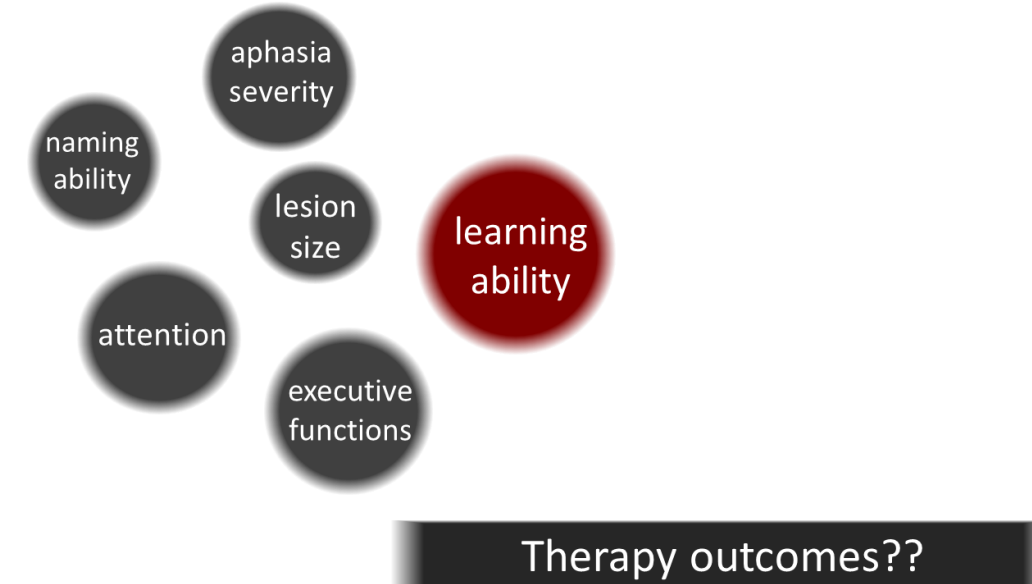


Introduction



Severity of language impairment and lesion size present important predictors of *spontaneous* recovery in aphasia (Plowman et al., 2012 for review). In the phases or *rehabilitation* however, patients with similar degrees of language impairment show variable responses to treatment (Lambon-Ralph et al., 2010).

Can a new measure, learning ability, help predict therapy outcomes?

Background

For many years the general rehabilitation literature has pointed to cognitive factors as important factors in patient progress with therapy.

- Attentional systems have been identified as important in the top-down processing and gating of incoming information (Robertson & Murray, 1999)
- Skills of abstract reasoning, thinking, verbal memory, comprehension and orientation have been implicated as important skills for learning and functional carry-over of rehabilitation into real life (Galski et al., 1993).

Studies in aphasia have begun to identify a mix of cognitive and linguistic factors as measures correlated with success with therapy (Fillingham et al., 2005; Lambon Ralph et al., 2010).

In the current study, we explore a novel factor and its relationship to rehabilitation outcomes: **learning ability**.

- Recent research has demonstrated that non-linguistic category learning in aphasia is not carried out in a way commensurate with controls (Vallila-Rohter & Kiran, 2013a).
- Furthermore, stimulus characteristics influence degrees of non-linguistic learning in patients with aphasia (Vallila-Rohter & Kiran, 2013b).
- Rehabilitation studies in individuals with Schizophrenia have found an association between measures of *learning potential* and outcomes. Performance on a modified Wisconsin Card Sort Task (WCST) related to performance in rehabilitation and three months post-treatment (Watzke et al., 2008).

Could learning ability represent a patient's potential to improve in therapy?

