

Methodological considerations in assessment of language lateralisation with fMRI: a systematic review

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The involvement of the right and left hemispheres in mediating language functions has been measured in a variety of ways over the centuries since the relative dominance of the left hemisphere was first known. Functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) presents a useful non-invasive method of assessing lateralisation that is being increasingly used in clinical practice and research. However, the methods used in the fMRI laterality literature currently are highly variable, making systematic comparisons across studies difficult. Here we consider the different methods of quantifying and classifying laterality that have been used in fMRI studies since 2000, with the aim of determining which give the most robust and reliable measurement. Recommendations are made with a view to informing future research to increase standardisation in fMRI laterality protocols. In particular, the findings reinforce the importance of threshold-independent methods for calculating laterality indices, and the benefits of assessing heterogeneity of language laterality across multiple regions of interest and tasks. This systematic review was registered as a protocol on Open Science Framework: <https://osf.io/hyvc4/>.

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12 **Abstract:** The involvement of the right and left hemispheres in mediating language
13 functions has been measured in a variety of ways over the centuries since the
14 relative dominance of the left hemisphere was first known. Functional magnetic
15 resonance imaging (fMRI) presents a useful non-invasive method of assessing
16 lateralisation that is being increasingly used in clinical practice and research.
17 However, the methods used in the fMRI laterality literature currently are highly
18 variable, making systematic comparisons across studies difficult. Here we consider
19 the different methods of quantifying and classifying laterality that have been used in
20 fMRI studies since 2000, with the aim of determining which give the most robust and
21 reliable measurement. Recommendations are made with a view to informing future
22 research to increase standardisation in fMRI laterality protocols. In particular, the
23 findings reinforce the importance of threshold-independent methods for calculating
24 laterality indices, and the benefits of assessing heterogeneity of language laterality
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27 A wealth of evidence has demonstrated that language is predominantly mediated by
28 the left cerebral hemisphere in the majority of individuals, a phenomenon known as
29 hemispheric specialisation. This has been recently defined by Tzourio-Mazoyer and
30 Seghier (2016) as “*the hosting by a given hemisphere of specialized networks that*
31 *have specific functional properties and interact interhemispherically in a way that*
32 *optimizes brain processing.*” However, our understanding of the nature and
33 correlates of such lateralisation is relatively limited. Many questions remain, such as
34 the functional relevance of such hemispheric specialisation and the significance of
35 individual variation in language dominance.

36 Non-invasive techniques for assessment of language lateralisation make it
37 possible to probe the characteristics of language lateralisation in neurologically intact
38 populations. Functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) is a prominent non-
39 invasive method that has been used to assess laterality. A laterality index (LI) is
40 calculated based on a comparison of activation measures from each hemisphere,
41 according to the following formula:

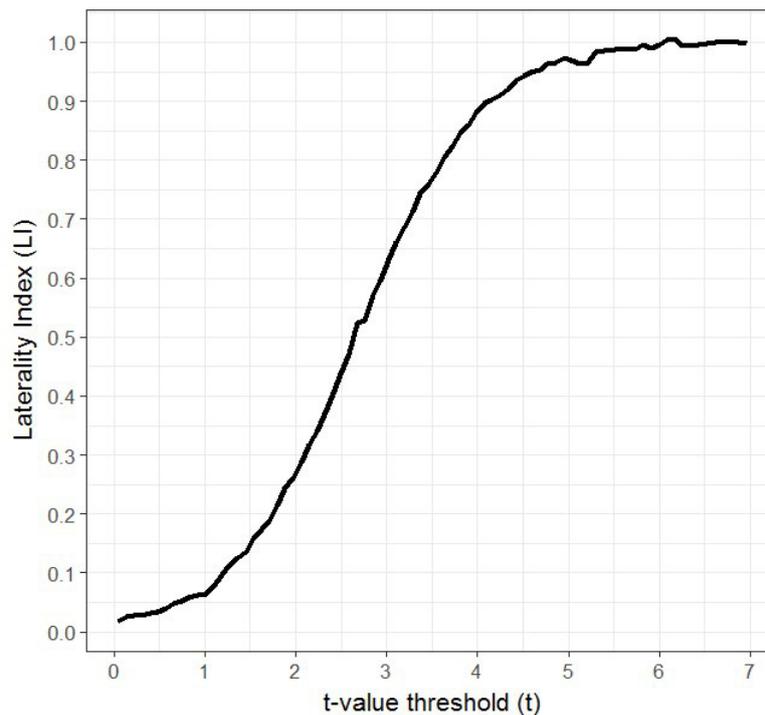
$$42 \quad LI = \frac{L - R}{L + R}$$

43 This calculates laterality as the difference between activity in each hemisphere
44 (L and R) divided by the total activity across the hemispheres. The LI gives a single
45 value indicating the relative strength of left and right hemisphere activation for an
46 individual. LI measurement may be required for clinical purposes in order to establish
47 an individual’s hemispheric dominance for language prior to surgery, as in patients
48 with intractable epilepsy. Alternatively, a study may measure an LI to assess the
49 strength or variability in lateralisation for a given language function in order to make
50 inferences about the neural organisation of the language system. That is, studies

51 may vary in whether the aim of LI measurement is to classify or to quantify
52 lateralisation. This will have important implications for which methods of LI
53 calculation are optimal for laterality measurement.

54 Interpretation of fMRI lateralisation research has been problematic due to a lack
55 of standardisation of fMRI laterality protocols. Multiple arbitrary decisions must be
56 made when calculating the L and R terms for use in the LI equation which might
57 affect the LI value obtained (Jansen et al., 2006; Seghier, 2008). Such variability in
58 methodology can preclude systematic study of language lateralisation.

59 For example, when calculating an LI from active voxels in each hemisphere or
60 region of interest (ROI), a decision must be made as to the threshold p value at
61 which to view and analyse the images. Multiple studies have documented the
62 dependence of the LI obtained on the threshold chosen (Rutten, Ramsey, van Rijen
63 & van Veelen, 2002; Adcock, Wise, Oxbury, Oxbury & Matthews, 2003; Seghier et
64 al., 2004; Abbott, Waites, Lillywhite & Jackson, 2010; Nadkarni et al., 2015). As
65 illustrated in Fig. 1, as the threshold value is increased, the number of voxels
66 surviving thresholding decreases, typically leading to an increase in the LI.
67 Ultimately, above a certain threshold, no active voxels will remain in the non-
68 dominant hemisphere, resulting in an LI of 1; and below a certain threshold many
69 voxels will survive across both hemispheres, resulting in an LI of 0. Indeed, there are
70 even reports of individuals whose LI shows a switch in dominance with a change in
71 threshold level (Jansen et al., 2006; Suarez, Whalen, O'Shea & Golby, 2007; Wilke
72 & Lidzba, 2007; Ruff et al., 2008).



73 Figure 1: **Threshold dependent laterality curve.** Plot of LI as a function of
74 threshold (t-value).

75 This illustrates just one preliminary issue that must be addressed when
76 considering how to quantify lateralisation from fMRI data. Further decisions have to
77 be made as to tasks used in an activation paradigm, whether the analysis focuses on
78 a specific region of interest (ROI) or the whole hemisphere, and whether the
79 quantification of activation is based on magnitude or extent of activity. If the LI is
80 used to categorise individuals as left-, bilateral or right-lateralised, a suitable cut-off
81 for categorisation must also be determined.

