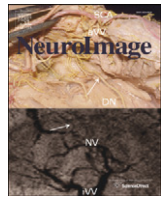




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Review

Neuroimaging in aphasia treatment research: Standards for establishing the effects of treatment

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ABSTRACT

The goal of this paper is to discuss experimental design options available for establishing the effects of treatment in studies that aim to examine the neural mechanisms associated with treatment-induced language recovery in aphasia, using functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI). We present both group and single-subject experimental or case-series design options for doing this and address advantages and disadvantages of each. We also discuss general components of and requirements for treatment research studies, including operational definitions of variables, criteria for defining behavioral change and treatment efficacy, and reliability of measurement. Important considerations that are unique to neuroimaging-based treatment research are addressed, pertaining to the relation between the selected treatment approach and anticipated changes in language processes/functions and how such changes are hypothesized to map onto the brain.

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61 Introduction

62 The goal of this paper is to provide guidelines for designing and
 63 implementing treatment studies that aim to examine the neural
 64 mechanisms associated with language recovery in aphasia, using
 65 functional brain imaging. This research requires measurement of neural
 66 changes from pre to post intervention using functional magnetic
 67 resonance imaging (fMRI), PET (positron emission tomography) or
 68 other methods (e.g. ERPs). In addition, and the focus of the present
 69 paper, careful measurement of language and/or cognitive changes
 70 from pre- to post-intervention and interpretation of the relationship
 71 between the two sets of changes (neural and behavioral) are re-
 72 quired. As pointed out in recent reviews, there is variability in regions
 73 of the brain recruited by people with aphasia to support language re-
 74 covery both within and across studies (see [Crinion and Leff, 2007](#);
 Q4 75 [Meinzer et al., 2011](#), [Thompson and den Ouden, 2008](#)). Possible rea-
 76 sons for this may be related to the treatment provided and the exper-
 77 imental designs used to evaluate its efficacy. Although there have
 78 been recent methodological advances in the measurement of lan-
 79 guage behavior in individuals who have suffered a stroke using fMRI
 80 ([Abutalebi et al., 2009](#); [Bonakdarpour et al., 2007](#); [Fridriksson et al.,](#)
 81 [2006](#); [Kurland et al., 2004](#); [Marcotte and Ansaldo, 2010](#); [Peck et al.,](#)
 82 [2004](#), [Rorden et al., 2009](#)), few studies have systematically investigat-
 83 ed the effects of rehabilitation on brain mechanisms recruited to sup-
 84 port recovery. In this paper, we address a series of questions on the
 85 design of treatment studies when treatment effects are assessed
 86 both behaviorally and in terms of brain activations, presenting the
 87 consensus derived from discussions among experts in neuroimaging
 88 and aphasia at the Neuroimaging in Aphasia Treatment Research
 89 Workshop, held at Northwestern University in September, 2009. Be-
 90 cause the nature of the experimental design, task manipulations and
 91 spatio-temporal manifestations of the data are different for fMRI
 92 studies and ERP studies, we limit our discussion to fMRI studies in
 93 this paper.

94 The first section of the paper considers different options for designing
 95 treatment experiments. Specifically, we discuss group versus single-
 96 subject experimental or case-series design options for establishing the ef-
 97 fects of treatment and consider their advantages and disadvantages. We
 98 examine the general components of and requirements for treatment re-
 99 search studies, including the operational definition of variables, the
 100 criteria for defining behavioral change and treatment efficacy, and the re-
 101 liability of measurement. We also point out unique considerations re-
 102 quired in neuroimaging-based treatment research, concerning the
 103 relation between the treatment approach selected and the anticipated
 104 changes in language processes/functions and hypotheses about how
 105 changes in language function are expected to map onto changes in
 106 brain function. Other design considerations relevant to relating the effects
 107 of treatment directly to changes in brain function are covered in other pa-
 108 pers in this series. For example, questions related to the reliability of acti-
 109 vation patterns seen on repeated scans, fMRI task selection, and single-
 110 subject versus group approaches to analysis of the fMRI data are discussed
 Q5 Q6 in [Rapp et al. \(this volume\)](#) and [Meinzer et al. \(this volume\)](#).

112 Establishing the effects of treatment (internal validity)

113 The first essential requirement in designing a treatment study to
 114 evaluate treatment-induced neural plasticity is that the experiment
 115 uses a design that allows the researcher to establish that behavioral
 116 changes are a result of treatment (internal validity). There are several
 117 experimental approaches for accomplishing this—group approaches
 118 that compare the performance of experimental and control groups,
 119 and single-subject approaches that compare performance between
 120 experimental and control phases in the same participant. Both design
 121 types, if implemented properly, rule out the influence of extraneous
 122 variables, (e.g., environmental or participant factors), on the language
 123 behaviors or processes under study. The philosophy is the same for

both: between-group experimental designs compare the perfor- 124
 mance of groups of individuals (experimental and control groups), 125
 whereas, single-subject experimental designs compare the perfor- 126
 mance of individual participants during experimental and control 127
 (baseline) phases. The idea is that similar extraneous variables are 128
 at play in both the experimental and control groups or conditions 129
 and that the influence of these variables on the behavior(s) under 130
 study can be ruled out by comparing patterns of performance be- 131
 tween the two groups or conditions (see [Thompson, 2006](#)). 132

