011), suggesting that activation in the right inferior  
10 frontal cortex represents maladaptive effort or maladaptive reorganization of search and  
11 selection processes when left perilesional areas are insufficient (Hillis, 2005).

12  
13  
14 In addition to the right posterior IFG, several other areas showed stronger activation  
15 during error responses, and most of these were also positively correlated with time on  
16 task. All of these regions, including the left posterior IFG, right anterior insula, bilateral  
17 precentral gyrus, bilateral SMA, and bilateral anterior cingulate gyrus, have been  
18 implicated in attention and cognitive control processes (i.e., working memory, selection,  
19 decision, error monitoring) (Owen et al., 2005), and all have shown positive correlations  
20 with RT in previous reading studies in healthy controls (Binder, Medler, et al., 2005;  
21 Binder, Westbury, et al., 2005; Graves et al., 2010; Taylor et al., 2014). Thus it is likely  
22 that during trials resulting in incorrect responses, patients were searching for and  
23 attempting to access the correct phonologic code for the target word. However, due to  
24 their phonologic system damage, they were unable to retrieve a correct or complete code,  
25 resulting in prolonged or enhanced activation of attention and search processes.

26  
27  
28 A critical feature of the present study was the selection of patients with a similar  
29 processing deficit, i.e., impaired phonology and preserved semantic access. Interactive  
30 models of language such as the triangle model predict entirely different patterns of  
31 compensation in patients with phonologic vs. semantic deficits. Initial evidence for this  
32 prediction comes from an fMRI study by Wilson et al. (2009) of 5 patients with semantic  
33 dementia. The authors observed a trend toward greater activation of the anterior parietal  
34 phonologic network when patients made regularization errors in reading irregular words  
35 (e.g., reading *sew* as "soo") than during correct responses. They proposed that the  
36 semantic impairment in their patients led to compensatory recruitment of the intact  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

## WORD READING IN APHASIA

1  
2  
3 phonologic system, which is the opposite pattern from our patients with phonologic  
4  
5 damage.

6  
7 The evidence that semantic system activation can "boost" phonologic retrieval in  
8  
9 people with phonologic system damage has important potential therapeutic implications.  
10 Specifically, this model suggests that re-training of the phonologic system might be  
11 enhanced by exercises that require explicit retrieval of word meaning along with  
12 phonology. One such therapeutic intervention that has been used to boost semantic  
13 access is called Semantic Feature Analysis (SFA). In SFA, patients are prompted with  
14 questions that provide information about distinctive semantic features associated with a  
15 target, with the goal of improving word retrieval by strengthening connections between  
16 the target and the semantic network (Rider, Wright, Marshall, & Page, 2008). SFA has  
17 been shown to improve word retrieval in patients with fluent aphasia, who generally have  
18 phonologic access impairments due to posterior perisylvian lesions (Boyle, 2004; Coelho,  
19 McHugh, & Boyle, 2000; Kiran & Thompson, 2003). Recruitment of the left inferior  
20 parietal lobule is correlated with improved behavioral outcome following SFA (Marcotte  
21 et al., 2012), and damage to the same region results in fewer treatment-related  
22 improvements in anomia compared to patients for whom this region is intact (Fridriksson,  
23 2010). The novel finding of the current study showing reliable localization of the relevant  
24 semantic activation to the left AG provides a potential target for neural enhancement  
25 approaches such as transcranial direct current stimulation given simultaneously with such  
26 therapy.

27  
28 One caveat concerning this model is that the left AG activation supporting correct  
29 responses might represent enhanced *phonologic* processing rather than enhanced  
30 semantic processing. It is possible, that is, that the damaged phonologic system has  
31 simply "expanded" into nearby AG cortex. Correct responses would then be attributed to  
32 phonologic processing in this "recruited" cortex rather than to semantic mediation.  
33 Although possible, this model provides no account of why words read correctly in the  
34 present study tend to be more imageable, a finding that clearly links the underlying  
35 activation with retrieval of word meaning.

## Acknowledgment

56  
57  
58  
59  
60

## WORD READING IN APHASIA

1  
2  
3 We thank the participants for their contribution and time, Dr. David Medler for assistance  
4 with experimental design, and B. Douglas Ward for consultation regarding fMRI  
5 analysis. This study was supported by grants from the NIH National Institute of  
6 Neurological Disorders and Stroke (R01 NS033576, R01 DC003681, R03 NS054958) to  
7 J.R.B., and by an award from the American Heart Association (13PRE16510003) to  
8 S.B.P.  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13

14  
15  
16 **Authorship:** SBP, WLG, WWG, and JRB contibuted to the design and  
17 conceptualization of the study, analysis and interpretation of the data, and drafting and  
18 revising the manuscript. CH contibuted to the analysis of the data and revising the  
19 manuscript. DSB contibuted to the design and conceptualization of the study and  
20 revision of the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26