82 The purpose of this review is to assess different protocols for fMRI measurement
83 of language lateralisation used by studies published between 2000 and 2016. We
84 aimed to (1) look at the methods used by different studies over this time period in
85 order to consider whether the field is converging on common criteria for evaluating
86 language lateralisation, and (2) consider evidence for the robustness and reliability of

87 these different methods in order to make recommendations for future research in this
88 field.

89 **Materials and Methods**

90 A protocol for this review has been registered on Open Science Framework and can
91 be found at <https://osf.io/hyvc4/>. This paper addresses those objectives outlined in
92 the protocol relating to assessment of the methods used to quantify lateralisation in
93 fMRI studies of language lateralisation. Assessment of the impact of language task
94 and baselining methods will be considered in a companion paper.

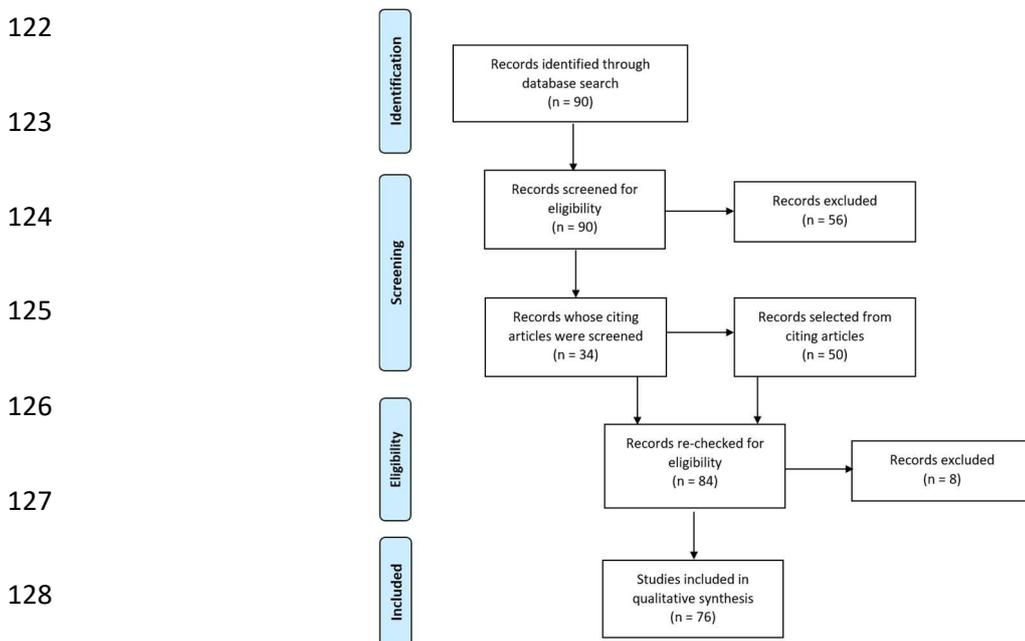
95 ***Eligibility criteria***

96 We reviewed studies of fMRI language lateralisation published between 2000 and
97 2016. Papers were selected if they met the following inclusion criteria: (1) the paper
98 calculated and reported LIs for language using fMRI; (2) participants were healthy
99 monolingual adults; and (3) if participants included both patients and healthy control
100 groups, the data for controls were reported separately. Papers were excluded if: (1)
101 they exclusively studied structural asymmetries, children or bilingualism; or (2) they
102 used language tasks with non-European languages. The rationale for restricting the
103 search to studies on healthy, monolingual, adult participants was to reduce
104 heterogeneity within our study sample.

105 ***Search strategy and selection process***

106 The search and selection process is illustrated in in Fig. 2. We searched Web of
107 Science for studies published between 2000 and 2016 using the following search
108 terms: laterali* OR asymmetr* OR dominance; AND language OR reading; AND
109 fMRI OR functional MRI OR functional magnetic resonance imaging OR functional
110 MR OR function MRI; NOT schizophrenia; NOT development*; NOT child*; NOT

111 bilingual*. This was last searched on 05/12/16. Two of the study authors (Abigail
 112 Bradshaw and Zoe Woodhead) screened the titles and abstracts of the resulting 90
 113 papers to assess their eligibility then conducted full-text scans to determine whether
 114 the inclusion criteria were met. Selected lists were compared between reviewers and
 115 any discrepancies discussed and a mutual decision made. This yielded a total of 34
 116 papers selected from the original 90. To ensure thorough coverage of the literature,
 117 papers citing these 34 articles were searched to look for additional articles that met
 118 criteria. From this, 50 additional papers were selected, bringing the total to 84
 119 papers. A final search to re-check all 84 papers against search criteria identified 7
 120 ineligible papers. During the review, a further paper was judged to not meet criteria.
 121 A list of the final 76 selected papers can be found in Appendix S1.



129 **Figure 2: Search strategy and selection process.** Flow diagram illustrating the

130 search and selection process for obtaining articles for inclusion in the review.

131 Adapted from Moher D, Liberati A, Tetzlaff J, Altman DG, The PRISMA Group

132 (2009). Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses: The

133 PRISMA Statement. *PLoS Med* 6(7): e1000097. doi:10.1371/journal.pmed1000097.

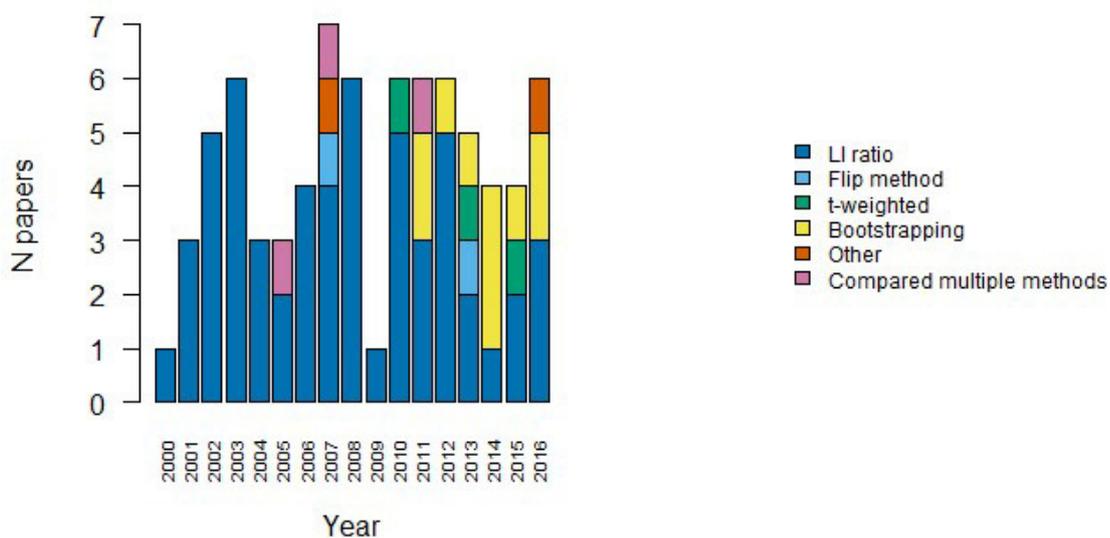
134 ***Data collection and data summary***

135 For each paper, we recorded the following parameters relating to the protocol used:
136 the type of fMRI design used, the activity measures used for LI calculation, the
137 threshold level chosen, the use of global or regional LI calculation, the specific
138 regions considered, the language and baseline tasks used, the use of a single or a
139 combined task analysis and the task difficulty. We also recorded sample size and
140 sample handedness for each study. Information on these measures for each paper
141 was collected and managed using REDCap electronic data capture tools (Harris et
142 al., 2009) hosted at Oxford University. REDCap (Research Electronic Data Capture)
143 is a secure, web-based application designed to support data capture for research
144 studies, providing: 1) an intuitive interface for validated data entry; 2) audit trails for
145 tracking data manipulation and export procedures; 3) automated export procedures
146 for seamless data downloads to common statistical packages; and 4) procedures for
147 importing data from external sources. The full database can be found in Appendix
148 S2. A summary table drawn from this database with the key outcomes of interest for
149 this paper is provided in Appendix S3.