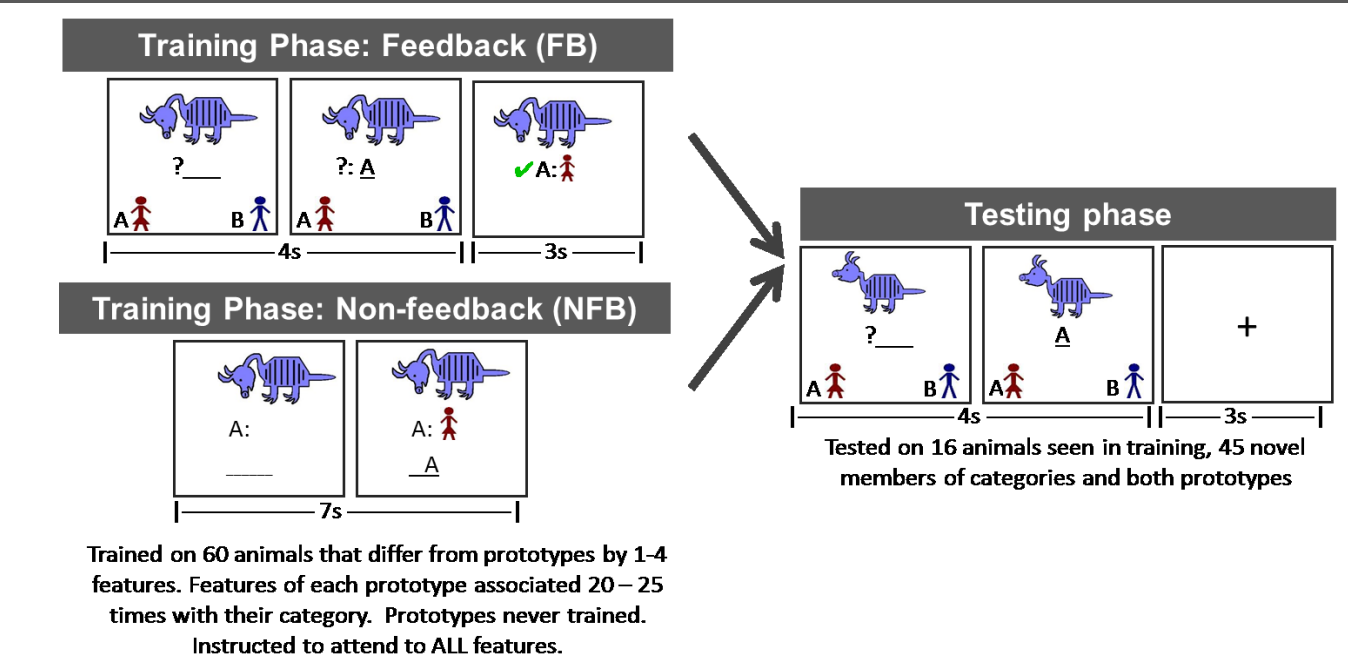
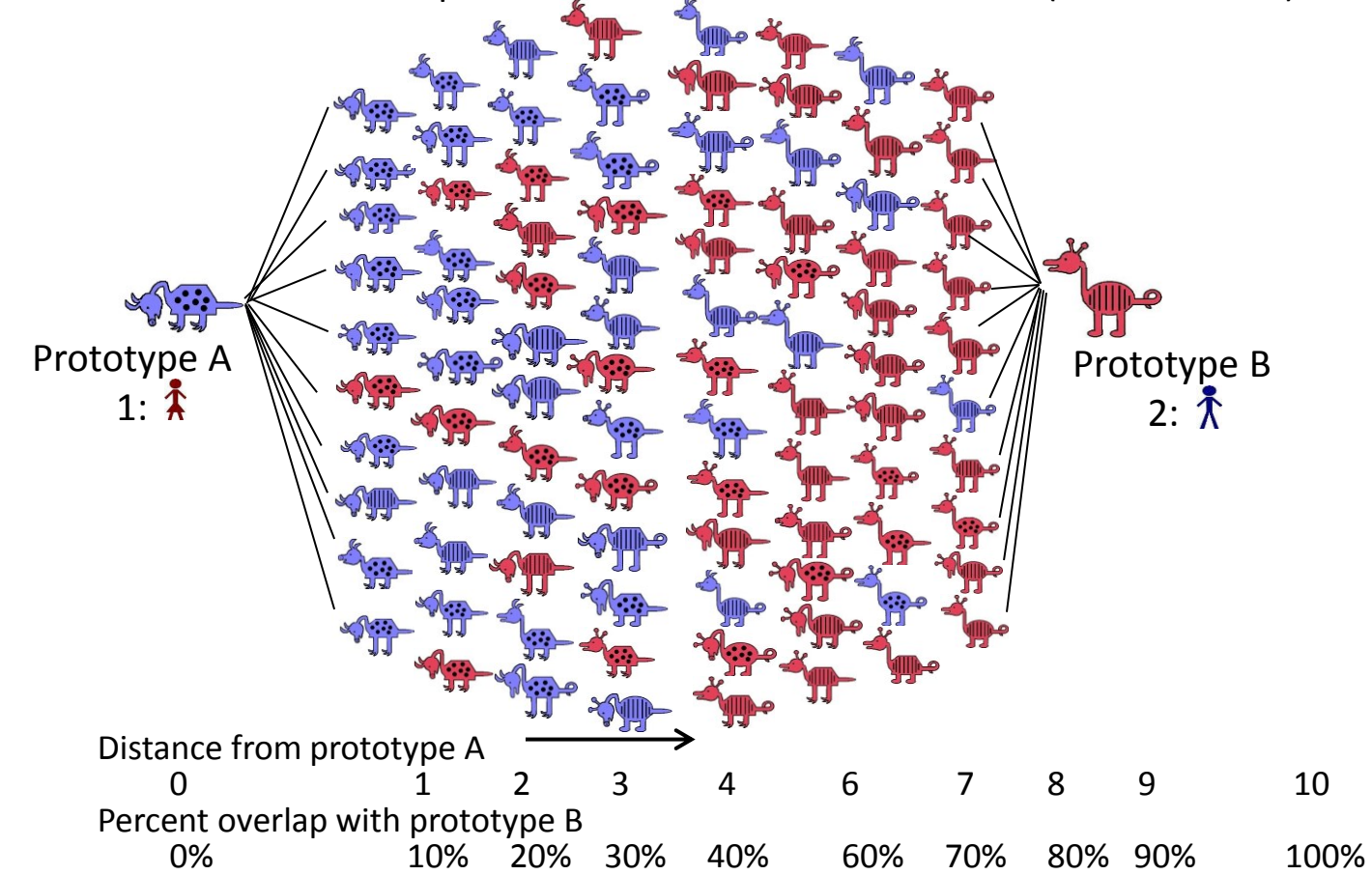
Learning Task