27 **Potential Conflicts of Interest:** SBP was supported by a grant from the AHA. JRB  
28 and WWG were supported by grants from the NIH.  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

## WORD READING IN APHASIA

## Works Cited

- 1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8 Andrews-Hanna, J. R., Saxe, R., & Yarkoni, T. (2014). Contributions of episodic  
9 retrieval and mentalizing to autobiographical thought: Evidence from  
10 functional neuroimaging, resting-state connectivity, and fMRI meta-analyses.  
11 *NeuroImage*, *91*, 324–335.  
12 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2014.01.032>  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20 Aron, A. R., Robbins, T. W., & Poldrack, R. A. (2014). Inhibition and the right inferior  
21 frontal cortex: One decade on. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, *18*(4), 177–185.  
22 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tics.2013.12.003>  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28 Baayen, R. H., Piepenbrock, R., & Gulikers, L. (1995). *The CELEX lexical database*.  
29 Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania.  
30  
31  
32 Badre, D., Poldrack, R. A., Paré-Blagoev, E. J., Insler, R. Z., & Wagner, A. D. (2005).  
33 Dissociable controlled retrieval and generalized selection mechanisms in  
34 ventrolateral prefrontal cortex. *Neuron*, *47*(6), 907–918.  
35 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2005.07.023>  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42 Balota, D. A., Cortese, M. J., Sergent-Marshall, S. D., Spieler, D. H., & Yap, M. J. (2004).  
43 Visual word recognition of single-syllable words. *Journal of Experimental*  
44 *Psychology: General*, *133*(2), 283–316. [https://doi.org/10.1037/0096-](https://doi.org/10.1037/0096-3445.133.2.283)  
45 [3445.133.2.283](https://doi.org/10.1037/0096-3445.133.2.283)  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52 Binder, J. R., Desai, R. H., Graves, W. W., & Conant, L. L. (2009). Where is the semantic  
53 system? A critical review and meta-analysis of 120 functional neuroimaging  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

## WORD READING IN APHASIA

- 1  
2  
3 studies. *Cerebral Cortex*, 19(12), 2767–2796.  
4  
5  
6 <https://doi.org/10.1093/cercor/bhp055>  
7
- 8 Binder, J. R., Frost, J. A., Hammeke, T. A., Bellgowan, P. S. F., Rao, S. M., & Cox, R. W.  
9  
10 (1999). Conceptual processing during the conscious resting state: A  
11  
12 functional MRI study. *Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience*, 11(1), 80–93.  
13  
14 <https://doi.org/10.1162/089892999563265>  
15  
16
- 17 Binder, J. R., Medler, D. A., Desai, R., Conant, L. L., & Liebenthal, E. (2005). Some  
18  
19 neurophysiological constraints on models of word naming. *NeuroImage*,  
20  
21 27(3), 677–693. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2005.04.029>  
22  
23  
24
- 25 Binder, J. R., Westbury, C. F., McKiernan, K. A., Possing, E. T., & Medler, D. A. (2005).  
26  
27 Distinct brain systems for processing concrete and abstract concepts. *Journal*  
28  
29 *of Cognitive Neuroscience*, 17(6), 905–917.  
30  
31
- 32 Boyle, M. (2004). Semantic feature analysis treatment for anomia in two fluent  
33  
34 aphasia syndromes. *American Journal of Speech-Language Pathology*, 13(3),  
35  
36 236–249. [https://doi.org/10.1044/1058-0360\(2004/025\)](https://doi.org/10.1044/1058-0360(2004/025))  
37  
38
- 39 Bozeat, S., Lambon Ralph, M. A., Patterson, K., Garrard, P., & Hodges, J. R. (2000).  
40  
41 Non-verbal semantic impairment in semantic dementia. *Neuropsychologia*,  
42  
43 38(9), 1207–1215. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0028-3932\(00\)00034-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0028-3932(00)00034-8)  
44  
45
- 46 Buckner, R. L., Andrews-Hanna, J. R., & Schacter, D. L. (2008). The brain's default  
47  
48 network. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*, 1124(1), 1–38.  
49  
50 <https://doi.org/10.1196/annals.1440.011>  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60