150 The variable nature of the methods used and measures reported by different
151 fMRI studies of language lateralisation means the data are not suitable for a meta-
152 analysis. Instead, this review will document the range of methods used, and provide
153 a qualitative summary of information from these studies that is relevant for our
154 understanding of the robustness and reliability of LI measurement.

155 **Results**156 **Methods for calculating LI**

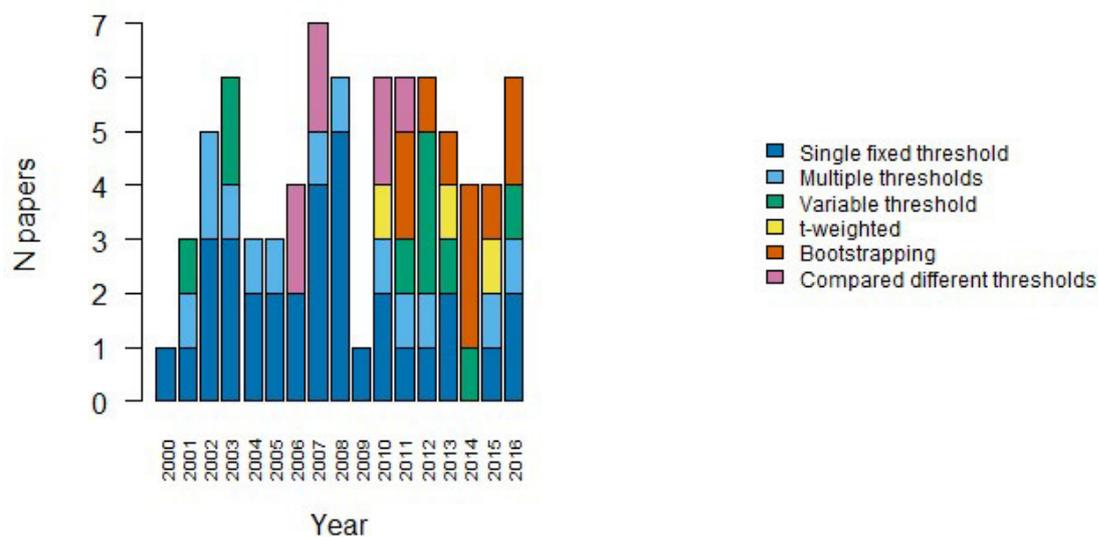
157 As shown in Fig. 3, a range of methods have been used to compute a laterality index
 158 in the set of studies that we considered. These will be briefly described before
 159 moving to consider the relative advantages and disadvantages of each. Note that the
 160 majority of studies used the standard LI ratio approach using the LI formula as
 161 previously outlined (55 within our search), but use of bootstrapping approaches
 162 started to be seen in 2010 and has gained in popularity since that time. Relatively
 163 few studies (3) explicitly compared different methods for calculating the LI: we will
 164 cover those that did so in more detail in the following sections.



165 **Figure 3: Methods of calculating an LI.** Plot shows the frequency of papers within
 166 our search using each method of LI calculation across the years from 2000 to 2016.

167 **Thresholding**

168 Figure 4 illustrates the different thresholding approaches used by studies, and how
 169 these have changed over time. As can be seen, the majority of studies (33) used a
 170 single fixed threshold approach for determining the LI in which a single threshold
 171 level is chosen at which either extent of activation, or magnitude of activation in a
 172 given region is measured for left and right, and entered into the LI formula. As noted
 173 above however, use of a single threshold when calculating an LI is likely to yield an
 174 unreliable and inadequate measure of an individual's pattern of laterality. Awareness
 175 of this has led to a decline of the single fixed threshold approach in more recent
 176 years, in favour of approaches that aim to address the problem of threshold
 177 dependence. Each of these will be described and evaluated in term in the following
 178 sections.



179 Figure 4: **Thresholding methods**. Plot shows the frequency of papers using each
 180 method of thresholding when calculating an LI across the years from 2000 to 2016.

181 Multiple thresholds and threshold dependent laterality curves

182 One way to address the problem of threshold dependence is to calculate the LI
183 across multiple thresholds. One can then produce a plot of LI as a function of
184 threshold (see Fig.1), also known as threshold dependent laterality curves (Seghier
185 et al., 2004; Jansen et al., 2006; Ruff et al., 2008; Suarez et al., 2008; Abbott et al.,
186 2010). Such curves can allow one to decipher an individual's general tendency
187 towards one pattern of dominance, often showing a transition point at which the
188 increase in laterality plateaus at a particular laterality level. However, such curves
189 are not always informative, since in some cases they may fail to reach a plateau, or
190 are not reproducible within a subject (Rutten et al., 2002; Jansen et al., 2006).

191 Variable thresholds

192 A second approach uses a variable or adaptive threshold, in which the threshold is
193 set according to subject-specific parameters. One such method involves choosing
194 that threshold which yields a fixed number of active voxels for each individual
195 participant (Knecht et al., 2003; Jansen et al., 2006; Abbott et al., 2010; Fesl et al.,
196 2010). Using simulated data, Abbott et al. (2010) demonstrated that thresholding at a
197 fixed number of voxels was more robust against variability in signal strength than the
198 standard thresholding method. They advocated plotting the LI as a function of the
199 number of active voxels, similar to threshold dependent curves; these curves are
200 however tighter and more stable. Furthermore, Fesl et al. (2010) reported improved
201 reliability of LI measurement when using this variable threshold method as opposed
202 to a single fixed threshold. However, this approach does not remove the need for
203 arbitrary decisions, since a 'reasonable' fixed number of active voxels must be
204 decided on. Interestingly, when using this method Jansen et al. (2006) set the

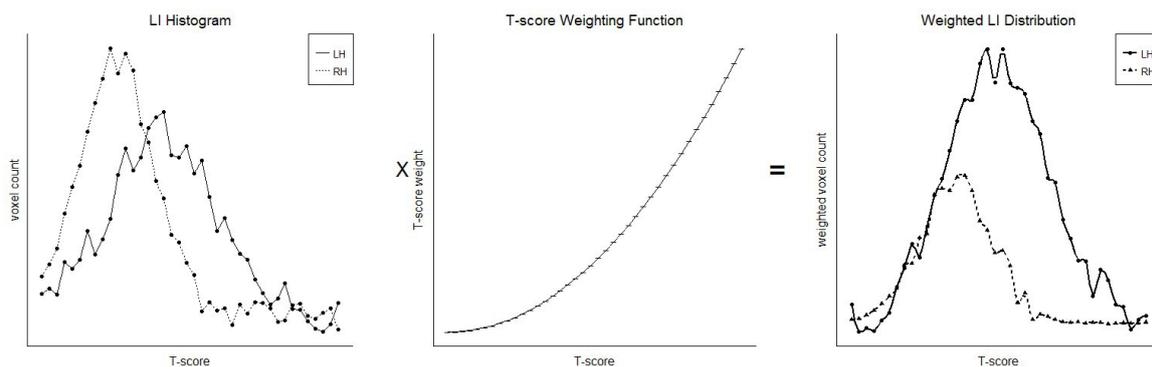
205 criterion number of activated voxels at a different level for each language task; this
206 can thus enable one to take into account the fact that different tasks may require
207 different threshold levels.