In studies examining the neural mechanisms of treatment-induced 133
 language recovery, the experimental treatment design employed is 134
 not only relevant to establishing the efficacy of treatment, but it also im- 135
 pacts analysis of the neuroimaging data. Between-group treatment de- 136
 sign requires averaging the treatment effect in the experimental groups 137
 and comparing change over time between the treated and untreated 138
 groups. Thus, to estimate the effects of treatment on brain processing, 139
 a group approach to analysis of the fMRI data is required. However, 140
 the group approach may be confounded because it is possible (and like- 141
 ly) that not all participants in the experimental group will change to the 142
 same extent. As pointed out by [Meinzer et al., \(this volume\)](#), group anal- 143 Q7
 yses of aphasic neuroimaging data, in general, should be approached 144
 with caution because of individual differences in variables such as lesion 145
 site and extent, unless the goal of the study is to account for the effects 146
 of such variables on either treatment-induced behavioral performance 147
 or neural recruitment patterns, which requires large, rather than small 148
 sample sizes. Conversely, single-subject/case-series designs require 149
 measurement of language change throughout the treatment period, 150
 with no data averaging across study participants. The neuroimaging 151
 data derived from pre- and post-treatment scans of individual partici- 152
 pants then can be examined and evaluated with regard to treatment 153
 improvement. However, there is an inherent lack of power to detect 154
 changes in activation over time when comparing changes in neural ac- 155
 tivation in individual study participants. It is therefore, important dur- 156
 ing the experimental design phase to include a sufficient number of 157
 experimental trials in the neuroimaging task. In addition, this practice 158
 has drawbacks with regard to external validity, or generalization to 159
 other individuals with aphasia. However, this latter problem can be 160
 addressed by replication of treatment across participants (see below 161
 for further discussion of single-subject experimental designs with re- 162
 gard to replication across study participants). 163

Independent of experimental design, it is important to conduct a 164
 power analysis and sample size estimation to justify the inclusion of 165
 a particular sample size and interpretation of a particular effect size. 166
 Particularly for neuroimaging treatment studies that are inherently 167
 clinical in nature, justifying the sample size and benchmarks for effect 168
 size can be very beneficial in evaluating what constitutes a clinically 169
 (or theoretically) important effect. 170

Establishing experimental control between groups 171

Between-group designs require at least two groups of participants, 172
 an experimental group that receives the (experimental) treatment, 173
 and a control group that either does not receive treatment or is pro- 174
 vided with an alternative treatment or placebo. At the beginning of 175
 the study, both experimental and control participants are tested on 176
 one or all dependent measures, both behavioral and neuroimaging, 177
 and at the end of the study these measures are repeated. Performance 178
 on each measure is averaged across participants in each group at each 179
 time point and a treatment effect is established when the experimen- 180
 tal group shows significantly greater pre- to post-treatment changes 181
 than the control group. One requirement of between group experi- 182
 mental designs is that study participants be randomly selected from a 183
 population of people (e.g., those with aphasia or a particular aphasia 184
 profile). When random selection is not accomplished, an unwarranted 185
 extrapolation from the sample to the study population may occur, cre- 186
 ating a problem of sample bias. Notably, when studying disorders 187

such as aphasia, random selection of participants from the entire population of people with the disorder is not possible. Hence, researchers generally use “populations of convenience” from which to select their study participants (e.g., aphasic individuals in a particular geographic region). Although this practice itself does not preclude hypothesis testing and the use of parametric statistics, researchers rarely, if ever, randomly select study participants. Indeed, one of the advantages of well-designed group studies is that inferential statistics can be applied elegantly to estimate the generality of the findings to the population. Importantly, however, this is not possible if the study sample is not randomly selected from the population.

Relatedly, once selected, potential participants meeting pre-specified inclusionary and exclusionary criteria must be randomly assigned to either the experimental or control group or a match pairs approach may be taken, where study participants are stratified based on their lesion patterns and/or other variables. Even though some studies examining the neurobiology of treatment-induced recovery from aphasia have studied relatively large groups of participants with aphasia (see, for example, Richter et al., 2008 (n=16); Fridriksson, 2010 (n=26)), few have employed random selection or assignment strategies to generate experimental and control groups (e.g., Cherney, Erickson, & Small, 2010). In fact, no studies to our knowledge have included a control group of aphasic individuals at all. Thus, even though studies report change in the treated groups' language behavior from pre- to post-treatment (and associated changes in fMRI activation) the extent to which behavioral or neural changes noted over the course of the study can be attributed to the treatment provided (rather than other uncontrolled variables including spontaneous change) is unclear.