## WORD READING IN APHASIA

- 1  
2  
3  
4 Coelho, C. A., McHugh, R. E., & Boyle, M. (2000). Semantic feature analysis as a  
5  
6 treatment for aphasic dysnomia: A replication. *Aphasiology*, *14*(2), 133–142.  
7  
8 <https://doi.org/10.1080/026870300401513>  
9
- 10  
11 Cortese, M. J., & Fugett, A. (2004). Imageability ratings for 3,000 monosyllabic  
12  
13 words. *Behavior Research Methods, Instruments, & Computers*, *36*(3), 384–  
14  
15 387. <https://doi.org/10.3758/BF03195585>  
16  
17
- 18  
19 Cox, R. W., Chen, G., Glen, D. R., Reynolds, R. C., & Taylor, P. A. (2017). fMRI  
20  
21 clustering in AFNI: False-positive rates redux. *Brain Connectivity*, *7*(3), 152–  
22  
23 171. <https://doi.org/10.1089/brain.2016.0475>  
24
- 25  
26 Crosson, B., McGregor, K., Gopinath, K. S., Conway, T. W., Benjamin, M., Chang, Y.-L.,  
27  
28 ... White, K. D. (2007). Functional MRI of language in aphasia: A review of the  
29  
30 literature and the methodological challenges. *Neuropsychology Review*, *17*(2),  
31  
32 157–177. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11065-007-9024-z>  
33  
34
- 35  
36 Eklund, A., Nichols, T. E., & Knutsson, H. (2016). Cluster failure: Why fMRI inferences  
37  
38 for spatial extent have inflated false-positive rates. *Proceedings of the*  
39  
40 *National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, *113*(28), 7900–  
41  
42 7905. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1602413113>  
43
- 44  
45 Esterman, M., Noonan, S. K., Rosenberg, M., & Degutis, J. (2013). In the zone or  
46  
47 zoning out? Tracking behavioral and neural fluctuations during sustained  
48  
49 attention. *Cerebral Cortex (New York, N.Y.: 1991)*, *23*(11), 2712–2723.  
50  
51 <https://doi.org/10.1093/cercor/bhs261>  
52  
53
- 54  
55 Fridriksson, J. (2010). Preservation and modulation of specific left hemisphere  
56  
57 regions is vital for treated recovery from anomia in stroke. *The Journal of*  
58  
59  
60

## WORD READING IN APHASIA

1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

*Neuroscience*, 30(35), 11558–11564.

<https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.2227-10.2010>

Fridriksson, J., Baker, J. M., & Moser, D. (2009). Cortical mapping of naming errors in aphasia. *Human Brain Mapping*, 30(8), 2487–2498.

<https://doi.org/10.1002/hbm.20683>

Fridriksson, J., Richardson, J. D., Fillmore, P., & Cai, B. (2012). Left hemisphere plasticity and aphasia recovery. *NeuroImage*, 60(2), 854–863.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2011.12.057>

Gainotti, G. (2015). Contrasting opinions on the role of the right hemisphere in the recovery of language. A critical survey. *Aphasiology*, 29(9), 1020–1037.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/02687038.2015.1027170>

Geranmayeh, F., Brownsett, S. L. E., & Wise, R. J. S. (2014). Task-induced brain activity in aphasic stroke patients: What is driving recovery? *Brain*, 137(10),

2632–2648. <https://doi.org/10.1093/brain/awu163>

Gesierich, B., Jovicich, J., Riello, M., Adriani, M., Monti, A., Brentari, V., ... Gorno-Tempini, M. L. (2012). Distinct neural substrates for semantic knowledge and naming in the temporoparietal network. *Cerebral Cortex*, 22(10), 2217–2226.

<https://doi.org/10.1093/cercor/bhr286>

Graves, W. W., Binder, J. R., Desai, R. H., Humphries, C., Stengel, B. C., & Seidenberg, M. S. (2014). Anatomy is strategy: Skilled reading differences associated with structural connectivity differences in the reading network. *Brain and*

*Language*, 133, 1–13. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bandl.2014.03.005>

## WORD READING IN APHASIA

- 1  
2  
3 Graves, W. W., Desai, R., Humphries, C., Seidenberg, M. S., & Binder, J. R. (2010).  
4  
5 Neural systems for reading aloud: A multiparametric approach. *Cerebral*  
6  
7 *Cortex*, 20(8), 1799–1815. <https://doi.org/10.1093/cercor/bhp245>  
8  
9  
10 Graves, W. W., Grabowski, T. J., Mehta, S., & Gordon, J. K. (2007). A neural signature  
11  
12 of phonological access: Distinguishing the effects of word frequency from  
13  
14 familiarity and length in overt picture naming. *Journal of Cognitive*  
15  
16 *Neuroscience*, 19(4), 617–631. <https://doi.org/10.1162/jocn.2007.19.4.617>  
17  
18  
19 Graves, W. W., Grabowski, T., Mehta, S., & Gupta, P. (2008). The left posterior  
20  
21 superior temporal gyrus participates specifically in accessing lexical  
22  
23 phonology. *Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience*, 20(9), 1698–1710.  
24  
25  
26 <https://doi.org/10.1162/jocn.2008.20113>  
27  
28  
29 Hamilton, R. H., Chrysikou, E. G., & Coslett, B. (2011). Mechanisms of aphasia  
30  
31 recovery after stroke and the role of noninvasive brain stimulation. *Brain and*  
32  
33 *Language*, 118(1–2), 40–50. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bandl.2011.02.005>  
34  
35  
36 Hampshire, A., Chamberlain, S. R., Monti, M. M., Duncan, J., & Owen, A. M. (2010). The  
37  
38 role of the right inferior frontal gyrus: Inhibition and attentional control.  
39  
40  
41 *NeuroImage*, 50(3), 1313–1319.  
42  
43  
44 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2009.12.109>  
45  
46  
47 Heiss, W.-D., Kessler, J., Thiel, A., Ghaemi, M., & Karbe, H. (1999). Differential  
48  
49 capacity of left and right hemispheric areas for compensation of poststroke  
50  
51 aphasia. *Annals of Neurology*, 45(4), 430–438.  
52  
53  
54 [https://doi.org/10.1002/1531-8249\(199904\)45:4<430::AID-](https://doi.org/10.1002/1531-8249(199904)45:4<430::AID-)  
55  
56 [ANA3>3.0.CO;2-P](https://doi.org/10.1002/1531-8249(199904)45:4<430::AID-ANA3>3.0.CO;2-P)  
57  
58  
59  
60