208 Other adaptive thresholding methods are based on setting the threshold in
209 proportion to the maximum or mean intensity of voxels in an image. Methods include
210 identifying the highest 5% of voxels with the highest t-values, and setting the
211 threshold at half of their mean value (Fernandez et al., 2001; Van Veelen et al.,
212 2011); alternatively, the mean intensity of voxels within an area of interest can be
213 used (Stippich et al, 2003; Wilke & Lidzba, 2007; Partovi et al., 2012a; Partovi et al.,
214 2012b; Allendorfa, Hernando, Hossain, Nenert, Holland & Szaflarski, 2016). Using
215 this latter method, Wilke and Lidzba (2007) reported more stable LIs using variable
216 threshold methods as compared to fixed thresholding, suggesting that this may make
217 LIs more robust. This study also demonstrated a flattening of laterality curves when
218 only those voxels that formed a significant cluster or that had a sufficiently low level
219 of variability were included in the LI calculation. These clustering and variance
220 weighting methods thus allow calculation of LIs to become more stable across
221 threshold levels.

222 ***T-weighting and threshold independent methods***

223 Alternatively, the issue of threshold dependence can be avoided by the use of a
224 'threshold-independent' method. One such widely used threshold-independent
225 method is t-weighting (Branco, et al., 2006; Suarez et al., 2007; Propper et al., 2010;
226 Zaca, Jarso & Pillai, 2013), illustrated in Fig. 5. This involves plotting a histogram for
227 each hemisphere of the number of active voxels against t-score threshold, and then
228 multiplying this distribution by a weighting function that assigns weight in a way

229 directly proportional to t-score. The integrated areas under each hemisphere's curve
230 can then be used as the input for the standard LI equation. Suarez et al. (2007)
231 reported that such a method yielded reduced within-subject and between-subject
232 variability in LI compared to fixed thresholding, resulting in clear left lateralisation
233 across subjects.



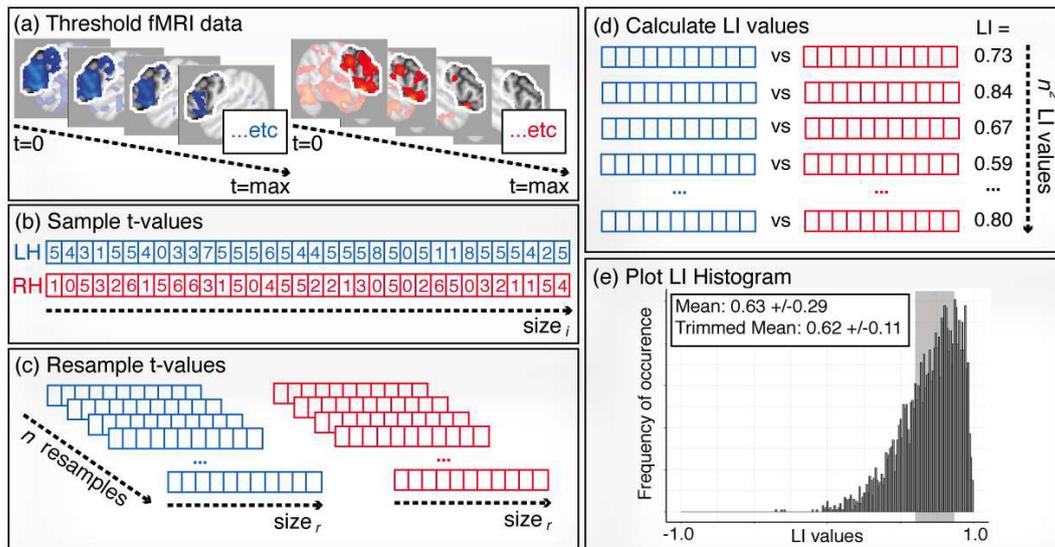
234 **Figure 5: Illustration of the t-weighting method.** A plot of voxel count as a function
235 of t-score threshold (top) is multiplied with a weighting function (middle) in which
236 higher thresholds are given greater weight, to obtain a weighted distribution (bottom).
237 The integrated areas under the right and left hemisphere curves can then be used
238 for the standard LI equation.

239 Other threshold-independent methods have been developed, but these have
240 been less widely used. Harrington, Buonocore and Farias (2006) reported that taking
241 the average signal magnitude within activated voxels across multiple thresholds
242 yielded higher and more reproducible LIs than a single threshold approach. Seghier,
243 Kherif, Josse and Price (2011) used a method developed by Nagata, Uchimura,
244 Hirakawa and Kuratsu (2001) in which the L and R terms are calculated by taking the
245 regression of the curve obtained by plotting the number of activated voxels against
246 threshold for each hemisphere separately. This provides a fixed term for each

247 hemisphere that is independent of threshold for use in the LI calculation, providing a
248 more robust measure.

249 ***Bootstrapping***

250 A further method developed to remove the issue of threshold dependence is
251 bootstrapping (Wilke & Schmithorst, 2006). This involves iterative resampling and
252 calculation of LIs across multiple threshold levels, illustrated in Fig. 6. At each
253 threshold, a vector containing all voxel values is created from an image (b), one for
254 each hemisphere. Multiple random samples of values (e.g. 100 samples) from these
255 vectors are then taken (c) and an LI calculated for all possible right/left sample
256 combinations (d). All LIs are then plotted in a histogram (e) and a trimmed mean is
257 taken by selecting the central 50% of the data in order to reduce the effect of
258 outliers. A weighted overall mean is then calculated from this resulting data by
259 assigning a higher weight to higher thresholds. This method has been widely
260 adopted in recent research on measuring language lateralisation (Häberling,
261 Badzakova-Trajkov & Corballis, 2011; Van der Haegen, Cai, Seurinck & Brysbaert,
262 2011; Van der Haegen, Cai & Brysbaert, 2012; Perlaki et al., 2013; Berl et al., 2014;
263 Mazoyer et al., 2014; Miro et al., 2014; Tzourio-Mazoyer et al., 2015; Häberling,
264 Steinemann & Corballis, 2016; Sepeta et al., 2016). As well as being threshold-
265 independent, its key strengths include greater resistance to outliers and built-in
266 markers for detecting the presence of outliers within the process of LI calculation
267 (Wilke & Schmithorst, 2006), making it a robust method for assessing language
268 laterality from fMRI data.

