

Predicting early post-stroke aphasia outcome from initial aphasia severity

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48 **Abstract**

49

50 **Background:** The greatest degree of language recovery in post-stroke aphasia takes place within the
51 first weeks. Aphasia severity and lesion measures have been shown to be good predictors of long-term
52 outcomes. However, little is known about their implications in early spontaneous recovery. The present
53 study sought to determine which factors better predict early language outcomes in individuals with
54 post-stroke aphasia.

55 **Methods:** Twenty individuals with post-stroke aphasia were assessed < 72 hours (acute) and 10-14 days
56 (subacute) after stroke onset. We developed a composite score (CS) consisting of several linguistic sub-
57 tests: repetition, oral comprehension and naming. Lesion volume, lesion load and diffusion measures
58 (fractional anisotropy (FA) and axial diffusivity (AD)) from both arcuate fasciculi (AF) were also
59 extracted using MRI scans performed at the same time points. A series of regression analyses were
60 performed to predict the CS at the second assessment.

61 **Results:** Among the diffusion measures, only FA from right AF was found to be a significant predictor
62 of early subacute aphasia outcome. However, when combined in two hierarchical models with FA, age
63 and either lesion load or lesion size, the initial aphasia severity was found to account for most of the
64 variance ($R^2 = 0.678$), not far from the complete models ($R^2 = 0.703$ and $R^2 = 0.73$, respectively).

65 **Conclusions:** Initial aphasia severity is the best predictor of early post-stroke aphasia outcome, whereas
66 lesion measures and age show a minor influence. We suggest that factors predicting early recovery may
67 differ from those involved in long-term recovery.

68

69 **Introduction**

70 Aphasia represents one of the most devastating cognitive consequences of a stroke. It is
71 associated with higher levels of anger, loneliness, social isolation and greater difficulties in resuming
72 daily life activities (e.g., return to work).(1) The resulting impairments can partially recover in the days,
73 weeks or months after a stroke,(2) but the degree of recovery varies widely across individuals.(3–5) To
74 date, the degree of recovery has been primarily associated with three kinds of factors:(6) demographic
75 variables (such as age or education),(4) lesion-related variables (such as lesion size and lesion location)
76 (7,8) and clinical variables (including the type and severity of aphasia, and also treatment provided to
77 the patient).(9) While demographic variables have a weak association with long-term outcomes,(10)
78 lesion-related factors have been shown to have a strong relationship with long-term recovery.(6,11)
79 However, clinical variables remain the most widely used measures for clinicians to gain insight into the
80 patient's clinical progression.(12) Current research focuses on investigating which are the most reliable
81 factors that enable clinicians to predict long-term outcomes and that help predict recovery.

82

83 Among the clinical variables, initial aphasia severity seems to be one of the best predictors of
84 aphasia outcome.(4,13,14) For instance, Kertesz and McCabe showed that the initial Aphasia Quotient
85 (AQ, aphasia severity scale from the Western Aphasia Battery,(15) henceforth referred to as WAB)
86 was a good predictor of aphasia recovery at 6- and 12-months, while age or sex did not improve
87 prognosis accuracy.(16) More recently, Lazar and colleagues proposed a modified version of the AQ
88 for acute stroke assessment (mean = 2.1 days).(13) Their mean composite score was composed of the
89 comprehension, repetition and naming sections of the WAB, having all sections equal weight on the
90 final score. Using this modified AQ, they reported that initial severity was a good predictor of recovery
91 during the first 90 days post-stroke. Although the results were clear, this study evaluated patients with

92 only mild to moderate aphasia, which neglects those patients with more severe language deficits in
93 which recovery results are more difficult to capture. A recent study found evidence that the interaction
94 between severity and other variables may be different in patients with more severe aphasia.(17)
95 Inclusion of patients with severe aphasia entails more difficulty in the analysis of data, but is necessary
96 to picture a more realistic and clinically relevant scenario.(12) Furthermore, another gap in the
97 literature is the study of the spontaneous recovery, scarcely studied in the weeks after stroke onset
98 (3,18,19), and impossible to analyze in longitudinal studies due to the effect of therapy and
99 rehabilitation. Recently, Wilson and colleagues described the evolution of aphasia during the first 2
100 weeks after a stroke, and explored how language recovers promptly in different modalities within the
101 first week post-stroke.(20) However, no measures were taken to assess the biomarkers that might
102 predict this recovery.