## WORD READING IN APHASIA

- 1  
2  
3 Hillis, A. E. (2005). Can shift to the right be a good thing? *Annals of Neurology*, *58*(3),  
4  
5 346–348. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ana.20621>  
6  
7
- 8 Kiran, S., & Thompson, C. K. (2003). The role of semantic complexity in treatment of  
9  
10 naming deficits: Training semantic categories in fluent aphasia by controlling  
11  
12 exemplar typicality. *Journal of Speech, Language, and Hearing Research*,  
13  
14 *46*(4), 773–787. [https://doi.org/10.1044/1092-4388\(2003/061\)](https://doi.org/10.1044/1092-4388(2003/061))  
15  
16
- 17 Lee, Y. S., Zreik, J. T., & Hamilton, R. H. (2017). Patterns of neural activity predict  
18  
19 picture-naming performance of a patient with chronic aphasia.  
20  
21 *Neuropsychologia*, *94*, 52–60.  
22  
23 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuropsychologia.2016.11.010>  
24  
25
- 26 Marcotte, K., Adrover-Roig, D., Damien, B., de Préaumont, M., Génereux, S., Hubert,  
27  
28 M., & Ansaldo, A. I. (2012). Therapy-induced neuroplasticity in chronic  
29  
30 aphasia. *Neuropsychologia*, *50*(8), 1776–1786.  
31  
32 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuropsychologia.2012.04.001>  
33  
34
- 35 Martin, P. I., Naeser, M. A., Ho, M., Doron, K. W., Kurland, J., Kaplan, J., ... Pascual-  
36  
37 Leone, A. (2009). Overt naming fMRI pre- and post-TMS: Two nonfluent  
38  
39 aphasia patients, with and without improved naming post-TMS. *Brain and*  
40  
41 *Language*, *111*(1), 20–35. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bandl.2009.07.007>  
42  
43  
44
- 45 Mason, M. F., Norton, M. I., Horn, J. D. V., Wegner, D. M., Grafton, S. T., & Macrae, C. N.  
46  
47 (2007). Wandering minds: The default network and stimulus-independent  
48  
49 thought. *Science*, *315*(5810), 393–395.  
50  
51 <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1131295>  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

## WORD READING IN APHASIA

1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

McKiernan, K. A., D'Angelo, B. R., Kaufman, J. N., & Binder, J. R. (2006). Interrupting the "stream of consciousness": An fMRI investigation. *NeuroImage*, 29(4), 1185–1191. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2005.09.030>

Meinzer, M., Flaisch, T., Obleser, J., Assadollahi, R., Djundja, D., Barthel, G., & Rockstroh, B. (2006). Brain regions essential for improved lexical access in an aged aphasic patient: a case report. *BMC Neurology*, 6, 28. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2377-6-28>

Mohr, B., MacGregor, L. J., Difrancesco, S., Harrington, K., Pulvermüller, F., & Shtyrov, Y. (2016). Hemispheric contributions to language reorganisation: An MEG study of neuroplasticity in chronic post stroke aphasia. *Neuropsychologia*, 93, Part B, 413–424. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuropsychologia.2016.04.006>

Monsell, S., Doyle, M. C., & Haggard, P. (1989). Effects of frequency on visual word recognition tasks: Where are they? *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General*, 118(1), 43–71. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0096-3445.118.1.43>

Naeser, M. A., Martin, P. I., Baker, E. H., Hodge, S. M., Sczerzenie, S. E., Nicholas, M., ... Yurgelun-Todd, D. (2004). Overt propositional speech in chronic nonfluent aphasia studied with the dynamic susceptibility contrast fMRI method. *NeuroImage*, 22(1), 29–41. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2003.11.016>