As an alternative to using a control group of individuals with aphasia some studies have included a control group of non-brain-damaged participants, examining the neural correlates of their learning. For example, Raboyeau et al. (2008) trained non-brain damaged French-speaking individuals to produce novel words in either Spanish or English and compared pre- to post-treatment activation patterns associated with naming them. This approach provides information about learning in healthy adult brains, enhancing understanding of the neural mechanisms engaged for learning (or re-learning) in compromised brains. However, it does not provide experimental control, substantiating that learning (in either the aphasic or normal group) actually took place. For this, a control group of matched study participants who do not receive the experimental treatment is required.

One reason that control groups often are not included in studies of aphasia treatment concerns the issue of withholding treatment. Although, in theory, withholding an experimental treatment (particularly when the effect of the treatment is unknown) is probably not unethical, the idea of withholding treatment, even an inadequate one, is not popular among clinicians, individuals with aphasia, or their family members. Because of this, researchers are often faced with the less preferred option of including, as control participants, individuals with aphasia, who for reasons such as motivation, family support, transportation to the laboratory, and the like, are not able to participate in the experimental group (although this strategy has not been used to date in studies examining the neural mechanisms supporting language recovery). Both of these situations – that is, failure to include a control group, and including groups of individuals who are unable to participate in the study as controls – are problematic from a methodological point of view: as pointed out above, a control group is needed in order to generate internally valid data and the control participants must be selected from the same population as the experimental participants with an equal chance of being assigned to the experimental group. One possible group design strategy, which avoids withholding treatment, is to use a crossover design in which control participants are entered into treatment after it has been completed for the experimental group. In this design, participants are randomly assigned to a specific treatment sequence. Participants who initially do not receive intervention serve as no-treatment controls

and are then entered into treatment during the second arm of the study. We are not aware, however, of any fMRI studies that have used this approach (but see, Fridriksson et al. (2011) who used this design to evaluate the impact of tDCS).

Another requirement of group designs is that a pre-specified number of participants be included in order to insure sufficient statistical power to demonstrate a treatment effect. The number of participants also is relevant to studies concerned with examining changes in neural activity associated with treatment improvement in groups of participants. That is, the statistical power of the data is reduced when too few participants are included in the analysis. In addition, as pointed out by Meinzer et al. (this volume), one of the advantages of using a group approach for analyzing neuroimaging data is that this allows researchers to explore (e.g., correlate) the relation between behavioral and/or lesion variables and treatment outcome. Notably, however, most studies examining the functional reorganization of brain tissue associated with treatment-induced language recovery have included small numbers of participants. For example, of the 24 studies summarized by Thompson (this volume), only three included more than 10 participants, and 18 included three or fewer. Nevertheless, some group studies have performed regression or correlational analyses on the experimental group, even with data from few patients. For example, Menke et al. (2009) examined the relation between short-term training effects (i.e., percent accuracy) and BOLD signal change from pre- to post-treatment in eight anomic aphasic participants and found positive correlations between training success and signal changes in memory related structures, including the hippocampus.

In considering whether or not to utilize a between-groups design to examine the effects of treatment for aphasia, the issue of homogeneity is important to consider. It is well known that individuals with aphasia differ greatly with often varying language patterns and associated lesions, and even study participants carefully selected for their deficit patterns are seldom, if ever, homogeneous. They can, and do, differ markedly. Given this heterogeneity, it is often the case that treatment effects differ across individuals, and in turn, the neural recruitment patterns associated with behavioral change will likely differ across participant. Thus, averaging changes either behaviorally or neurologically across participants from pre- to post-treatment may be contraindicated and lead to inaccurate and/or misleading interpretation of the data. On the other hand, an advantage of group designs is that if participants are somewhat homogeneous (for example, grouped by similar lesions or similar behavior) the data can be potentially powerful for identifying predictors for treatment success (Menke et al., 2009). Clearly, however, this practice has the potential to mask information about how certain individuals respond to treatment as well as the brain tissue recruited to support recovery. For example, treatment outcomes associated with right hemisphere and/or perilesional activation may be masked by individual variability (Crosson et al., 2007). Therefore, it can be very difficult to draw any meaningful conclusions from a group of aphasic individuals.

Summary

One of the cornerstones of experimental treatment research is that proper controls be put in place such that the effects of the experimental treatment (either behavioral or neurological) can be established. The reader is referred to an analogous set of standards in physical rehabilitation studies for assistance in designing group studies (<http://www.otseeker.com/PDF/PEDroScalePartitionedGuidelinesExplanations.pdf>). Group experimental designs accomplish this by randomly selecting and assigning groups of study participants to either experimental or control groups. This practice allows the results of the study to be generalized to the population from which the participants were selected and, if enough participants are included, group studies have the advantage of allowing researchers to explore the relation between behavioral and neurological variables and recovery. Notably, no studies examining the neural mechanisms

319 associated with treatment-induced recovery from aphasia have included
 320 a control group of aphasic individuals, perhaps because large num-
 321 bers of study participants are required when using this approach and/
 322 or because such designs require withholding of treatment (or applica-
 323 tion of a placebo treatment) from the control group.