103
104 As for lesion-related factors, they are also broadly used to predict aphasia outcomes. Although
105 lesion size has been shown to be a good predictor of stroke and aphasia outcomes, (7,21,22) the study
106 of specific damaged structures has recently been determined to be a more accurate index for specific
107 impairments. Because most patients with post-stroke aphasia have damage near/in the middle cerebral
108 artery,(23) lesions to specific structures in this territory have been linked to aphasia symptoms. For
109 instance, the superior temporal gyrus, the pars opercularis of the inferior frontal gyrus, the anterior
110 insula and the supramarginal gyrus are among the areas most frequently related to aphasia
111 symptoms.(24) However, contemporary frameworks of language processing consider language
112 functions to be a result of processing cores working in an interconnected network. This functional
113 network is supported by pathway structures linking the areas of processing, i.e. the white matter
114 bundles. Therefore, if white matter structures are important to establish linguistic abilities, they may be
115 good candidates to support aphasia recovery.(25)

116
117 Among all the white matter structures in the brain, probably the one that is the most studied in
118 relation to language is the arcuate fasciculus (AF).(26,27) This fiber bundle, which connects areas from
119 the temporal, parietal and frontal cortical areas through its three segments,(23) has been linked to
120 several language functions, from speech-in-noise perception to syntax processing. Researchers have
121 used diffusion magnetic resonance imaging (dMRI) measures to assess the influence of the lesioned AF
122 in the language breakdown, either through the integrity of its structure(28–30) or through its properties.
123 Other approaches include combinations of grey and white matter,(31,32) or the quantitative measure of
124 the spared white matter in the contralesional hemisphere.(33,34) However, most studies that have
125 investigated the role of white matter in aphasia outcomes are performed during the chronic phase of
126 recovery. Therefore, there is a lack of evidence regarding the role of the white matter in early and
127 spontaneous recovery from aphasia.

128
129 In this study, we intended to explore outcomes of aphasia in the first 2 weeks after stroke onset.
130 We also intended to elucidate which factors, either related to the lesion characteristics or the preserved
131 language skills, are accurate predictors of these outcomes in patients at the beginning of their subacute
132 phase, before having received any therapy. To our knowledge, no previous study has evaluated the
133 degree of improvement between the acute and sub-acute phase using analyses that combine more than
134 one language ability and neuroimaging measures. This work could provide new information that can be
135 used to improve the prediction of aphasia recovery and the planification of rehabilitation of patients in
136 the long-term. Based on previous evidence,(13,20) we hypothesized that initial severity will predict the
137 early recovery, but only partially given that the dynamics of recovery are more unstable in this phase
138 than in the phases more commonly reported in the literature (e.g., at 3, 6 months post-onset). We also
139 predicted that there is a relationship between the diffusion measures from the arcuate fasciculus, given

140 its proven importance as a predictor for language abilities in other studies,(34–36) and the early
141 outcomes two weeks after onset.

142 **Materials and Methods**

143

144 **Participants**

145

146 Twenty participants took part in this study (5 women; mean age: 71.6 ± 12.45 years; mean
147 education: 10.05 ± 5.04). Participants presented with aphasia due to a first single ischemic stroke in the
148 left middle cerebral artery. No criteria concerning aphasia severity or lesion size were adopted. All
149 participants were diagnosed by a neurologist at the Stroke Unit at Hôpital du Sacré-Coeur de Montréal
150 and screened for eligibility. Initial assessments took place within the first 72 hours (mean = 2.3 days)
151 after stroke onset, and the following assessments took place 7 to 15 days later (mean = 10.55 days).
152 Therefore, two time points will be defined as “initial time point” and “10 days time point”. Clinical and
153 sociodemographic information of the entire sample are presented in Table 1. All participants were
154 fluent speakers of French or English before stroke and completed their evaluation either in French
155 (n=18) or in English (n=2), using equivalent stimuli in the case of English dominant speakers.
156 Exclusion criteria included a history of major psychiatric disorder(s), learning disabilities, severe
157 perceptual deficits, additional neurological diagnoses or left-handedness. No participant presented with
158 pronounced subcortical arteriosclerosis. The study was approved by the ethics review board (Project
159 #MP-32-2018-1478) of the research center of the Centre intégré universitaire de santé et de services du
160 Nord-de-l’Île-de-Montréal, in the Hôpital Sacré Coeur de Montreal. Written informed consent was
161 obtained from all participants.