Naeser, M. A., Martin, P. I., Theoret, H., Kobayashi, M., Fregni, F., Nicholas, M., ... Pascual-Leone, A. (2011). TMS suppression of right pars triangularis, but not pars opercularis, improves naming in aphasia. *Brain and Language*, 119(3), 206–213. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bandl.2011.07.005>

## WORD READING IN APHASIA

- 1  
2  
3 Oldfield, R. C. (1971). The assessment and analysis of handedness: The Edinburgh  
4 inventory. *Neuropsychologia*, 9(1), 97–113.  
5  
6  
7
- 8 Owen, A. M., McMillan, K. M., Laird, A. R., & Bullmore, E. (2005). N-back working  
9 memory paradigm: A meta-analysis of normative functional neuroimaging  
10 studies. *Human Brain Mapping*, 25(1), 46–59.  
11  
12  
13 <https://doi.org/10.1002/hbm.20131>  
14  
15  
16
- 17 Paivio, A. (1990). *Mental representations: A dual coding approach*. Oxford University  
18 Press.  
19  
20  
21
- 22 Pillay, S. B., Binder, J. R., Humphries, C., Gross, W. L., & Book, D. S. (2017). Lesion  
23 localization of speech comprehension deficits in chronic aphasia. *Neurology*,  
24 88(10), 970–975. <https://doi.org/10.1212/WNL.0000000000003683>  
25  
26  
27  
28
- 29 Pillay, S. B., Stengel, B. C., Humphries, C., Book, D. S., & Binder, J. R. (2014). Cerebral  
30 localization of impaired phonological retrieval during rhyme judgment.  
31  
32  
33 *Annals of Neurology*, 76(5), 738–746. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ana.24266>  
34  
35  
36
- 37 Plaut, D. C., McClelland, J. L., Seidenberg, M. S., & Patterson, K. (1996). Understanding  
38 normal and impaired word reading: Computational principles in quasi-  
39 regular domains. *Psychological Review*, 103(1), 56–115.  
40  
41  
42 <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.103.1.56>  
43  
44  
45
- 46 Postman-Caucheteux, W. A., Birn, R. M., Pursley, R. H., Butman, J. A., Solomon, J. M.,  
47  
48 Picchioni, D., ... Braun, A. R. (2010). Single-trial fMRI shows contralesional  
49 activity linked to overt naming errors in chronic aphasic patients. *Journal of*  
50  
51  
52 *Cognitive Neuroscience*, 22(6), 1299–1318.  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

## WORD READING IN APHASIA

1  
2  
3 Prabhakaran, R., Blumstein, S. E., Myers, E. B., Hutchison, E., & Britton, B. (2006). An  
4  
5 event-related fMRI investigation of phonological-lexical competition.

6  
7  
8 *Neuropsychologia*, 44(12), 2209–2221.

9  
10 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuropsychologia.2006.05.025>

11  
12  
13 Price, C. J., & Crinion, J. (2005). The latest on functional imaging studies of aphasic  
14  
15 stroke. *Current Opinion in Neurology*, 18(4), 429–434.

16  
17  
18 Rapcsak, S. Z., Beeson, P. M., Henry, M. L., Leyden, A., Kim, E., Rising, K., ... Cho, H.

19  
20 (2009). Phonological dyslexia and dysgraphia: Cognitive mechanisms and  
21  
22 neural substrates. *Cortex*, 45(5), 575–591.

23  
24 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cortex.2008.04.006>

25  
26  
27 Rider, J. D., Wright, H. H., Marshall, R. C., & Page, J. L. (2008). Using semantic feature  
28  
29 analysis to improve contextual discourse in adults with aphasia. *American*  
30  
31 *Journal of Speech-Language Pathology*, 17(2), 161–172.

32  
33 [https://doi.org/10.1044/1058-0360\(2008/016\)](https://doi.org/10.1044/1058-0360(2008/016))

34  
35  
36  
37 Ripamonti, E., Aggujaro, S., Molteni, F., Zonca, G., Frustaci, M., & Luzzatti, C. (2014).

38  
39 The anatomical foundations of acquired reading disorders: A  
40  
41 neuropsychological verification of the dual-route model of reading. *Brain and*  
42  
43 *Language*, 134, 44–67. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bandl.2014.04.001>

44  
45  
46  
47 Rosen, H. J., Petersen, S. E., Linenweber, M. R., Snyder, A. Z., White, D. A., Chapman, L.,

48  
49 ... Corbetta, a. M. (2000). Neural correlates of recovery from aphasia after  
50  
51 damage to left inferior frontal cortex. *Neurology*, 55(12), 1883–1894.