Stimuli: Cartoon animals with 10 binary dimensions from Zeithamova et al., (2008)

Paradigm: Computerized; Training phase followed by a testing phase

Score of learning assigned to each individual:

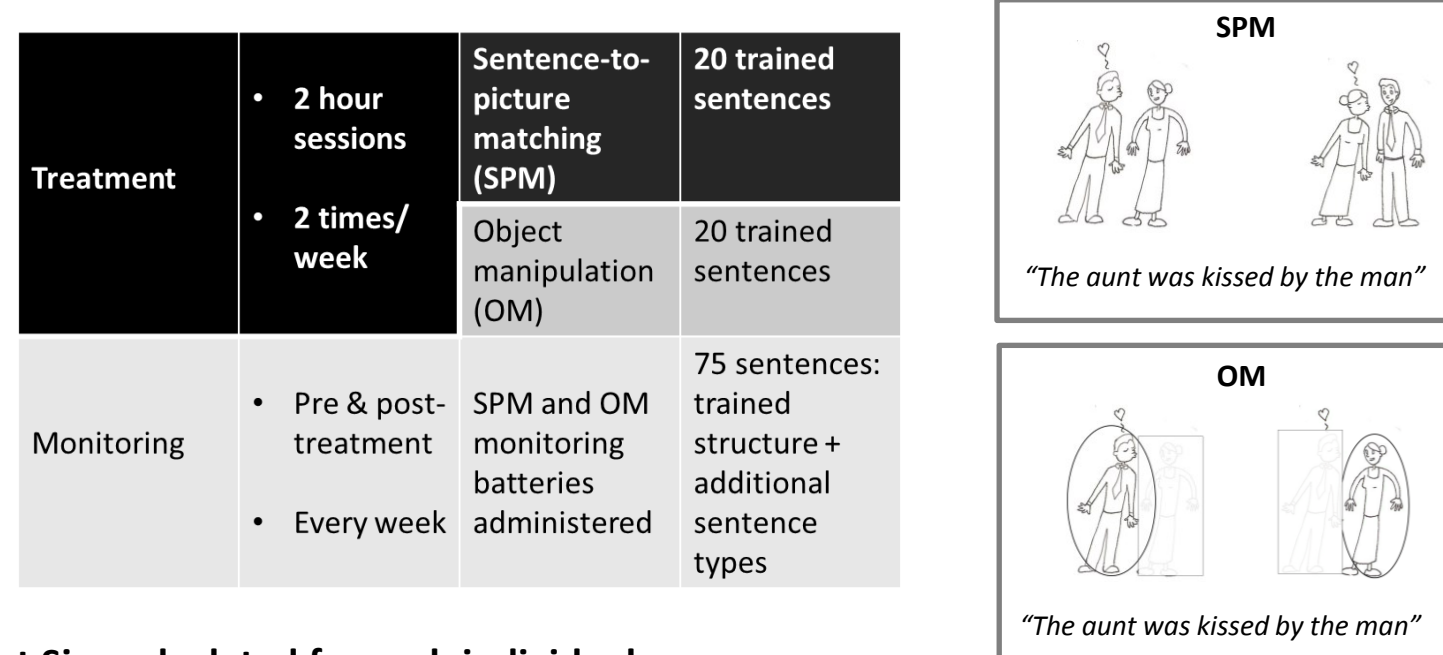
- Scores interpreted as percentage of "B" responses by distance from prototype A
- Ideal learning slope = positive 10
- Similar methods as those implemented in Vallila-Rohter & Kiran (2013a, 2013b)