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164 Insert Table 1 approximately here

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166

167 **Rationale, construction, and scoring of the Aphasia Composite Score**

168

169 Based on Lazar et al.,(13) we developed a composite score (CS) adapted for the French- and
170 English-speaking population that consisted of three subscores: comprehension, repetition and naming.
171 For the comprehension subscore, we combined the Word-Sentence Comprehension Task (max = 47
172 points) of the Montreal-Toulouse(37) and the revised (short) version of the Token Test(38) (max = 36
173 points), which includes oral comprehension of words, sentences and sequential commands. The
174 repetition subscore was assessed using the repetition task (2 points for each word/nonword (n=30) and
175 5 points for each sentence (n=3), max = 75 points) of the MT-86.(37) Finally, the naming subscore
176 consisted of using the DO-80(39) (max = 80 points) and the semantic fluency task (max = 25 points) of
177 the Protocole Montréal d’Évaluation de la Communication.(40) The Boston Naming Test (BNT) was
178 used instead of the DO-80 in the cases in which participants were more proficient in English.(41) Each
179 of the three subscores was computed to a possible score of 10, so the maximum CS was equal to 30.
180 Initial aphasia severity ($CS_{initial}$) and sub-acute severity ($CS_{10\text{ days}}$) were calculated for each participant,
181 as well as their potential recovery (potential recovery = $30 - CS_{initial}$) and their achieved recovery
182 (achieved $\Delta CS = CS_{10\text{ days}} - CS_{initial}$). A percentage of factual recovery per individual was computed as
183 achieved recovery = (achieved ΔCS / Potential recovery).

184

185 **Neuroimaging processing and tractography analyses**

186

187 Participants underwent an MRI scan the same day of each language assessment. The MRI
188 protocol was acquired using a Skyra 3T MRI scanner (Siemens Healthcare, USA) at the Radiology
189 Department of Hôpital du Sacré-Coeur in Montreal. One high resolution 3D T1-weighted scan was
190 acquired using a Magnetization Prepared Rapid Gradient Echo (MP-RAGE) sequence (TR = 2200 ms,
191 TE = 2.96 ms, TI = 900 ms, voxel size = 1x1x1 mm³, matrix = 256x256, 192 slices, flip angle = 8
192 degrees). A diffusion weighted imaging (DWI) series of sequences in a posterior-anterior acquisition
193 (64 images with non-collinear diffusion gradients at $b = 1,000$ s/mm² with TR = 8051 ms, TE = 86 ms,
194 FOV = 230 mm, voxel size = 2 mm×2 mm×2 mm, flip angle = 90 degrees, bandwidth = 1698Hz; EPI
195 factor=67) was also acquired. In addition, two T2-weighted images at $b = 0$ s/mm² were also acquired
196 one in a posterior-anterior acquisition, one in an anterior-posterior acquisition to correct for distortion
197 caused by magnetic field inhomogeneities. Stroke lesions were demarcated using a semi-automated
198 demarcation performed with *Clusterize*(42) ([http://www.medizin.uni-](http://www.medizin.uni-tuebingen.de/kinder/en/research/neuroimaging/software/)
199 [tuebingen.de/kinder/en/research/neuroimaging/software/](http://www.medizin.uni-tuebingen.de/kinder/en/research/neuroimaging/software/)). Agreement between a manual segmentation
200 and the semi-automated lesion maps obtained with *Clusterize* has been shown to be excellent in acute
201 stroke using CT, DWI and T2 FLAIR.(43) Moreover, ADC maps extracted from the DWI sequence are
202 less sensitive to imaging artifacts (i.e. T2-shine-through) than DWI images(44) and both have high
203 sensitivity for detecting acute ischemic stroke.(45) Thus, stroke lesions were segmented with the ADC
204 maps using *Clusterize*, and were verified and corrected by two other independent judges afterwards.
205 Lesion size was estimated in mL. After lesion demarcation, regions of interest were extracted using
206 FreeSurfer (<https://surfer.nmr.mgh.harvard.edu>) and tensors and fiber orientation maps were obtained
207 using MRtrix3. Previous research has shown the importance of the AF for recovery from aphasia, but
208 some studies indicate the AF in the left hemisphere is more important(35,36), whereas others suggest
209 the right hemisphere is relevant for recovery.(34) Based on this converging evidence regarding the role
210 of the long segment of the AF in language recovery in patients with aphasia, we extracted the fractional
211 anisotropy (FA), the axial diffusivity (AD) and the lesion load of this fiber bundle in both hemispheres.
212 AD was chosen over other diffusivity measures since it has been more directly related to acute post-
213 stroke recovery in motor impairments compared to other measures.(46) Lesion load was calculated
214 from the number of voxels that were defined as AF inside the lesion size of each participant, weighted
215 by the number the same voxels occupied by the AF in healthy participants, described in another study
216 of our team.(47)