52  
53 <https://doi.org/10.1212/WNL.55.12.1883>

## WORD READING IN APHASIA

- 1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60
- Saad, Z. S., Glen, D. R., Chen, G., Beauchamp, M. S., Desai, R., & Cox, R. W. (2009). A new method for improving functional-to-structural MRI alignment using local Pearson correlation. *NeuroImage*, *44*(3), 839–848. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2008.09.037>
- Saur, D., Lange, R., Baumgaertner, A., Schraknepper, V., Willmes, K., Rijntjes, M., & Weiller, C. (2006). Dynamics of language reorganization after stroke. *Brain*, *129*(6), 1371–1384. <https://doi.org/10.1093/brain/awl090>
- Smallwood, J., & Schooler, J. W. (2006). The restless mind. *Psychological Bulletin*, *132*(6), 946–958. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.132.6.946>
- Spreng, R. N., & Grady, C. L. (2010). Patterns of brain activity supporting autobiographical memory, prospection, and theory of mind, and their relationship to the default mode network. *Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience*, *22*(6), 1112–1123. <https://doi.org/10.1162/jocn.2009.21282>
- Strain, E., Patterson, K., & Seidenberg, M. S. (1995). Semantic effects in single-word naming. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition*, *21*(5), 1140–1154. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0278-7393.21.5.1140>
- Taylor, J. S. H., Rastle, K., & Davis, M. H. (2014). Interpreting response time effects in functional imaging studies. *NeuroImage*, *99*, 419–433. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2014.05.073>
- Thompson, C. K., & den Ouden, D.-B. (2008). Neuroimaging and recovery of language in aphasia. *Current Neurology and Neuroscience Reports*, *8*(6), 475–483.
- Thompson-Schill, S. L., D'Esposito, M., Aguirre, G. K., & Farah, M. J. (1997). Role of left inferior prefrontal cortex in retrieval of semantic knowledge: A reevaluation.



## WORD READING IN APHASIA

1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

*Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, 94(26), 14792–14797.

Turkeltaub, P. E., Coslett, H. B., Thomas, A. L., Faseyitan, O., Benson, J., Norise, C., & Hamilton, R. H. (2012). The right hemisphere is not unitary in its role in aphasia recovery. *Cortex*, 48(9), 1179–1186.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cortex.2011.06.010>

Wagner, A. D., Paré-Blagoev, E. J., Clark, J., & Poldrack, R. A. (2001). Recovering meaning: Left prefrontal cortex guides controlled semantic retrieval. *Neuron*, 31(2), 329–338. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0896-6273\(01\)00359-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0896-6273(01)00359-2)

Ward, B. D. (2006). Deconvolution analysis of fMRI time series data. Milwaukee, WI: Biophysics Research Institute, Medical College of Wisconsin. Retrieved from <https://afni.nimh.nih.gov/pub/dist/doc/manual/Deconvolvem.pdf>

Weissman, D. H., Roberts, K. C., Visscher, K. M., & Woldorff, M. G. (2006). The neural bases of momentary lapses in attention. *Nature Neuroscience*, 9(7), 971–978.  
<https://doi.org/10.1038/nn1727>

White, C. N., Congdon, E., Mumford, J. A., Karlsgodt, K. H., Sabb, F. W., Freimer, N. B., ... Poldrack, R. A. (2014). Decomposing decision components in the stop-signal task: A model-based approach to individual differences in inhibitory control. *Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience*, 26(8), 1601–1614.  
[https://doi.org/10.1162/jocn\\_a\\_00567](https://doi.org/10.1162/jocn_a_00567)

Wilson, S. M., Brambati, S. M., Henry, R. G., Handwerker, D. A., Agosta, F., Miller, B. L., ... Gorno-Tempini, M. L. (2009). The neural basis of surface dyslexia in

## WORD READING IN APHASIA

semantic dementia. *Brain*, 132(1), 71–86.

<https://doi.org/10.1093/brain/awn300>

Woollams, A. M. (2005). Imageability and ambiguity effects in speeded naming: Convergence and divergence. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition*, 31(5), 878–890. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0278-7393.31.5.878>

For Review Only

1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

## WORD READING IN APHASIA

1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

*Figure 1.*

Example trials from the behavioral tasks given for subject inclusion outside of the MRI environment. The left image shows an example of the Pseudoword Rhyme Matching task. The right image shows an example of the Semantic Picture Matching task.

For Review Only

## WORD READING IN APHASIA

1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

*Figure 2.*

Lesion overlap map across 21 patients.

For Review Only

## WORD READING IN APHASIA

1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

*Figure 3.*

Group z-score contrasts. (A) Correct – Error. The area active more for correctly read words (warm colors) was in the left angular gyrus. Areas active more for incorrect words (cool colors) were located bilaterally in the posterior inferior frontal cortex (mainly precentral gyrus and pars opercularis) and posterior medial frontal cortex (mainly SMA). (B) Areas modulated by RT including the bilateral SMA, posterior precuneus and lingual gyrus, and right IFG and adjacent precentral gyrus/sulcus.