Therapy Task

Theoretically guided sentence comprehension treatment (Kiran et al., 2012)

- Emphasizes thematic role assignment using picture/object cards
- Each individual assigned to a trained sentence type (monitored on multiple sentence types)
- 3 monitoring baselines → Treatment → 3 monitoring baselines
- 10 weeks of treatment or until individual reaches 80% accuracy on consecutive monitors



Effect Size calculated for each individual:

$$\text{Average pre-treatment baseline score} - \text{Average post treatment baseline scores} / \text{Standard deviation of pre-treatment baselines}$$

Participants

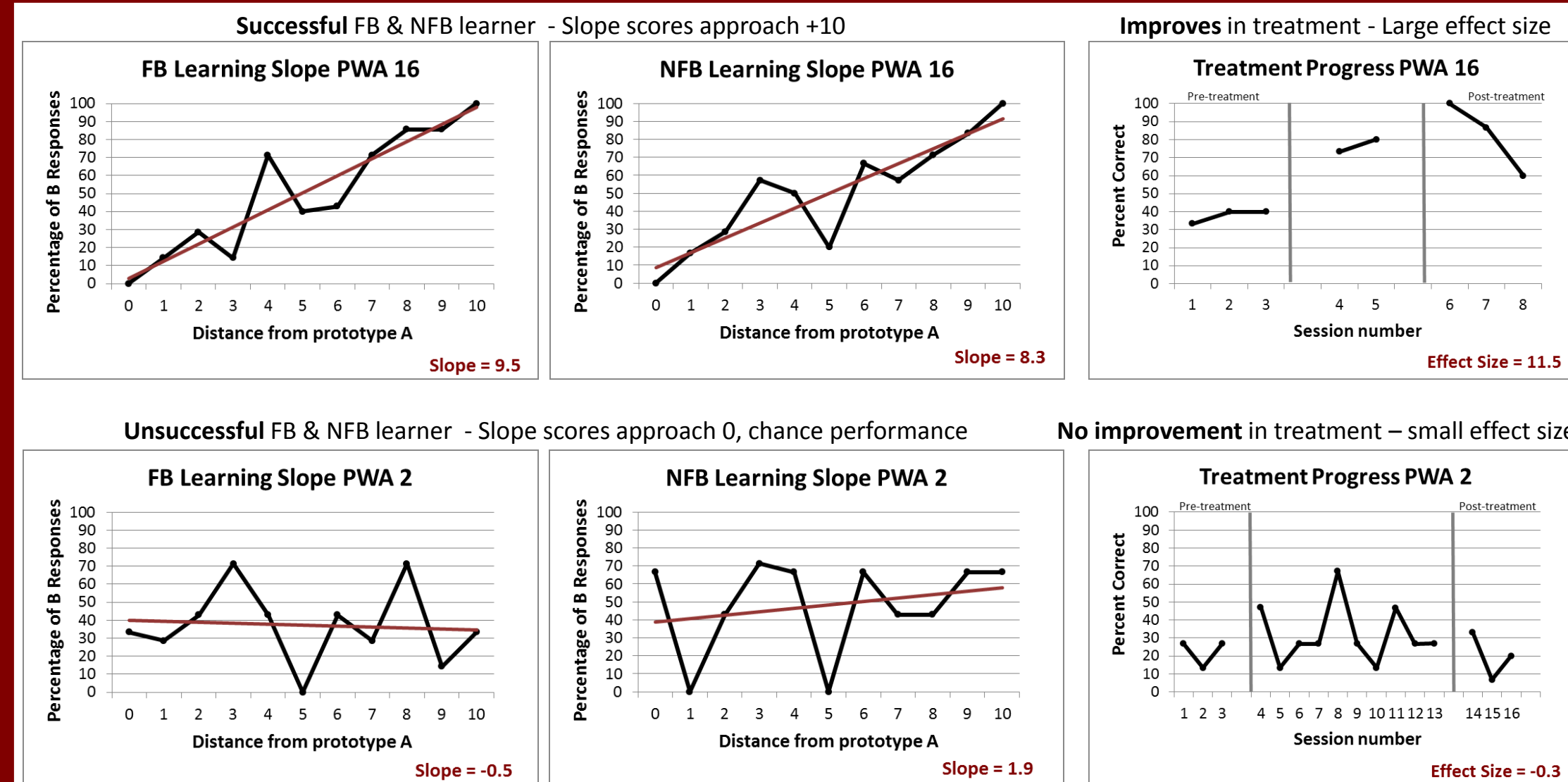
36 patients with aphasia are currently enrolled or have completed the study (15 females, mean age = 62, SD = 11)