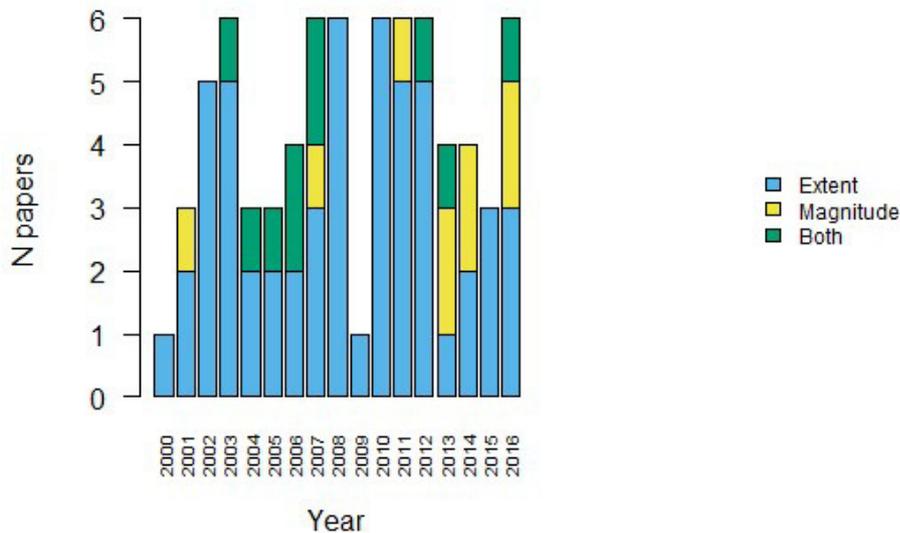


269 Figure 6: **Illustration of the bootstrapping method.** (a) **Thresholding:** contrast
 270 images are created across a range of thresholds from 0 to the maximum t-value. (b)
 271 **Sampling:** for each threshold level, a sample of t-values (size r) are randomly
 272 selected from the left and right ROIs. (c) **Resampling:** values from the sample
 273 vectors are randomly resampled n times, each with size r . (d) **LI calculation:** LI
 274 values are calculated for all possible combinations of right and left resamples,
 275 creating n^2 LI values in total. (e) **Histogram:** steps (b)-(c) are repeated for all
 276 threshold levels, and all of the resulting LI values are plotted in one histogram. A
 277 trimmed mean, taken from the middle 50% of the data (shaded area), is used as the
 278 final LI measure.

279 Activity measure

280 A key decision in calculation of a laterality index from fMRI data concerns which
 281 activity measure to use; signal extent (i.e. the number of suprathreshold voxels in
 282 each hemisphere) or signal magnitude (i.e. the average intensity of suprathreshold
 283 voxels in each hemisphere). Figure 7 documents the different activity measures used
 284 by studies within our search. It can be seen that the majority of studies opt for an

285 extent measure, although in recent years there has been an increased use of
 286 magnitude measures.



287 **Figure 7: Activation measure used for LI calculation.** Plot shows the frequency of
 288 papers within our search using each type of activation measure across the years
 289 from 2000 to 2016.

290 Of the studies that compare both methods, many have reported finding similar
 291 laterality indices and curves (Jansen et al., 2006; Bethman, Tempelmann, De Bleser,
 292 Scheich & Brechmann, 2007; Wilke & Lidzba, 2007; Ocklenburg, Hugdahl &
 293 Westerhausen, 2013). Others have reported differences in LI strength, with reports
 294 of both higher LIs for magnitude measures (Harrington et al., 2006) and higher LIs
 295 for extent measures (Jensen-Kondering, Ghobadi, Wolff, Jansen & Ulmer, 2012).
 296 Further still, Jansen et al. (2006) reported that differences in the activity measure
 297 used for calculating laterality with a picture naming task could yield different
 298 dominance classifications for a given participant. This was not the case however for

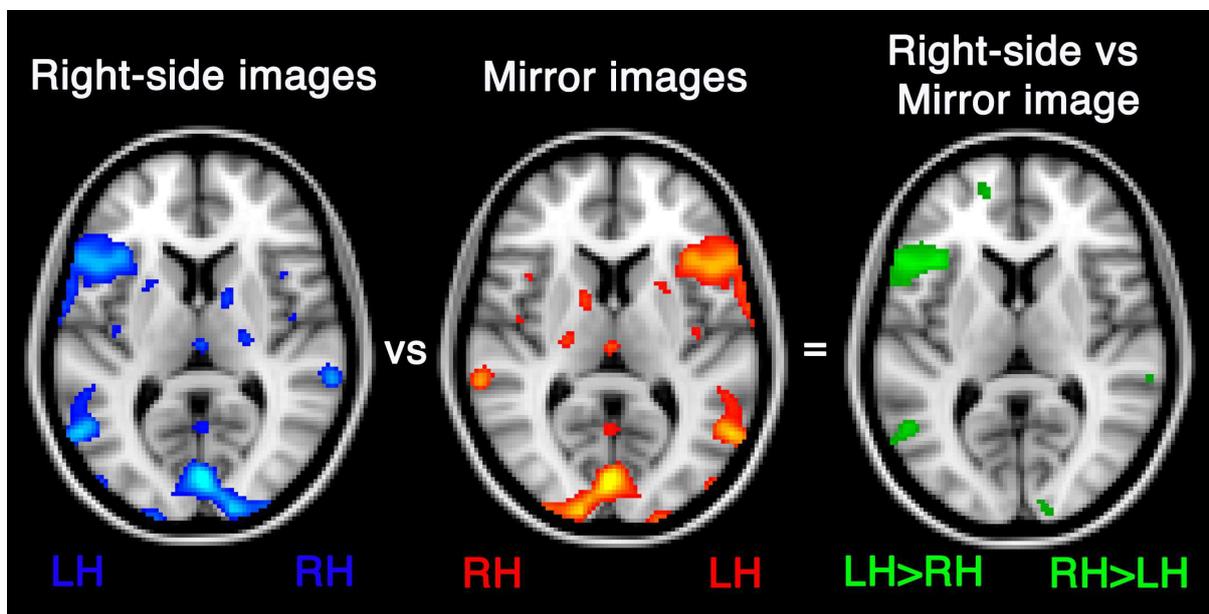
299 verbal fluency and semantic decision tasks, suggesting that this may reflect
300 something particular about the activity patterns induced by naming.

301 There is evidence that these measures can yield the same high levels of
302 reproducibility for LI measurement: Morrison et al. (2016) reported 100%
303 reproducibility for classification of language dominance and almost identical test-
304 retest LI correlations using both activity measures for a rhyming task. However, the
305 majority of studies report higher reproducibility for signal magnitude measures
306 compared to signal extent measures (Adcock et al., 2003; Jansen et al., 2006;
307 Harrington et al., 2006; Morrison et al., 2016). Importantly, Jansen et al. (2006)
308 reported that a magnitude measure determined dominance reproducibly only when
309 just those voxels that exceeded a criterion activation level were included; an extent
310 measure was not reproducible. Magnitude measures have also been reported to be
311 less sensitive to noise than a thresholded extent measure (Adcock et al., 2003).

312 Of further note is Jansen et al's (2006) finding that LIs based on signal extent
313 lacked meaningful variation, often yielding LI values of 1; in contrast, LI magnitude
314 measures gave greater between-subject variation in LI values. Which constitutes
315 better laterality data depends on one's view of lateralisation measurement. That is, in
316 cases when one wishes to classify individuals' language dominance, having LI
317 values close to 1 or -1 would be useful to allow decisions to be clear cut. Conversely,
318 when one is interested in quantifying individual variability in the degree of language
319 lateralisation beyond the binary typical/atypical distinction, an LI measure that
320 reveals greater between-subject variation would be more useful.

321 **The flip method**

322 The standard LI ratio does not indicate whether the difference in activity between the
323 hemispheres is significant or not, but simply quantifies the bias in activity towards
324 one hemisphere. The flip method (Baciu, Juphard, Cousin & Le Bas, 2005) was
325 developed to provide a direct statistical comparison of activity between the
326 hemispheres. As illustrated in Fig. 8, this involves contrasting two sets of functional
327 images created for the contrast of interest (i.e. task versus control); a right side
328 images set, in which the left hemisphere is on the left and a mirror images set, in
329 which the image is flipped such that the left hemisphere is on the right. By
330 contrasting these two images, one can identify those homotopic voxels that show a
331 significant difference in activity across the hemispheres. The resulting significant
332 voxels in each hemisphere can then be used as input for the standard LI equation.