## WORD READING IN APHASIA

1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

*Figure 4.*

Overlap between performance on word reading task and semantic regions (red) in healthy controls. Activation associated with correctly read (Correct) trials is shown in green, with Semantic overlap shown in yellow. Activation associated with incorrectly read (Error) trials is shown in blue, with Semantic overlap shown in cyan.

For Review Only

## WORD READING IN APHASIA

**Table 1.** Patient demographic and performance data

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Range</i>
Age	56.4	12.5	30 – 80
Education	14.7	3.2	8 – 20
Days Post Onset	1134	1491	180 – 6732
Lesion Size (ml)	73,439	58,567	6,711 – 226,978
Semantic Picture Matching	93.8	1.7	90.8 – 96.7
Pseudoword Rhyme Matching	67.5	14.1	45.8 – 87.5

For Review Only

## WORD READING IN APHASIA

**Table 2.**  
Individual patient demographic and performance data

Pt.	Age	Educ.	DPO	PI	No. of lesioned voxels	Accuracy (Percent Correct)			
						Picture Naming	Semantic Picture Matching	Pseudoword Rhyme Matching	Word Reading (fMRI)
1947	55	12	3053	-6.57	87,201	65.0	94.2	62.5	76.4
2471	80	17	658	-9.81	46,937	73.8	93.3	45.8	79.2
2477	30	14	961	-2.84	85,388	95.0	96.7	81.7	90.3
3315	49	14	255	-1.72	24,230	95.0	92.5	87.5	86.1
3326	52	20	210	-1.72	10,416	93.8	94.2	87.5	94.4
3380	61	19	726	-2.26	32,580	100.0	95.0	84.7	97.2
3383	54	14	1676	-8.46	130,491	66.3	91.7	52.8	63.9
3390	44	12	253	-1.99	72,010	93.8	95.0	86.1	97.2
3584	52	12	843	-4.14	74,148	46.3	95.0	75.0	51.4
3588	71	14	251	-6.57	23,355	27.5	92.5	62.5	27.8
3590	62	16	934	-5.49	33,329	58.8	91.7	68.1	81.9
3603	62	14	449	-6.84	71,445	80.0	91.7	61.1	69.4
3666	77	16	638	-9.54	18,597	77.5	94.2	47.2	80.6
3820	40	15	6732	-6.57	156,674	90.0	95.0	62.5	93.1
4091	57	12	2495	-1.72	68,337	98.8	95.8	87.5	95.8
4229	64	8	233	-6.03	95,698	78.8	90.8	65.3	68.1
4572	38	18	1278	-5.49	226,978	31.3	92.5	68.1	38.9
6887	55	14	1175	-7.91	184,005	28.8	95.0	55.6	45.8
8342	47	15	180	-9.27	45,489	83.8	92.5	48.6	70.8
8754	68	13	214	-7.91	48,220	61.3	92.5	55.6	91.7
9720	57	14	605	-4.69	6,711	100.0	96.7	72.2	93.1

*DPO = days-post-onset, PI = phonological impairment (z-scores)*



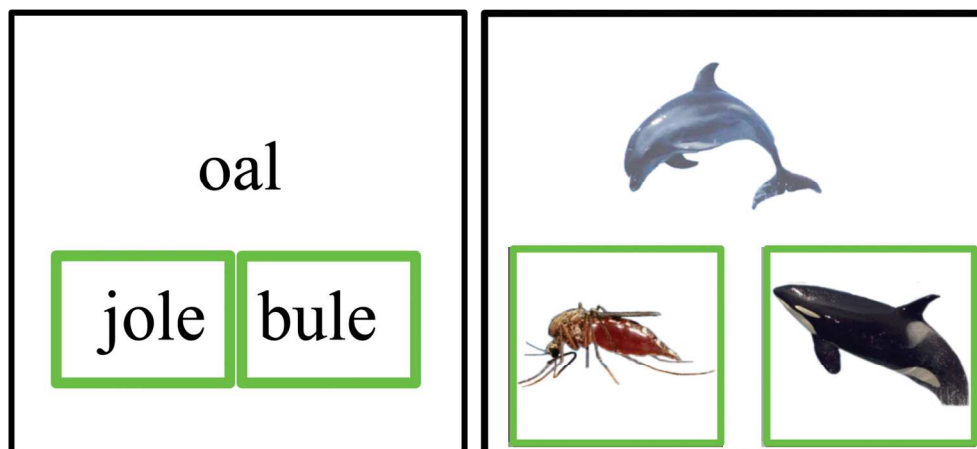
## WORD READING IN APHASIA

**Table 3.** Peak coordinates within significantly activated clusters

Contrast	Location of extreme point	Cluster size ( $\mu$ l)	Talairach Coordinates			Z-score
			X	Y	Z	
Correct	L AG	2430	-40	-52	51	3.97
Incorrect	R IFG	5388	38	8	14	-4.06
	L SMA	5833	-6	19	41	-4.74
	L IFG	3471	-36	0	24	-4.49