ID	Age	AQ	Aphasia Type	Comprehension	BNT	Attn	Mem	Exec	VS	Raven	MPO	Education	FB Slope	NFB Slope	Effect Size	
PWA1	M	49	58	Broca's	52	58	163	98	19	74	49	162	12	-3.3	-2.5	-1.2
PWA2	M	52	61.3	Anomic	61	32	54	96	21	52	27	260	11	-0.5	1.9	-0.3
PWA3	M	53	58	Wernicke's	49	72	125	108	11	57	86	48	16	-6.5	0.9	-0.1
PWA4	F	68	82	TCM	53	83	110	89	17	35	43	28	12	-1.2	1.9	0.6
PWA5	F	63	69	Anomic	43	30	194	139	19	92	92	65	16	2.6	-2.7	0.6
PWA6	M	60	83	Anomic	73	78	190	132	25	91	92	27	19	2.3	-1.0	1.3
PWA7	M	54	93	Anomic	74	80	193	143	27	96	81	115	16	2.1	6.0	1.4
PWA8	M	61	91	Anomic	89	80	167	145	15	72	57	6	13	-1.9	9.6	2.1
PWA9	M	46	73	Broca's	55	82	195	118	30	99	92	86	16	0.4	0.6	2.3
PWA10	F	77	98	Anomic	84	98	206	183	29	86	92	94	16	3.9	7.8	2.6
PWA11	F	57	80	Anomic	61	57	132	118	7	43	51	68	16	-0.8	-4.4	3.0
PWA12	M	72	77	Wernicke's	56	85	173	132	21	83	57	15	18	-0.6	0.4	4.0
PWA13	M	44	96	Anomic	79	95	196	151	27	96	95	12	12	5.8	-5.4	4.9
PWA14	M	61	68	Anomic	56	43	199	157	22	94		45	16	-1.2	3.4	8.7
PWA15	M	68	74	Anomic	53	30	142	136	19	73	68	13	19	-0.5	-0.8	9.8
PWA16	F	50	94	Anomic	86	100	210	181	31	100	92	24	18	9.5	8.3	11.5
PWA17	M	76			2	142	102	8	55		15	3	2.0	4.9	0.0	
PWA18	F	34	25	Wernicke's	0	184	66	18	92	27	6	14	10.3	-9.1	8.2	
PWA19	M	53	91	Anomic	89	47	72	113	23	56	78	24	16	1.5	6.3	7.1
PWA20	M	59	86	Anomic	65	82	196	148	26	95	89	28	12	2.8	0.8	1.4
PWA21	F	83	93	Anomic	70	95	172	145	22	79	78	39	16	-7.5	2.6	1.7
PWA22	M	66	97	Anomic	84	65	200	142	29	101	81	15	12	-2.9	9.3	4.2
PWA23	F	58	88	Anomic	61	97	178	144	20	80	65	65	16	-0.8	-4.4	3.0
PWA24	F	74	51	TCM	51	17	38	113	14	38	59	14	12	0.3	-6.1	3.0
PWA25	F	55	85	Anomic	67	90	192	152	26	88	73	10	12	2.5	9.9	1.2
PWA26	M	65			53						120	16	8.5	8.7	-1.5	
PWA27	F	66	70	Conduction	48	62	184	120	20	88	65	84	18	7.8	-6.5	0.0
PWA28	M	87	88	Anomic	68	58	143	110	14	56	51	13	12	8.8	-0.2	0.4
PWA29	M	53	48	Wernicke's	61	7	178	93	24	92	65	107	16	9.5	8.0	1.5
PWA30	F	64	68	Anomic	52	13	146	102	14	71	68	18	18	-0.5	-3.4	4.7
PWA31	F	53	41	Wernicke's	53	7	144	74	17	64	35	25	12	7.7	-9.5	5.9
PWA32	M	70	10	Global	46	0	13	30	3	17	38	76	12	10.0	-3.5	9.8
PWA33	F	66	31	Broca's	48	0	101	40	3	39	31	42	18	-9.7	9.8	5.8
PWA34	M	66	86	Anomic	52						123	16	8.7	-10.0	0.5	
PWA35	F	78		Anomic	71	55	173	139	22	77	57	53	16	10.3	-0.2	3.1
PWA36	M	68	95	Anomic	97	77	192	155	28	97	95	21	17	6.4	-7.0	3.5