217 218 **Statistical analyses**

219
220 First, we performed tests on the behavioral measures alone to evaluate whether there was a
221 significant improvement of language impairment during the first two weeks following a stroke. Since
222 CS_{10 days} and some of the subscores showed a non-normal distribution (a Shapiro Wilk normality test
223 revealed the scores for comprehension_(10 days), repetition_(initial), repetition_(10 days), being $p < .05$ in all
224 cases), we conducted a Wilcoxon signed rank test for paired-samples between CS_{initial} and CS_{10 days} and
225 between the paired subscores, with at least one subscore having a non-normal distribution. For the
226 other pair whose distribution was normal (naming), a paired-sample t-test was used. We also inspected
227 how much of the achieved score was influenced by the potential recovery.

228
229 Second, we performed different analyses to determine which variables predict more accurate
230 CS_{10 days}. We first performed a series of Pearson correlations to test the association between all our
231 variables of interest with CS_{10 days}. Correlation analyses were corrected at a level of significance of $\alpha =$
232 0.01. Subsequently, to test which variables best fit an ultimate regression model, we performed several
233 regressions analyses in different steps. In a first step, a backwards analysis was performed to determine
234 which diffusion variables extracted from the arcuate fasciculus (i.e., FA from left AF; FA from right
235 AF; AD from left AF; AD from right AF) was more so related to the dependent variable. The variables

236 that were found to be significant were included in a hierarchical multivariate regression later. Two
237 models of this hierarchical regression were tested. Both of them were computed in t blocks: in the first
238 block, age and initial aphasia severity were entered as control variables, or covariates (since previous
239 research has already shown a certain capacity of prediction of both of them for later outcomes in
240 aphasia);(6) in the second block, we introduced either lesion size (first hierarchical model) or lesion
241 load of the left AF (second hierarchical model); in the third block, we introduced the significant
242 diffusion variables from the first regression that we performed. Doing so, we could differentiate the
243 contribution of the patient-related- and the different lesion-related-factors in the final prediction of the
244 outcome.

246 Results

247
248 Individual CS scores during the initial and second assessment are reported in Table 2. Three
249 participants showed a deterioration during the two time points; the rest of the participants showed an
250 improvement in CS scores. As a group, the mean $CS_{initial}$ was 17.57 (SD = 7.55), whereas the mean
251 CS_{10days} was 21.68 (SD = 6.01). There was a significant overall improvement in language functioning
252 during the follow-up ($Z = 3.547$, $P < 0.001$). The mean improvement in CS for the whole group was
253 33% (SD = 26.9), i.e. 33% of the potential recovery was reported on average. Achieved ΔCS positively
254 correlated with the potential ΔCS ($r = 0.651$, $P = 0.002$). A visual representation of this relation can be
255 seen in the figure 1 in the supplementary materials. All three subscores (i.e., comprehension, repetition
256 and naming) were significantly improved between the initial assessment and the follow-up
257 (Comprehension Wilcoxon signed ranks test, $Z = 3.771$, $P < 0.001$; Repetition Wilcoxon signed ranks
258 test, $Z = -3.115$, $P = 0.002$; naming paired-sample t-test = -2.329 , $df = 18$, $P = 0.031$). A visual
259 comparison can be seen in the figure 2 in the supplementary materials.