324 *Using single-subject, case-series strategies to establish experimental*
 325 *control*

326 As discussed above single-subject and/or case-series designs involve
 327 control and experimental phases, which are compared to one another
 328 for each participant in the study, such that the effects of the treatment
 329 can be determined. In this case experimental control, demonstrating
 330 that participants improve only when they are treated, is achieved by com-
 331 paring the experimental phase with the baseline/control phase within
 332 each participant. Hence, no control groups are required. It is important
 333 to point out at the outset that these designs are not the same as case stud-
 334 ies which document the effects of treatment without establishing exper-
 335 imental control. Technically, single-subject experimental designs also
 336 require study of more than one participant (and, therefore, are some-
 337 times referred to as “case series design”) because replication of the
 338 treatment effect within and across study participants is required
 339 (McReynolds and Thompson, 1986). Therefore, they are not synony-
 340 mous with N = 1 studies.

341 The control (i.e., baseline) and experimental phases in single-
 342 subject, case-series designs are typically labeled A and B, respectively,
 343 and the behavior under study is continuously measured throughout
 344 these phases. This is accomplished by administration of the dependent
 345 measures regularly, using identical procedures throughout all phases
 346 of the experiment. As such, in these designs behavioral change is exam-
 347 ined as it unfolds over the course of the study for individual participants,
 348 allowing close examination of behavioral variability as a function of the
 349 time series data. In turn, associated changes in neural activation associ-
 350 ated with treatment can be examined, and where appropriate, common
 351 patterns/trends in activation across participants can be noted. In this re-
 352 gard, single-subject, case-series designs are unlike group designs, which
 353 require that the dependent measures be measured only twice – once
 354 prior to treatment and once following its completion – with averaging
 355 of group performance at the two test points.

356 *Types of designs*

357 There are several types of single-subject, case-series designs, which
 358 have been described extensively by others (see Kazdin, 1982;
 359 Q13359 McReynolds and Kearns, 1983; McReynolds and Thompson, 1986 and
 360 many others). However, some designs are more appropriate than
 361 others for studying treatment induced recovery of language in aphasia.
 362 Below we discuss major single-subject experimental design types. The
 363 reader is also referred to Tate et al. (2008) for suggestions on designing
 364 and reporting single subjects/case series designs.

365 *The A–B–A–B design.* A common design is the A–B–A–B design. In this
 366 design, the behavior(s) under study are first measured in the baseline
 367 (A phase), then treatment is applied in a B phase, following baseline.
 368 The treatment is then withdrawn in a second A phase, and finally
 369 treatment is reapplied in a second B phase. In order to demonstrate
 370 experimental control using such a design (a) performance on the de-
 371 pendent variable must be stable during the first A phase, (b) a change
 372 in the dependent variable(s) must be seen when comparing perfor-
 373 mance in the first A phase with that in the first B phase, (c) the de-
 374 pendent variable(s) must reverse in the second A phase, that is,
 375 return to baseline levels, and (d) during the second B phase, the treat-
 376 ment effect must be re-established, that is, change in the dependent
 377 variable(s) is once again seen. This sequence of events allows within
 378 subject replication and when shown in several participants, across
 379 participant replication is established.

The methodological requirement that the dependent variable(s) 380
 return(s) to baseline levels in the second A phase presents a major 381
 problem for treatment research in aphasia, because the goal of such 382
 research is to improve language function. If the treatment is success- 383
 ful, a reversal is undesirable, and may not be possible. Although there 384
 are methods for “forcing a reversal”, such as training erroneous 385
 responding during the second A phase, this practice in aphasia treat- 386
 ment is not recommended. Furthermore, most aphasia treatment 387
 studies are geared toward showing longer-lasting effects. Demon- 388
 strating long term change confounds the reversal to baseline require- 389
 ments in these ABAB design, and thus need to be implemented and 390
 interpreted with caution. 391

The multiple baseline design. A frequently used alternative to the A–B– 392
 A–B design is the multiple baseline design across behaviors, which 393
 does not require returns to baseline levels of responding to demon- 394
 strate internal validity. This design, in essence, is a series of A–B de- 395
 signs, with sequential iterations of treatment applied to sets of 396
 stimuli, with increasing baseline periods for each set. For example, 397
 baseline (A phase) data are collected on two or more sets of stimuli 398
 for each participant and following this, treatment is applied to the 399
 first set (in the B phase), while the A phase is continued for untrained 400
 sets. When a treatment effect is established for the first set, treatment 401
 is extended to the second set, and so on, until all have been treated. 402
 Experimental control is demonstrated when changes in the dependen- 403
 t variable(s) occur only when the B phase is in effect for each beh- 404
 avior; baseline performance of untreated behaviors remains stable, 405
 until treated. Replication of the treatment effect within participants 406
 is established by showing improved performance when treatment is 407
 applied to each set of stimuli. Across subject replication is established 408
 by entering more than one participant into the study. 409