*L = left, R = right, AG = angular gyrus, IFG = inferior frontal gyrus, SMA = supplementary motor area.*

For Review Only

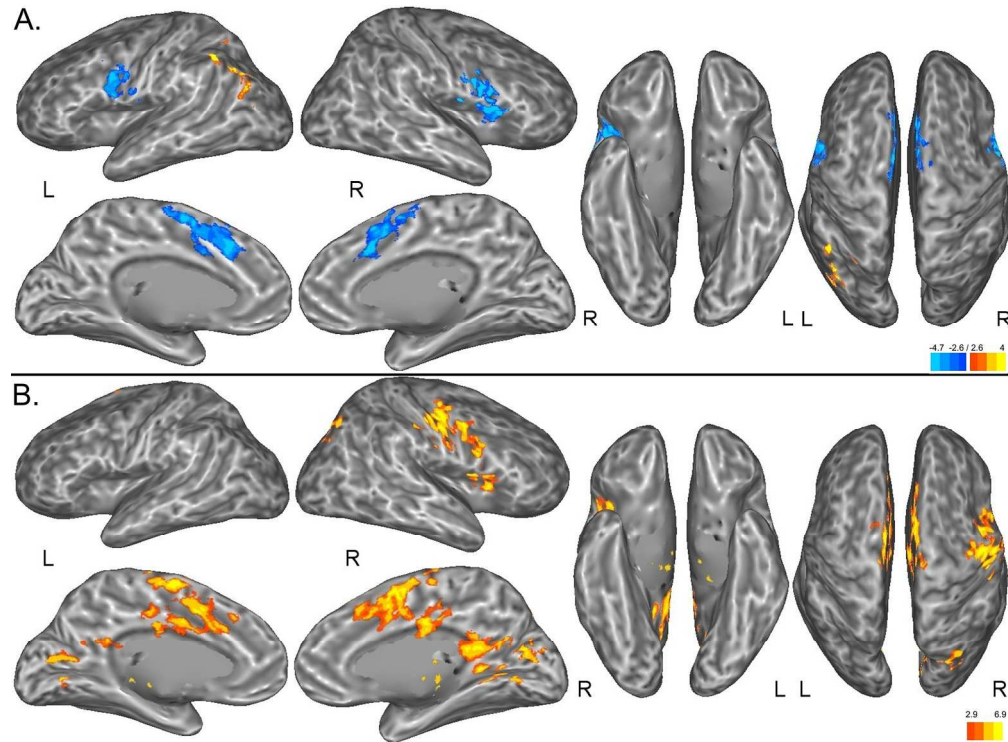


Example trials from the behavioral tasks given for subject inclusion outside of the MRI environment. The left image shows an example of the Pseudoword Rhyme Matching task. The right image shows an example of the Semantic Picture Matching task.

152x69mm (300 x 300 DPI)

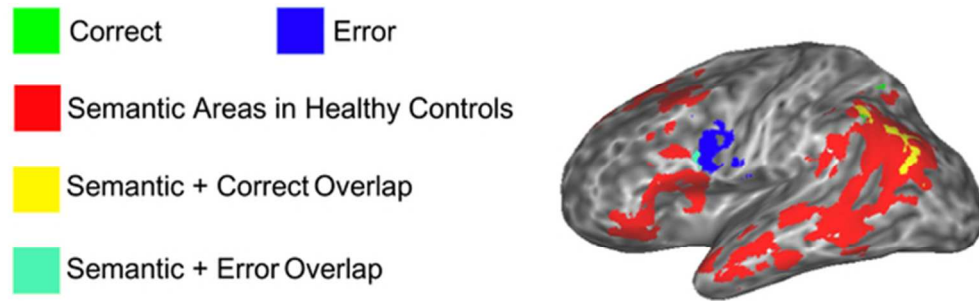
Review Only

1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60



37 170x125mm (300 x 300 DPI)

38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

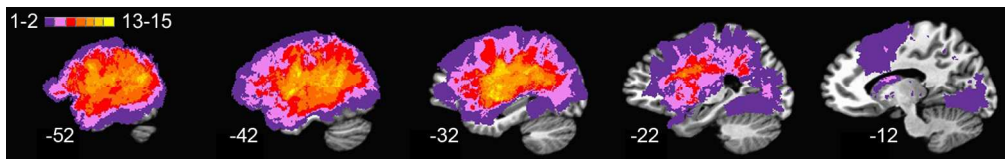


Overlap between performance on word reading task and semantic regions (red) in healthy controls. Activation associated with correctly read (Correct) trials is shown in green, with Semantic overlap shown in yellow. Activation associated with incorrectly read (Error) trials is shown in blue, with Semantic overlap shown in cyan.

25x8mm (600 x 600 DPI)

Review Only

1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60



Lesion overlap map across 21 patients.

159x25mm (300 x 300 DPI)

For Review Only