Raw data were analyzed to ensure that patients did not attend to only one feature in training or in testing on learning tasks.

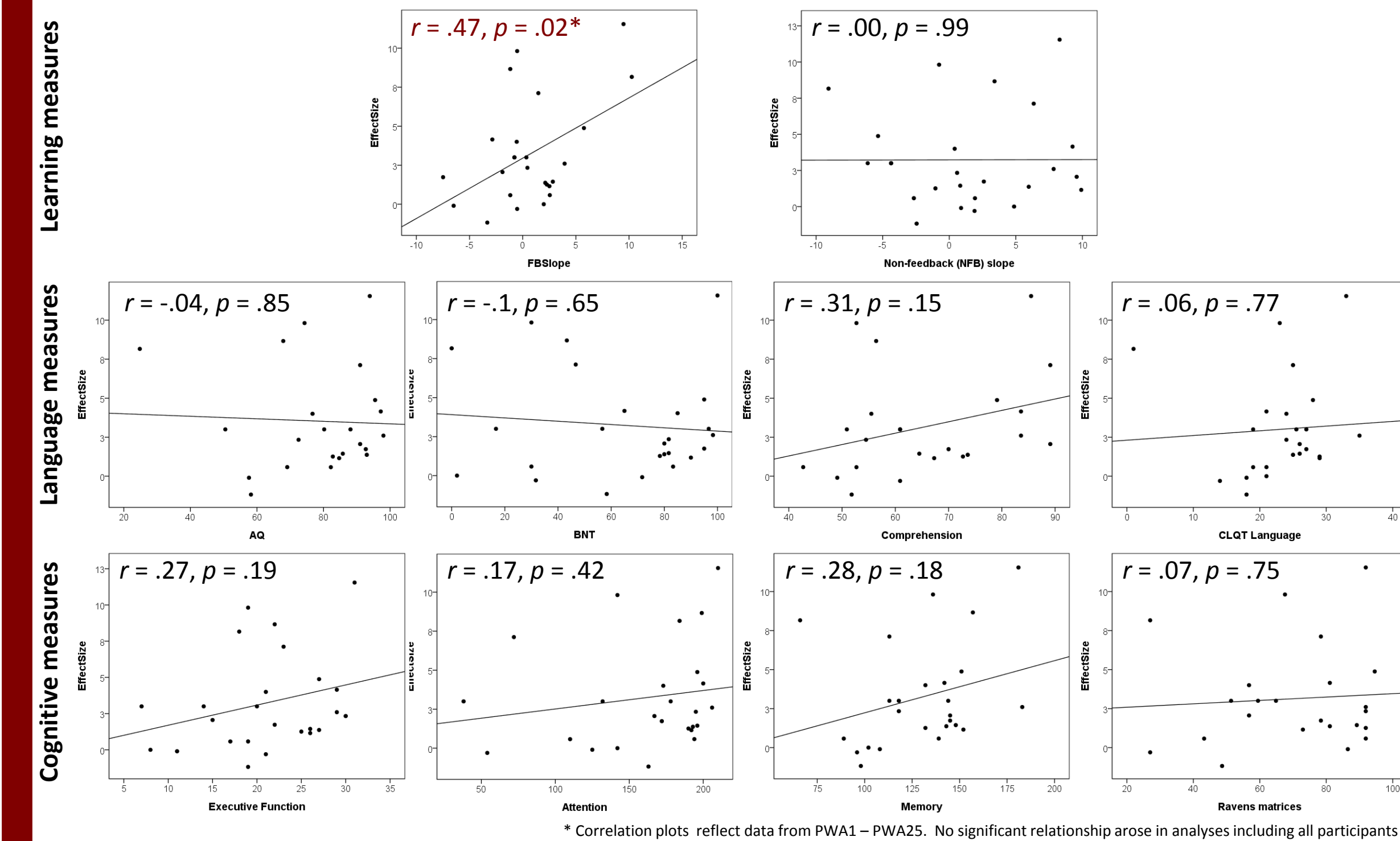
Data from 11 patients were dropped due to FB performance*