Because the multiple baseline design requires sequential applica- 410
 tion of treatment to separate sets of stimuli, order effects must be 411
 ruled out. Thus, application of treatment to selected stimulus sets is 412
 counterbalanced across participants and the number of participants 413
 required for a particular study depends on the number of sets. Take 414
 for example, a study examining the effects of treatment on naming. 415
 The experimenter decides to study two sets of words, with each set 416
 tested in the baseline phase and subsequently sequentially trained. 417
 To rule out order effects, the order of training each word set is 418
 counterbalanced; hence a minimum of two participants is required 419
 with each receiving a different order (i.e., word set order : 1, 2; 2, 420
 1). For full replication in such a study, four participants are required. 421
 Notably, as the number of behaviors selected for treatment increases, 422
 the number of participants required also increases. For example, for a 423
 study with three sets of words, six participants would be required for 424
 complete counterbalancing (i.e., word sets in the order 1,2,3; 1,3,2; 425
 2,1,3; 2,3,1; 3,1,2; 3,2,1) and an additional six for full replication. 426
 The nature of single-subject experimental design, however, allows re- 427
 searchers some flexibility with regard to participant numbers. For ex- 428
 ample, if in a study that technically requires 12 participants (i.e., in 429
 an experiment using a multiple baseline design across behaviors, in- 430
 volving three behaviors), the first six participants all respond to 431
 treatment as expected (i.e., they show acquisition of trained word 432
 sets as each is trained and maintain baseline levels of performance 433
 on untrained sets), this would constitute 18 replications of the treat- 434
 ment effect (3 replications × 6 participants), which is adequate for 435
 demonstrating the effects of treatment and for establishing internal va- 436
 lidity (see McReynolds and Thompson, 1986; Connell and Thompson, 437 Q14Q15
 1986). 438

Another issue relevant to the multiple baseline design across be- 439
 haviors is that the behaviors must be functionally independent and, 440
 at the same time, amenable to the treatment under investigation. 441
 This means, for example, that in a naming study using three sets of 442
 words, training one set would have no effect on the untreated sets. 443
 If the behaviors are not functionally independent, treatment of one 444

445 set may influence the others, that is, generalization may occur across
 446 sets. Although such an effect is often desired, particularly in aphasia
 447 treatment research when one goal is to examine for (and promote)
 448 generalization to untrained language behavior, this situation is exper-
 449 imentally problematic, that is, experimental control is lost.

450 Rather than using a multiple baseline design across behaviors,
 451 which requires sequential training of selected sets of items following
 452 baselines that remain stable according to a pre-set criteria (e.g., no
 453 greater than 20% change across three sessions) some researchers se-
 454 lect multiple sets of items, with the intent of leaving one set
 455 untrained, and expecting behavioral change on the trained, but not
 456 on the untrained (control) items. Changes in the experimental com-
 457 pared to control items is then compared statistically. This strategy
 458 provides internally valid data, if enough items are included in the
 459 trained and untrained lists. Note that the larger the stimulus set
 460 sizes, the greater the power for detecting changes as a function of
 461 treatment. However, this strategy carries a risk that generalization
 462 may occur from the trained to the untrained items. Although this
 463 often is a goal of aphasia intervention, its occurrence in this situation
 464 would result in a lack of experimental control, and hence a failed
 465 treatment study. It also is possible that untrained items may, for
 466 some reason, not be amenable to improvement under any circum-
 467 stances. To avoid this potential issue, stimuli can be randomly
 468 assigned to trained and untrained sets such that the comparisons of
 469 change are meaningful. Another approach to circumvent the potential
 470 confound of generalization/experimental control is to use a multiple
 471 baseline design across behaviors. Such a design requires checking
 472 for generalization to untrained sets throughout the course of treat-
 473 ment and applying the treatment to any untrained sets to which gen-
 474 eralization does not occur.

475 An alternative to the multiple baseline design across behaviors is
 476 the multiple baseline design across participants. Rather than using
 477 behaviors or stimulus sets to demonstrate experimental control,
 478 study participants are employed for this. Specifically, treatment is ap-
 479 plied to one (of several) study participants following baselines phases
 480 of varying length. The logic here is that treatment will improve lan-
 481 guage when and only when it is applied. Thus, if it is the treatment,
 482 and not extraneous variables, that are responsible for the behavioral
 483 effect, no change will be seen for any participant during the baseline
 484 phase, regardless of its length. Fridriksson et al. (2007), for example,
 485 employed this strategy by varying the order of treatment application
 486 across participants in their examination of the effects of phonological
 487 and semantic cueing in three aphasic individuals.

488 Combining the multiple baseline across behaviors and participants
 489 design is a particularly useful strategy for studying the effects of treat-
 490 ment for aphasia if one goal of the work is to examine for generaliza-
 491 tion from trained to untrained items. For example, Thompson et al.
 492 (2010) used this experimental design to study changes in neural acti-
 493 vation associated with treatment of sentence level deficits in six indi-
 494 viduals with Broca's (and concomitant agrammatic) aphasia. Three
 495 different, but psycholinguistically related, sentence types were select-
 496 ed to comprise the multiple baseline across behaviors and partici-
 497 pants were tested for their ability to comprehend and produce them
 498 in baseline phases of differing lengths. One sentence type at a time
 499 was then trained while generalization was examined to the untrained
 500 sentence types. Results showed successful generalization across
 501 sentences for all participants, as expected, precluding the necessity
 502 of training all sentence sets, but resulting in a lack of ability to show
 503 experimental control across behaviors (i.e., sentence sets). Rather, ex-
 504 perimental control was demonstrated across participants, in that no
 505 behavioral change was noted for any sets of stimuli during the base-
 506 line phase for any participant. Changes in the dependent measures
 507 (i.e., sentence comprehension and production) only occurred when
 508 treatment was applied. This extra design component serves as an in-
 509 surance policy; if generalization occurs, experimental control is
 510 maintained. There are other types of single subject controlled