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261 *****

262 Insert Table 2 approximately here.

263 *****

264 Only one model was significant as a result of the backwards regression analysis that used the
265 diffusion variables and CS_{10days} as dependent variable. The model included FA from right AF (rFA) and
266 AD from left AF after elimination of the less contributing variables ($R^2 = 0.282$). From these two
267 variables, only rFA was found to have a significant coefficient ($\beta = 0.590$, $P = 0.23$). Thus, rFA was the
268 only diffusion variable included in the hierarchical regression analyses with the rest of the variables.

269
270 Two hierarchical multivariate regressions were computed, each one with a different variable
271 that represented a measure of the lesion: the first consisted of a three-block computation, where $CS_{initial}$
272 and age were introduced in the first block, lesion load of the left AF was introduced in the second block
273 and rFA was introduced in the second block. The second regression consisted of the same procedure,
274 but we used lesion size in the second block. Before performing the regression analysis, we performed a
275 correlation analysis between the possible predictors to determine the independence of the variables. $CS_{initial}$,
276 lesion load and lesion size were found to have a significant correlation with the dependent variable
277 (respectively, $r = 0.810$, $P < 0.001$; $r = -0.515$, $P = 0.02$; -0.628 , $P = 0.003$; see Table 3 for all
278 correlations between the variables).

279
280
281 After this, regression analyses were performed. Results are reported in Table 4. First, we
282 decided to run univariate regressions to determine the possible predictive power of each of the lesion-
283 related measures, i.e. lesion size, lesion load of AF and rFA, and the initial severity ($CS_{initial}$) on the
284 CS_{10days} . Regressions with lesion size, lesion load and initial severity were found to be significant. Each

285 accounted, respectively, for 39%, 26.5% and 67.3% of the variance of the dependent variable. The next
286 step consisted of performing a multivariate regression analyses with the previous variables and age
287 (used as a covariate). When combined in the first block of the hierarchical analysis, CS_{initial} and age
288 explained 67.8% of the variance ($R^2 = 0.678$), with a $F = 17.874$ ($P < 0.001$, $df = 19$), and CS_{initial}
289 being the only variable whose coefficient was significant ($\beta = 0.824$; $P < 0.001$). Adding the second
290 block to the model allowed us to see two possible results that depended on the lesion-related variable.
291 If lesion load was added, it did not add more R^2 to the previous model, and the CS_{initial} was still the
292 only significant coefficient ($P = 0.001$). If lesion size was added, it explained up to 71.7% of the
293 variance ($R^2 = 0.717$) with a $F = 10.130$ ($P < 0.001$, $df = 19$). We added a third block in each
294 regression, which included the rFA. Inclusion of this variable increased 2.6% in the variance account of
295 the regression that used the lesion load (R^2 change = - 0.007), and 2.3% in the case of the regression
296 that used lesion size (R^2 change = - 0.006). Both changes were not significant. We decided to run a
297 variance inflation factor analysis (VIF) to discard multi-collinearity (or dependency) among the
298 predictors, since two of these predictors in each model were highly correlated with the dependent
299 variable. No predictor was found to be extremely collinear with the others.

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301 *****

302 Insert Table 4 approximately here.

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304

305 Discussion

306 Substantial improvement in language performance occurred within the first two weeks after
307 stroke; this was measured using a composite score of several language functions in patients with mild
308 to severe aphasia. As previously reported, there was a significant correlation between the degree of the
309 achieved recovery (achieved ΔCS) and the potential improvement (potential ΔCS); however, our
310 assessment time points were different than those previously reported in a study using similar
311 measures.(13) As for the predictions of the composite score during the early sub-acute phase, the most
312 successful model consisted of a combination of age, lesion size, initial aphasia severity and FA of the
313 long segment of the right AF. Even without the diffusion measure, the model could predict up to 70%
314 of the variance of the severity during the sub-acute phase. Most importantly, the predictive power of
315 the initial aphasia severity (univariate model) was close to the multivariate models including lesion
316 measures, which indicates that among all our variables, it was the best predictor for severity at the
317 second time point.