Sample Learning & Treatment Results



Do learning ability scores or cognitive-linguistic measures correlate with outcomes?

Pearson correlations between effect size, learning ability and standardized measures of cognitive – linguistic ability *



Multiple linear regressions were run to predict effect size from various combined cognitive-linguistic and demographic measures. FB learning slope, months post onset of stroke and years of education were found to produce the best model predicting treatment effect size, $F(3, 21) = 7.04, p = .002, R^2 = .708$. (FB learning slope & years of education added statistically significantly to the prediction, $p < .05$.)

Conclusions

- **Feedback learning slope** was the only measure of ability that significantly correlated with effect size.
 - Our feedback learning task likely requires hypothesis generation, testing, tracking and memory, similar to the skills required in this therapy task
- **No standardized cognitive or linguistic measures** correlated with language therapy effect size measures.
- Non-feedback learning slope did not correlate with language therapy effect size measures.
- The strongest model predicting language therapy outcomes included FB learning slope, months post onset of stroke and years of education. This model accounted for 71% of the variance in the data.

Results suggest that learning ability may present an important measure in the diagnostic assessment of individuals with aphasia and may reflect a person's potential for improvement in therapy.

Selected References

Fillingham et al., (2005). Further explorations and an overview of errorless and errorful therapy for aphasic word-finding difficulties: The number of naming attempts during therapy affects outcome. *Aphasiology*, 19(7), 597–614.
 Galski et al., (1993). Predicting length of stay, functional outcome, and aftercare in the rehabilitation of stroke patients. The dominant role of higher-order cognition. *Stroke: a journal of cerebral circulation*, 24(12), 1794–800.
 Kiran et al., (2012). Development of a theoretically based treatment for sentence comprehension deficits in individuals with aphasia. *Am J Speech Lang Pathol*, 21(2), S88 – S102.
 Lambon Ralph et al., (2010). Predicting the outcome of anomia therapy for people with aphasia post CVA: both language and cognitive status are key predictors. *Neuropsychological Rehabilitation*, 20(2), 289–305.
 Plowman et al., (2012). Post-stroke aphasia prognosis: a review of patient-related and stroke-related factors. *J Evaluation in Clinical Practice*, 18(3), 689–94.
 Robertson, I. H., & Murray, J. M. (1999). Rehabilitation of brain damage: brain plasticity and principles of guided recovery. *Psychological Bulletin*, 125(5), 544–75.
 Vallila-Rohter, S. & Kiran, S. (2013). Non-linguistic learning in aphasia: Evidence from a paired associate and feedback-based task. *Neuropsychologia*, 51(1), 79-90.
 Vallila-Rohter, S. & Kiran, S. (2013). Nonlinguistic learning in individuals with aphasia: Effects of training method and stimulus characteristics. *ASLP*, 22, S426 – S437.
 Watzke et al., (2008). A longitudinal study of learning potential and rehabilitation outcome in schizophrenia. *Psychiatric services*, 59(3), 248–55.
 Zeithamova et al., (2008). Dissociable prototype learning systems: evidence from brain imaging and behavior. *J Neuroscience*. 28(49), 13194-201.