511 experimental designs that can be used to examine the effects of
 512 treatment, however, the multiple baseline strategy – either across
 513 behaviors or participants – is the most commonly used and is likely
 514 the best suited for most studies of aphasia.

515 The primary limitation of single subject experimental, case-series
 516 designs pertains to the putative lack of ability to generalize findings
 517 derived from such studies to a larger population. This idea is true if
 518 one relies on inferential statistics to estimate the generalizability of
 519 findings. Indeed, parametric statistics is inappropriate for use with
 520 data derived from single subject experimentation (i.e., comparing
 521 performance in baseline compared to treatment phases) for a num-
 522 ber of reasons including serial dependency. In single subject, case se-
 523 ries designs external validity is addressed through replication of
 524 treatment effects within and across participants, both within indi-
 525 vidual studies and across studies. The logic is simple: the greater
 526 the number of replications, the greater the generality of the effect.
 527 This is no different than logical, non-statistical generality statements
 528 derived from between-group studies in which random selection is
 529 not accomplished.

530 Summary

531 Single-subject experimental or case series designs are powerful al-
 532 ternatives to group experimental design strategies and have several ad-
 533 vantages. Not only are fewer participants required, but also control
 534 groups of participants are not necessary because experimental control
 535 is demonstrated within participants rather than between participant
 536 groups. Additionally, and of particular importance for establishing the
 537 neural mechanisms of language recovery, these designs afford careful
 538 inspection of individual participant's learning patterns over time
 539 which can be captured as changes in BOLD signal as a function of treat-
 540 ment. We emphasize, however, that regardless of which design strategy
 541 is used, both single-subject and group approaches require that the
 542 proper experimental controls be put in place such that both behavioral
 543 (i.e., treatment-induced) and BOLD signal changes occurring from pre-
 544 to post-treatment can be directly attributed to the treatment provided.
 545 The precise design selected for this, of course, is at the discretion of the
 546 researcher and depends on the aims of the study.

547 Requirements of experimental treatment research

548 Independent of the experimental design used to establish experi-
 549 mental control, there are a number of other important requirements
 550 and considerations for designing studies to examine the neurobiology
 551 of language recovery. Several of these are discussed in other papers in
 552 the series, pertaining to describing and quantifying participant
 553 criteria associated with brain lesions (see Crinion et al., this volume)
 554 as well as the disrupted language system (see Rapp et al., this vol-
 555 ume). Here we address requirements for specification of and rationale
 556 for the treatment selected, including the dosage of treatment
 557 (i.e., the intensity and duration of treatment application), and the be-
 558 havioral tasks included to evaluate the outcome of treatment. We also
 559 address the linking between treatment outcome variables and the
 560 neuroimaging tasks selected. We also briefly discuss reliability of
 561 measurement.

562 Treatment and outcome measures

563 All experimental studies require specification of the independent
 564 and dependent variables. In research examining the neural mecha-
 565 nisms of treatment, the former include primarily the treatment itself
 566 (although other independent variables such as lesion age or volume,
 567 the extent of hypoperfused tissue, etc. also may be included in such
 568 studies), whereas the latter refer to measures employed to examine
 569 for changes in behavior and brain processing.

570 Defining the treatment under investigation in neuroimaging stud-
 571 ies is no different than in any other study examining treatment

efficacy in that a detailed description of all aspects of the treatment, including the stimuli, response criteria, and any training procedures is required. This is important such that the treatment can be replicated in future studies and applied with precision clinically. The dependent measures also require precise description, detailing how the outcome of treatment is to be measured. A common practice in treatment research is to develop probe tasks explicitly designed to measure the language behavior under study, as well as related behaviors, in conditions in which no feedback is provided. These tasks can include both on-line measures, such as reaction time, and/or off-line measures, depending on the goal of a particular experiment. It is the participant's responding to these probe tasks that serves as the primary dependent variable throughout the study.

For neuroimaging-based treatment research there are additional considerations pertaining to the independent and dependent variables. First, the relation between the selected treatment, and the impaired process(es) it is putatively addressing, and the behavioral outcome measure needs to be considered. That is, a clear explanation of how the treatment task addresses the impairment and how the dependent measure captures any change in the impaired process needs to be provided. For instance, in Marcotte and Ansaldo (2010) a semantic feature approach addressed severe anomia by boosting the targets' semantic representations to improve access to the impaired phonological word forms, a rationale based on Spreading activation Theory (Collins and Loftus, 1975); also, Davis et al. (2006) sought to improve naming in a patient with Wernicke's aphasia with a word comprehension deficit, putatively related to difficulty selecting items from lexical-semantic competitors. To remediate this problem, Davis et al. used a semantic-feature treatment, which trained the aphasic individual to select target items based on their semantic attributes. The idea was that this treatment would influence the ability to inhibit competitors and, hence, improve word comprehension.