318

319 Recovery from aphasia peaks during the first weeks after onset,(3,4) but it is difficult to ensure
320 that all changes in the abilities are constrained by time. We have reported here, as has also been
321 recently reported elsewhere,(20) that it is possible to capture this process with a sensitive and reliable
322 assessment. As is typical when quantifying these processes, patients with higher initial severities also
323 show more recovery, due to a larger level of possible improvement. Other patients with a lower initial
324 severity improved less, or even slightly deteriorated during this period. These patients' recovery results
325 may depend on other factors that do not systematically contribute to their recovery as successfully as in
326 other patients. The reasons for this may vary from individual physiological factors, such as the brain's
327 blood supply and modulation of post-stroke neuroinflammation(5) to more patient-related factors, such
328 as previous language use or socio-individual situation.

329

330 The effective recovery that occurs during the early stage of aphasia remains an important part of
331 the whole recovery process, but it is highly variable between individuals. This variability is reflected in
332 the different rates of recovery per individual, which tend to stabilize over time.(18,48) Most studies
333 have investigated the prediction of language outcomes (either from damaged or spared brain areas and

334 for long term outcomes) such that the “size or site”, or any combination of both, could explain severity,
335 symptoms and prognosis of aphasia.(28,31,34,49,50) Conversely, we present evidence that different
336 factors may account for the early phases of recovery, and more specifically, these factors may influence
337 spontaneous recovery. Previous studies have reported that initial aphasia severity, isolated or in
338 combination with other biological measures, can account for a large amount of variance in the long
339 term.(13,17) It has been also shown that different white matter structures may be involved in the
340 outcome of aphasia at different stages, although this has not been explored during early recovery.(51)
341 This evidence indicates that behavioral measures are useful for predicting the linguistic abilities at
342 several phases of aphasia recovery and may explain its dynamics in a more detailed way than has been
343 explored to date. Based on these data, we propose that initial language severity may have a greater
344 influence for short-term overall language prediction; whereas lesion-related variables may be more
345 important for the prediction of specific language domains or for long-term predictions.
346

347 One of the main hypotheses about the mechanisms of aphasia recovery is the involvement of
348 spared contralateral homologue structures during the acute phase(52), as a prelude to a different stage
349 of recovery where left hemisphere structures are involved,(33,52) reflecting a better long-term
350 recovery. The right arcuate fasciculus was the white matter structure that better predicted aphasia
351 outcomes after stroke in our sample, which is in line with previous findings in the literature(34).
352 However, its involvement, as measured using FA, is much less significant when introduced into a
353 multivariate model. One explanation is that the stabilization of recovery had not yet reached its peak
354 because pathophysiological processes may have avoided a right “uptake” from the right arcuate
355 fasciculus, and the timing of the assessment may have been too close to stroke onset to see differences.
356 Previous studies have looked into changes in white matter structures over time after lesions,(54,55) but
357 these changes have been reported only at long term time points and under specific therapies. The
358 emerging question is whether initial aphasia severity, and therefore the degree of early recovery,
359 influences the changes of these structures in the long term.
360

361 Limitations of this study include the small sample size and the analysis that was limited to only
362 one white matter tract. In order to analyze the complex process of spontaneous recovery, more factors
363 should be addressed, specifically the structures that have been flagged as potential scaffolding for later
364 recovery, such as the inferior fronto-occipital fasciculus or the uncinate fasciculus.(51) However, we
365 have been able to explain a large part of language outcome after almost two weeks in individuals with
366 aphasia using linguistic assessments and biological measures that do not target specific structures. This
367 suggests that cognitive evaluation remains one of the most useful tools in the acute stages of aphasia
368 and in the study of its evolution. Future studies should address differences between recovery phases
369 with more neuroimaging techniques and with a larger sample to help account for the variability that this
370 disorder presents in daily clinical practice.

Table 1. Participants' sociodemographic and clinical information.

	Sex	Age	Educ. (years)	Initial NIHSS score	rTPA	Aphasia type	Severity (BDAE Scale)	Lesion location				Lesion size (mL)
								F	T	P	S	
1	M	52	9	n/a	yes	TC mixed	Moderate to severe	X				35
2	M	74	6	9	yes	Wernicke	Severe	X	X	X		20
3	M	61	10	6	no	Broca	Moderate to severe	X		X		12
4	M	49	9	6	no	Anomic	Mild to moderate	X		X	X	2
5	M	73	19	18	no	Wernicke	Severe	X		X		16
6	M	83	9	9	no	TC sensory	Moderate	X		X		35
7	F	73	7	n/a	no	TC sensory	Moderate	X	X	X		6
8	M	65	11	6	yes	Anomic	Mild	X	X			12
9	M	72	15	11	yes	TC mixed	Moderate to severe	X		X	X	1
10	M	87	9	6	no	Anomic	Mild	X				3
11	M	55	11	23	yes	TC mixed	Moderate to severe	X		X		98
12	M	73	11	n/a	yes	Wernicke	Moderate to severe		X	X	X	16
13	M	64	15	n/a	yes	Conduction	Mild			X		16
14	F	95	6	1	no	Broca	Mild to moderate			X		13
15	F	60	12	7	yes	Anomic	Mild to moderate	X	X		X	.26
16	M	91	19	7	no	Anomic	Mild to moderate	X			X	.10