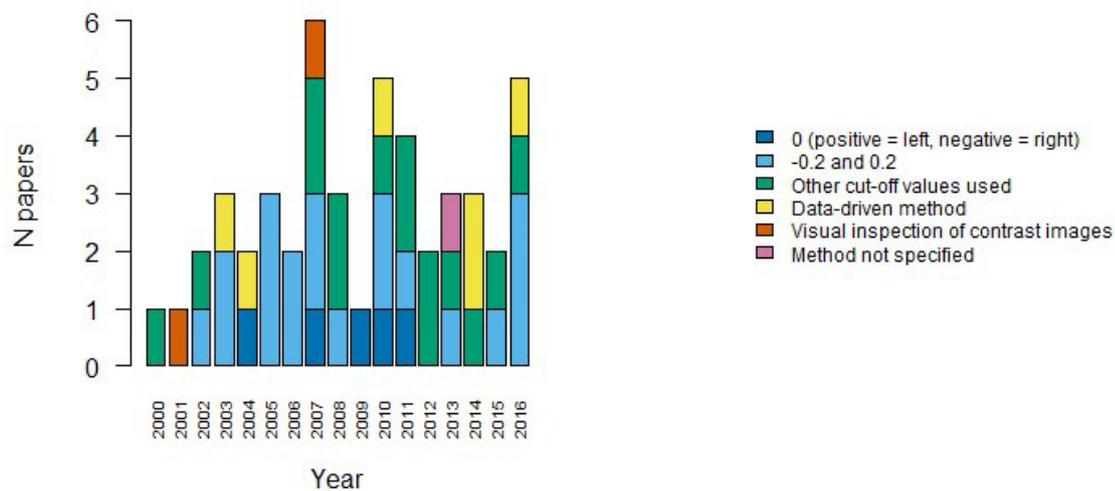


333 Figure 8: **The flip method**. By contrasting a right-side contrast image with a mirror
334 image (flipped so that the right hemisphere is on the left), a new contrast image is
335 generated with significant voxels indicating regions in which left activity is statistically
336 significantly greater than right homologue activity.

337 This method has been used in a small number of studies (see Fig. 3) as a
338 means of measuring laterality (Cousin et al., 2007; Seghier et al., 2011; Hernandez
339 et al., 2013). Baciú et al. (2005) compared the flip method to the standard LI ratio by
340 comparing the correlations of each method's LIs with handedness lateralisation
341 indices. While both methods yielded language LIs that were poorly correlated with
342 handedness LIs for a verb generation task, when a rhyming task was used the flip
343 method yielded higher correlations than the standard LI method. Such a finding is
344 difficult to interpret, especially given the inconsistent relationship between
345 handedness and language dominance (e.g. Mazoyer et al., 2014). More research is
346 therefore needed to evaluate the flip method for measuring language laterality in
347 terms of its reliability and robustness.

348 **Dominance classification**

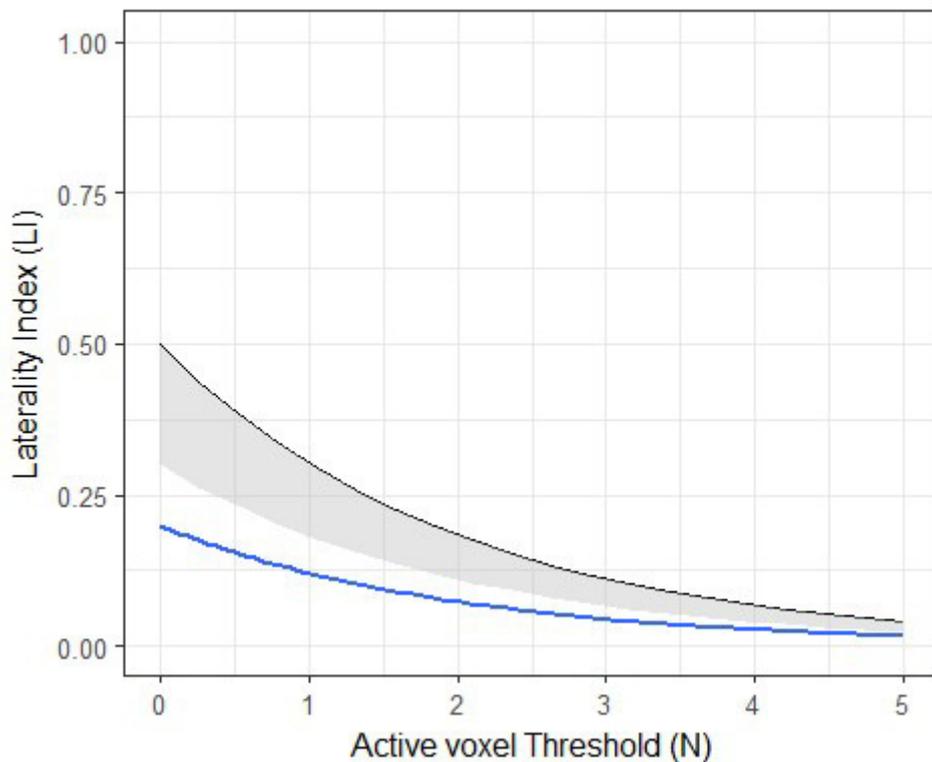
349 If a categorical dominance classification is required, some form of standardised
350 procedure is needed once an LI has been calculated. The range of methods used by
351 different studies within our search is illustrated in Fig. 9. The most standard method
352 of dominance classification uses cut-offs at -0.2 and 0.2, to divide left dominance (LI
353 > 0.2) from bilaterality ($-0.2 \leq LI \leq 0.2$) and right dominance ($LI < -0.2$). However,
354 such cut-offs are arbitrary, and we found multiple studies within our search that
355 chose their own cut-offs (see 'other cut-off values used'), including 0.1, 0.33, 0.4, 0.5
356 and 0.6. Thus, it can be seen that there is a high level of heterogeneity in the
357 methods of dominance classification used by different studies. This makes it very
358 difficult to draw conclusions and comparisons between the proportions of typically
359 and atypically lateralised individuals reported by different studies, and thus impedes
360 progress in understanding the distribution of such lateralisation profiles across
361 different populations.



362 Figure 9: **Methods of dominance classification.** Plot shows the different methods
 363 of classifying language dominance used by studies within our search across the
 364 period from 2000 to 2016. Note that studies within our search which did not classify
 365 dominance are not included in this plot.

366 Other researchers have investigated data-driven methods of defining dominance
 367 categories (Adcock et al., 2003; Seghier et al., 2004; Abbott et al., 2010; Berl et al.,
 368 2014; Mazoyer et al., 2014; Tzourio-Mazoyer et al., 2016). One simple way of
 369 deriving cut-offs is to use 2 standard deviations below the mean as a threshold to
 370 divide typical from atypical laterality (Adcock et al., 2003; Seghier et al., 2004).
 371 Abbott et al. (2010) used a similar approach in which an individual's LI distribution (LI
 372 as a function of voxel count) was compared to a normative distribution based on a
 373 sample of controls with 'typical' lateralisation. As illustrated in Fig. 10, the individual's
 374 threshold-dependent laterality curve is established as being either within or below
 375 the lower 95% confidence interval for the control group (represented by the shaded
 376 area in Fig. 10). If an individual's laterality fell below such an interval, they were
 377 classed as atypical, on the basis of a low probability of their laterality data having

378 come from the 'population' of the normative group. This method thus provides an
379 objective definition of atypical lateralisation, but with the obvious limitation that it
380 relies on having a normative comparison group to define 'typical' lateralisation.