Second, in neuroimaging studies of aphasia treatment it is necessary to elucidate how changes in processes targeted in treatment will trigger changes in brain processing, measurable using fMRI. That is, the brain regions engaged to support that process in healthy individuals and regions expected to be engaged to support recovery need to be considered. Crosson et al. (2005), for example, trained participants with aphasia to name objects as they performed a complex left-handed movement task, with the idea that this pairing should facilitate engagement of a right medial frontal intention mechanism and, hence, result in an increase in right pre-SMA activation. In addition, they hypothesized that treatment would result in an increase in right lateral frontal activation, associated with improved naming. In Marcotte and Ansaldo (2010), the semantic feature approach used was expected to promote the development of a semantic strategy for word retrieval, which could rely upon preserved semantic processing areas in the left and the right hemispheres.

A third consideration is the fMRI task used to evaluate the effects of treatment. That is, the task(s) must be designed such that the neural mechanisms underlying the language process under study are elucidated. Therefore, it is important for researchers to integrate the fMRI tasks and the tasks used to evaluate the behavioral outcome of treatment. This allows the activation patterns noted during fMRI tasks to be linked with behavioral changes associated with treatment. For example, Fridriksson et al. (2007, 2010), who used phonological and semantic cuing strategies to improve naming in individuals with anomia, directly examined naming ability prior to and following treatment, utilizing picture naming as the primary outcome variable associated with treatment improvement and as the fMRI task (Fridriksson et al., 2006, 2007). Marcotte and Ansaldo (2010) examined oral naming during fMRI scanning prior and after semantic feature therapy for anomia. The authors showed that plasticity operated differently in either case, despite the similarity of naming recovery profiles. In another study, Kiran et al. (2008) aimed to strengthen semantic representations in aphasic participants who presented with naming deficits resulting from an underlying semantic impairment. Hence, treatment

focused on strengthening semantic representations through feature verification and the fMRI tasks included picture naming as well as a semantic feature verification task (Kiran et al., 2008). By incorporating fMRI tasks that relate directly to the treatment tasks, interpretation of changes in patterns of activation as a function of treatment can be elucidated. When different tasks are used to evaluate the behavioral effects of treatment and the neurological impact of treatment, it is difficult to link improvement in treatment to changes from pre- to post-post fMRI scans.

Treatment dosage

The dosage of treatment, that is, treatment intensity and duration, is also important to consider. Indeed, the intensity of treatment for aphasia varies widely, with some treatments provided on a dense treatment schedule, for example, several hours a day. Meinzer et al. (2004, 2006) examined the effects of Constraint Induced Aphasia Therapy (CIAT), with treatment provided for 3 to 4 h per day. Other treatments evaluated for their effects on brain function have been provided on less dense daily schedules (e.g., 15 min to 1 h a day) (Leger et al., 2002; Raboyeau et al., 2008) or are provided for 2 to 3 days per week for 1 to 2 h (Marcotte and Ansaldo, 2010; Thompson et al., 2010). Importantly, the effect of the intensity of aphasia treatment is still not clear, even though it may critically impact treatment efficacy, including how the brain recovers language. Therefore, we cannot make specific recommendations for treatment intensity here. Researchers, however, need to specify how frequently treatment is applied and, ideally, justify the choice of treatment dosage within the context of the presumed mechanisms targeted in treatment.

Another issue is the duration of treatment, which may also directly impact brain function. Some researchers provide treatment for a predetermined period of time, which varies across studies. For example, in studies by Fridriksson et al. (2006), Raboyeau et al. (2008), and Leger et al. (2002) naming treatment was applied for two, four, and six weeks, respectively. This approach can be problematic because all participants may not respond equally well to treatment in the specified time period, and the neural recruitment patterns may vary because of variation in the degree to which the language behavior or process under treatment recovered. As a case in point, Vitali et al. (2007) showed differential learning (re-learning) patterns in their two participants with aphasia, with one participant reaching 50% naming accuracy on a set of trained items with four weeks of treatment and the other requiring eight weeks to achieve this level of performance. An alternative to setting an a priori treatment duration is to impose a behavioral criteria for termination of treatment. For instance, Thompson et al. (2010), interested in examining brain function associated with improved sentence comprehension and production in aphasia, provided treatment until their participants achieved an 80% accuracy level (with the idea that treatment would be terminated if this criterion were not met within 20 treatment sessions). Similarly, Marcotte and Ansaldo (2010) examined adaptive brain plasticity in two anomia cases, by describing the neural changes associated with a minimum of an 80% success rate following semantic feature therapy, delivered at a frequency of 3 weekly one-hour sessions, for a maximum of 3 weeks. In another study, Meinzer et al. (2006) terminated treatment after 10 consecutive treatment sessions and the patient was trained in the context of the constrained induced aphasia therapy protocol. Clearly, there may be reasons for selecting one approach versus the other (i.e., a predetermined temporal or behavioral criterion-based approach (or a combination of the two)). However, we emphasize here the need to provide a rationale for the approach taken and how this may influence reorganization of the language network. Furthermore, regardless of approach, in order to ascribe changes in neural activation resulting from treatment application, it is necessary to distinguish between responders and non-responders to treatment.