17	F	85	16	n/a	no	TC mixed	Moderate		X	14
18	M	71	7	n/a	no	TC motor	Moderate	X	X	1
19	F	81	15	17	yes	Anomic	Mild		X	10
20	F	68	12	n/a	yes	Anomic	Mild	X	X	.33

rTPA = Recombinant tissue plasminogen activator

F = Frontal, T = Temporal, P = Parietal, S = Subcortical

BDAE scale = Boston Denomination Aphasia Examination severity scale

Table 2. Participants' Composite Scores (CS)

Participants	CS INITIAL	CS₁₀ DAYS	ACHIEVED ΔCS	POTENTIAL ΔCS	% Achieved recovery
1	8.20	24.78	16.58	21.80	76%
2	10.24	13.81	3.56	19.76	18%
3	11.51	15.34	3.83	18.68	21%
4	24.82	27.44	2.62	5.18	51%
5	7.71	14.02	6.31	22.29	28%
6	3.01	14.51	10.50	26.10	40%
7	14.36	17.23	2.86	15.64	18%
8	28.53	28.88	0.35	1.47	24%
9	21.33	28.11	6.77	8.67	78%
10	10.63	9.90	-0.74	19.37	- 4%
11	19.35	18.63	-0.72	10.65	- 7%
12	12.76	14.79	2.03	17.24	12%
13	27.46	28.90	1.44	2.54	57%
14	16.27	22.86	6.59	13.73	48%
15	23.60	21.73	-1.87	6.40	- 29%
16	19.01	25.07	4.99	9.91	50%
17	12.30	22.39	10.08	17.70	57%
18	18.59	21.83	3.24	11.41	28%
19	26.79	27.70	0.91	3.21	28%
20	26.74	28.78	2.04	3.26	62%
MEAN	17.57	21.68	4.10 (4.31)	12.43 (7.55)	33% (26.9)
(SD)	(7.55)	(6.01)			

Table 3. Matrix with all correlations between independent variables (Initial severity, Age, Lesion load, Lesion size, rFA) and the dependent variable (CS_{10 days}). Pearson coefficients are reported (level of p). All correlations have been corrected to a threshold of $\alpha = 0.01$.

	Initial severity	Age	Lesion load	Lesion size	FA from right AF	CS_{10days}
Initial severity	_____	-.045 (.850)	-.666 (.004)*	-.521 (.032)*	.237 (.360)	.821 (<.001)**
Age		_____	.006 (.980)	-.335 (.189)	-.417 (.097)	.051 (.846)
Lesion load			_____	.457 (.065)	-.163 (.533)	-.569 (.017)*
Lesion size				_____	-.335 (.189)	-.628 (.007)*
FA from right AF					_____	.349 (.170)

* Equals to $p < .01$

** Equals to $p < .001$

Table 4. Summary of results from regression models.

Model	Independent variables	ANOVA F (p)	R²	Best coefficient (β, p)
Backwards	FA _r + AD _L	3.49 (0.05)	0.3	rFA (0.571, 0.023)*
Univariate	CS _{initial}	37.17 (<0.001) **	0.673	
Univariate	Lesion size	11.75 (0.003)*	0.39	
Univariate	Lesion load	6.506 (0.02)*	0.265	
Hierarchical	Age, CS _{initial} , Lesion size, rFA	10.130 (<0.001)**	0.73	CS _{initial} (0.789, 0.001**)
Hierarchical	Age, CS _{initial} , Lesion load, rFA	9.036 (0.001)**	0.71	CS _{initial} (0.659, 0.001**)

* Equals to $p < .05$

** Equals to $p < .001$

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