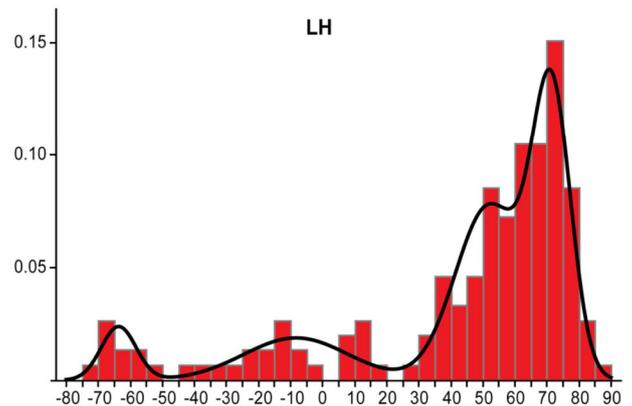
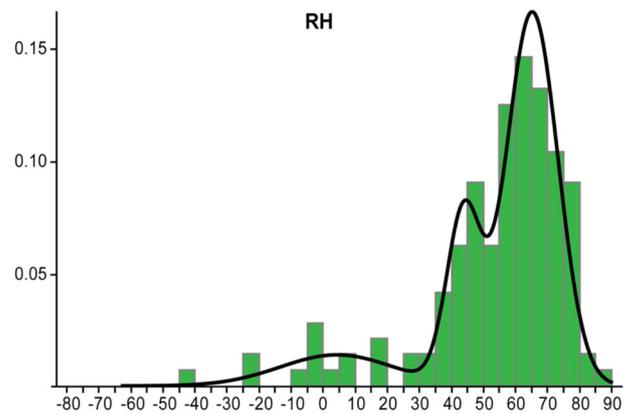
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390 Figure 10: **Abbott et al's (2010) method of dominance classification.** The
391 laterality curve of the subject (blue) is compared to that of a normative control group
392 (black), using the lower 95% confidence interval for the control group (represented
393 by the shaded area).

394 Other data-driven approaches to dominance classification suggest the existence
395 of more than two dominance categories. Berl et al. (2014) used a hierarchical
396 clustering method which gradually and iteratively combined cases into clusters and
397 indicated at what level in the hierarchy the optimal cluster solution was obtained.
398 They discussed both a three cluster solution and a two cluster solution for a large
399 sample of right handers; the former divided subjects into left dominant, crossed

400 dominance (one outlying case) or bilateral, whereas the latter divided typically and
401 atypically lateralised subjects. This latter solution was found to divide at an LI of 0.5,
402 which was therefore argued to represent a meaningful cut-off for dominance
403 classification.

404 A larger-scale study by Mazoyer et al. (2014) looked at dominance categories in
405 both left and right handed participant groups. They used Gaussian mixture modelling
406 to extract dominance categories from laterality data (consisting of LI values between
407 -100 and +100), which involves determining the optimal number of Gaussian
408 functions that can be fitted to the data. This found different model solutions for right
409 and left handed groups. For the right handed group (Fig. 11, top panel), a three
410 function solution was optimal, consisting of two overlapping 'typical' (left dominant)
411 functions (both with LI values above +18) and a third 'ambilateral' function
412 (consisting of LI values between -50 and +18). This agrees with Berl et al.'s (2014)
413 study, which found no evidence for right hemisphere dominance in a right handed
414 group. However, in the left handed group (Fig. 11, bottom panel), an additional
415 'strongly atypical' function was found with strongly negative LI values (below -50).
416 Only 10 left handers from this large sample (297 right and left handers) were strongly
417 atypical, indicating that it is very rare. They thus argued for the need to treat atypical
418 laterality as a heterogeneous group consisting of the subgroups of 'ambilateral' and
419 'strongly atypical'; conversely, it was argued that the overlapping typical distributions
420 (from both left and right handed participants) could be combined into a single
421 homogenous typical group.

422 Figure 11: **Mazoyer et al's (2014) method**
423 **of dominance classification.** Histograms
424 showing the distribution of LI values across
425 samples of right handed and left handed
426 individuals, with the envelope showing the
427 Gaussian functions fitted to the data for
428 determination of dominance groups.
429 Reprinted from Mazoyer et al. (2014), open
430 access.



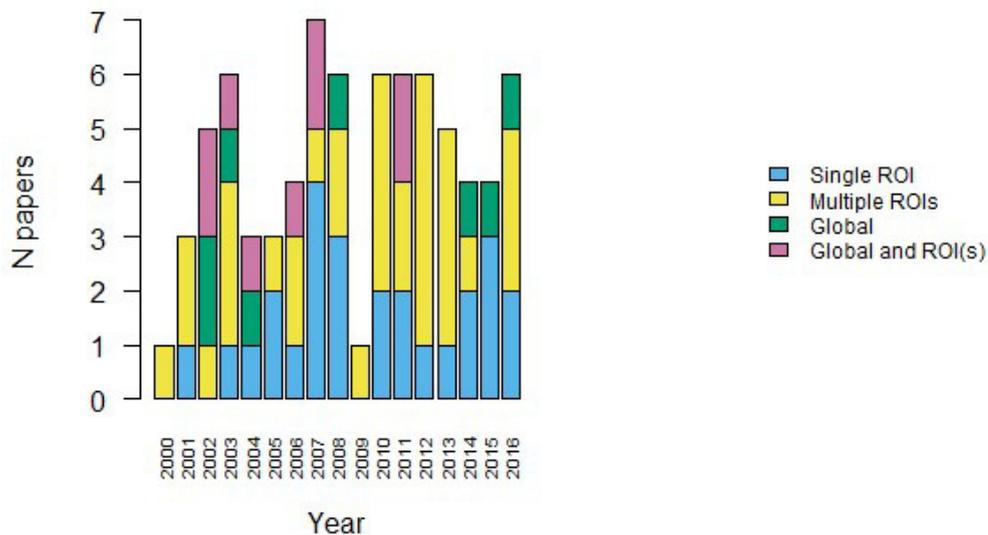
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434 These data-driven methods of deriving dominance categories suggest that the
435 traditional -0.2 and 0.2 cut-offs do not reflect the true distribution of LIs across
436 individuals, and that revision of standards for dominance classification is needed in
437 the field, with ramifications for both clinical practice and research.

438 **Effect of region of interest on laterality**

439 Another key consideration in calculating an LI concerns whether to include all voxels
440 across a hemisphere (to calculate a global LI) or whether to define a region or
441 several regions of interest (a regional LI). Figure 12 shows changes in approach to
442 choice of region over time across the studies within our search. It can be seen that
443 the majority of studies use a regional LI, either picking a single ROI or calculating
444 multiple LIs from different regions. A number of studies have compared global and
445 regional approaches to LI calculation, particularly in earlier years within our search

446 period. This evidence on the relative advantages and disadvantages of the global
 447 and regional approaches is discussed below. It can also be seen that a substantial
 448 proportion of studies use a single ROI in LI calculation; however, a review of
 449 evidence on regional variability in laterality questions the adequacy of such an
 450 approach (see *Regional heterogeneity in laterality*).



451 **Figure 12: Use of global and regional approaches to LI calculation over time.**

452 Plot shows the regional approaches used for LI calculation by studies within our
 453 search across the period from 2000 to 2016.