702 Reliability

703 One other important aspect of treatment research concerns the reli-
704 ability of measurement of both the independent and dependent vari-
705 ables included in the experiment. Treatment research largely involves
706 observation of human behavior and inherent in human observation is
707 human error, as well as observer bias. Although it is difficult, if not im-
708 possible, to overcome human error, estimates of reliability can be made
709 using measures of inter-observer agreement. Such measures involve
710 the use of an independent observer who, together with the primary ex-
711 perimenter, scores important events in the study, including details
712 pertaining to delivery of treatment (reliability on the independent vari-
713 able) and responses made on the dependent measures (reliability on
714 the dependent variable). With regard to the independent variable, the
715 observer quantifies salient aspects of treatment, for example, the num-
716 ber of experimental trials delivered per treatment session, adherence to
717 procedural detail within trials, and so on. Reliability on the dependent
718 variable involves scoring of participant responses on the probe task(s)
719 based on a pre-established criterion. When the independent observers
720 agree to a high degree, it is unlikely that human error or observer bias
721 is operating, adding an element of believability to the data. Lack of
722 agreement between observers alerts the experimenter to problems
723 with the experiment, for example, imprecise operational definitions of
724 the study variables, which if discovered early in the course of an exper-
725 iment can be modified.

726 Reliability of performance during scan tasks also is important.
727 Whereas reaction times are automatically recorded in tasks that re-
728 quire a button press response, tasks that require production require
729 that at least a subset of responses be coded by independent observers,
730 with subsequent calculation of inter-observer agreement.

731 Finally, test–retest reliability is a critical issue in treatment studies,
732 since most of the studies that have been published to date have not
733 had a control group or a group of patients scanned multiple times. It
734 is important to establish that imaging changes are actually attribut-
735 able to the intervention and not due to scanning a single patient or
736 a group of patients twice. Very few studies have been conducted in
737 which imaging studies have been done multiple times over the course
738 of the study (Kurland et al., 2012; Sarasso et al., 2010). In one study,
739 Sarasso et al. (2010), conducted six fMRI scans during the course of
740 an intervention study, three sessions were conducted prior to the
741 start of therapy, the fourth and fifth three and six weeks after the ini-
742 tiation of therapy and the fifth week and the sixth fMRI session
743 conducted nine months after therapy. This study does not specifically
744 examine habituation effects on signal intensity changes but finds
745 changes in functional connectivity only in the fMRI scans subsequent
746 to treatment and not before treatment.

747 Conclusion

748 To conclude, it is clear that the initial wave of exploratory studies ex-
749 amining the neural mechanisms associated with treatment-induced
750 language recovery has been completed. As in any science, much of
751 this early work was not subjected to rigorous scientific scrutiny, be-
752 cause the novelty of the findings outweighed the methodological short-
753 comings of the research. Nevertheless, the general finding derived from
754 these studies is that changes in language performance are associated
755 with functional changes in the neural architecture of language process-
756 ing. The next phase of neuroimaging-based treatment studies using
757 fMRI needs to be carefully designed and implemented such that any
758 changes in neural activation following a period of treatment can be di-
759 rectly associated with the treatment provided and not to other
760 uncontrolled variables. For instance, future studies will need to consider
761 what change in BOLD signal as a function of treatment may indicate. It
762 may be possible that an increase in task-dependent BOLD is a sign of in-
763 creased neural processing (i.e., more effort requires more BOLD signal),
764 while others see therapy (or time-related) behavioral improvements

765 associated with a decrease in BOLD. Clearly, these kinds of BOLD effects
766 may differ between the two hemispheres and will need to be consid-
767 ered in the fMRI analyses as well as interpreted within the context of
768 treatment effects.

769 We point out here that this can be accomplished using either
770 single-subject/case series or group experimental designs, but urge
771 that researchers, when implementing these approaches, adhere to
772 the methodological requirements inherent in each. We also point
773 out that in order to fully understand the impact of treatment on
774 brain function, special attention to issues related to the treatment se-
775 lected, behavioral and neuroimaging outcome variables and reliabili-
776 ty of measurement must be considered.

777 Given that considerable effort is currently focused on examining
778 resting-state and functional connectivity changes in stroke patients
779 with aphasia to better understand mechanisms of language recovery,
780 it is expected that principles underlying accurate and systematic ex-
781 amination of the effects of treatment will be the same as what is
782 discussed in this paper. Indeed, the ultimate goal of this work is to un-
783 derstand the optimal conditions for promoting language recovery in
784 aphasia. What we learn will only be as robust as our science.

Uncited references 785

786 Barlow and Hersen, 1984
787 Kearns, 1986

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