454 ***Global and regional LIs***

455 A potential issue with global LIs is that voxels outside the areas most relevant to the
 456 language paradigm can have a strong influence on the LI obtained. Whilst many
 457 studies have shown that LIs from pre-specified language ROIs are stronger and
 458 more reliable than global LI measurements (Fernandez et al., 2001; Rutten et al.,
 459 2002; Suarez et al., 2007; Pravata et al., 2011), others have found no difference
 460 (Hund-Georgiadis, Lex, Friederici & von Cramon, 2002) or the opposite (Rutten et

461 al., 2002; Wilke & Lidzba, 2007). Further studies suggest that whether global or
462 regional LI measures are optimal may depend on other methodological decisions.
463 For example, Jansen et al. (2006) reported that global LIs were more reliable than
464 regional LIs when a voxel count approach was used. Similarly, Rutten et al. (2002)
465 reported greater reliability for global LIs over regional LIs during an antonym
466 generation task, but that the reverse was true for a verb generation task.

467 In general however, cases of crossed dominance or regional heterogeneity in
468 lateralisation have been used to argue for the need for regional rather than global
469 laterality indices, which fail to capture these finer grained individual patterns in
470 regional laterality (e.g. Seghier et al., 2011). Such evidence will be discussed in the
471 following section, *Regional heterogeneity in laterality*.

472 ***Regional approaches to LI calculation***

473 When using a regional rather than a global LI, careful thought must be given to
474 deciding which areas to choose as ROIs. Typically, areas within frontal and
475 temporoparietal cortex are chosen for measuring language laterality, such as the
476 inferior frontal cortex or posterior superior temporal gyrus. It is not the case that any
477 single ROI or combination of ROIs will always be optimal for assessing laterality;
478 instead, the choice of ROI(s) must be guided by other factors such as the language
479 function being studied or the purpose of laterality measurement.

480 There are a number of studies which measure laterality from both frontal and
481 temporoparietal ROIs, which allows one to compare the robustness and reliability of
482 their LIs. There is mixed evidence over whether frontal or temporoparietal ROIs yield
483 stronger or more reliable LI values. The majority of studies report stronger laterality
484 in frontal than temporoparietal ROIs, across a wide range of both expressive and

485 receptive tasks (Vikingstad, George, Johnson & Cao, 2000; Gaillard et al., 2003;
486 Clements et al., 2006; Harrington et al., 2006; Vernooji et al., 2007; Szaflarski et al.,
487 2008; Niskanen et al., 2012; Partovi et al., 2012a; Partovi et al., 2012b; Propper et
488 al., 2012; Ocklenburg et al., 2013). However, some have reported the opposite, a
489 pattern particularly associated with the use of receptive tasks such as semantic
490 decision, speech listening or auditory comprehension (Fernandez et al., 2001;
491 Ramsey et al., 2001; Hund-Georgiadis et al., 2002; Harrington et al., 2006;
492 Bethmann et al., 2007; Brennan et al., 2007; Sanjuan et al., 2010; van Oers et al.,
493 2010; Jensen-Kondering et al., 2012; Niskanen et al., 2012; Häberling et al., 2016).
494 A similar pattern emerges for reliability of laterality measurement; while frontal LIs
495 are often reported as more reliable than temporoparietal LIs (Harrington et al., 2006;
496 Szaflarski et al., 2008; Partovi et al., 2012a), the reverse can be true when using a
497 receptive language task (Harrington et al., 2006; Jansen et al., 2006). This suggests
498 that the two areas are both capable of yielding robust and reliable laterality
499 measurement, provided that a receptive task is used to engage temporoparietal
500 areas.

501 ***Regional heterogeneity in laterality***

502 Research comparing laterality across regions has reported cases of crossed or
503 dissociated dominance across different cortical language areas, at both an individual
504 and a group level (Vikingstad et al., 2000; Thivard et al., 2005; Jansen et al., 2006;
505 Bethmann et al., 2007; Propper et al., 2010; Seghier et al., 2011; Van der Haegen et
506 al., 2012; Vingerhoets et al., 2013; Berl et al., 2014; Häberling et al., 2016).
507 Bethmann et al. (2007) reported four subjects with crossed frontal and temporal
508 dominance for a semantic decision task; in particular, one subject was classified as
509 bilateral when ROIs were combined, whereas classification based on either only a

534 methods has changed over time. Of course, the decisions one makes when
535 designing an fMRI laterality experiment will depend on the question being
536 investigated; however, here we have highlighted some key principles that emerge
537 from the literature that should be considered in order to generate increased
538 standardisation in fMRI laterality protocols across future studies. Increased
539 homogeneity in the methods used by different studies will enable better integration of
540 research findings in order to draw conclusions as to the nature and correlates of
541 language lateralisation.

542 fMRI LI calculation must address the problem of threshold dependence.
543 Bootstrapping represents a promising method for calculating a robust, threshold-
544 independent LI, making it a widely used method in recent research. The general
545 pattern of evidence suggests that signal magnitude may provide a more robust and
546 reliable measure than signal extent, and that regional LIs calculated from pre-
547 specified ROIs are stronger and more reliable than global LIs. However, such
548 decisions need to be considered in light of other methodological parameters (e.g. the
549 activity measure used) in order to optimise the fMRI analysis. A useful tool for
550 implementing such analysis methods is LI-tool, a tool-box within MATLAB software
551 (Mathworks, Natick, MA, USA), developed by Wilke and Lidzba (2007). This includes
552 options for different thresholding techniques and activity measures, and can
553 implement the bootstrapping method.

554 Data-driven methods can provide a less arbitrary means of classifying language
555 dominance and support the validity of a three category model of language
556 dominance within a mixed handedness sample, consisting of typical (left dominant),
557 ambilateral, and atypical (strongly right dominant) groups; conversely in right handed
558 samples a two-category model (typical versus ambilateral) may be sufficient

559 (Mazoyer et al., 2014). No subsequent studies have implemented the thresholds for
560 dominance classification suggested by Mazoyer et al's (2014) large scale study,
561 except a paper reporting on the same sample of right and left handed individuals
562 (Tzourio-Mazoyer et al., 2016). Further work is needed to implement and validate
563 these cut-offs, to see if these generalise to other samples and thus could be used as
564 standard practise.

565 The choice of which regions of interest to use for LI calculation again depends
566 on the question being asked. If one wishes to classify laterality for a particular
567 language function, one must consider which ROI yields the highest and most reliable
568 LIs for that function. Frontal ROIs typically yield the strongest and most reliable
569 laterality for expressive tasks, whereas a temporoparietal ROI may be more
570 appropriate for receptive tasks. However, measurement of laterality from a single
571 regional or global ROI can be misleading and does not capture potential regional
572 heterogeneity. This was highlighted recently by Tailby, Abbott and Jackson., (2017)
573 in relation to the need to appreciate such regional variability in presurgical planning
574 with epilepsy patients, and the consequent inadequacy of a single metric to quantify
575 an individual's 'language dominance'. Therefore, in fMRI laterality protocols,
576 lateralisation across frontal and temporoparietal ROIs for at least one expressive and
577 one receptive task should be measured, to obtain a comprehensive picture of any
578 individual's pattern of hemispheric dominance for language. This will enable further
579 work to investigate the significance of such regional heterogeneity in dominance; for
580 example, are there any functional consequences of having crossed frontal-temporal
581 language laterality? In this way, fMRI as a method of laterality measurement can
582 provide unique insights into lateralisation at a regional level; this should be fully
583 exploited in future research.

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