

1 **Influence of cognitive ability on therapy outcomes for anomia in adults with chronic**  
2 **post-stroke aphasia**

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## ABSTRACT

**Purpose:** The relationship between cognitive abilities and aphasia rehabilitation outcomes is complex and remains poorly understood. This study investigated the influence of language and cognitive abilities on anomia therapy outcomes in adults with aphasia.

**Methods:** 34 adults with chronic aphasia participated in Aphasia Language Impairment and Functioning Therapy. A language and cognitive assessment battery, including 3 baseline naming probes, was administered prior to therapy. Naming accuracy for 30 treated and 30 untreated items was collected at post-therapy and 1 month follow-up. Multiple regression models were computed to evaluate the relationship between language and cognitive abilities at baseline and anomia therapy outcomes.

**Results:** Both language and cognitive variables significantly influenced anomia therapy gains. Verbal short-term memory ability significantly predicted naming gains for treated items at post-therapy ( $\beta = -.551, p = .002$ ) and for untreated items at post-therapy ( $\beta = .456, p = .014$ ) and 1 month follow-up ( $\beta = .455, p = .021$ ). Furthermore, lexical-semantic processing significantly predicted naming gains for treated items at post-therapy ( $\beta = -.496, p = .004$ ) and 1 month follow-up ( $\beta = .545, p = .012$ ).

**Discussion:** Our findings suggest that individuals' cognitive ability, specifically verbal short-term memory, impacts anomia treatment success. Further research into the relationship between cognitive ability and anomia therapy outcomes may help to optimize treatment techniques.

**Key words:** Aphasia; Language; Cognition; Stroke.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

2 Anomia is a predominant feature of aphasia and as such, it is a frequent target for  
3 intervention. However, it remains unknown why some individuals with apparently similar  
4 language profiles may differentially respond to anomia therapy (Nickels, 2002b).  
5 Furthermore, it is currently not possible to predict with certainty who will respond to a  
6 particular treatment and the degree to which they will recover. It has been suggested that  
7 use of the entire cognitive system is required to participate in rehabilitation (Helm-  
8 Estabrooks, 2001, 2002) and some researchers posit that underlying cognitive deficits may  
9 account for the variable response to treatment in aphasia rehabilitation (Sinotte & Coelho,  
10 2007). An understanding of the role of cognition in aphasia rehabilitation is important so that  
11 we may optimize existing language interventions or alternatively develop new, targeted  
12 language and cognitive interventions, commensurate with individuals' cognitive strengths and  
13 limitations (Crosson et al., 2007). In view of the increasing demands on healthcare services,  
14 it is also important that we understand which factors predict therapy success in order to  
15 identify who may respond to therapy and to facilitate optimal recruitment and distribution of  
16 therapy services (Watila & Balarabe, 2015).

17 Cognition is a multidimensional construct and may be defined as having five general  
18 domains, including language, attention, memory, executive functions, and visuo-spatial skills  
19 (Helm-Estabrooks, 2002). Within each of these cognitive domains, it is acknowledged that  
20 there are distinct components. For example, executive functioning incorporates skills  
21 pertaining to shifting, planning and goal-oriented behavior, whereas, attention may be further  
22 differentiated into sustained, selective and divided attention (Lezak, Howieson, & Loring,  
23 2004; Murray, 2012). The presence of concomitant cognitive impairments in adults with post-  
24 stroke aphasia has been well documented (El Hachioui et al., 2014), and impairments in the  
25 domains of attention (Erickson, Goldinger, & LaPointe, 1996; Glosser & Goodglass, 1990;  
26 Murray, 2012; Murray, Holland, & Beeson, 1997; Sturm & Willmes, 1991; Villard & Kiran,  
27 2015), memory (Beeson, Bayles, Rubens, & Kaszniak, 1993; Mayer & Murray, 2012; Seniow,

1 Litwin, & Lesniak, 2009a), and executive function (Fridriksson, Nettles, Davis, Morrow, &  
2 Montgomery, 2006; Purdy, 2002) have been identified.

3         The presence of cognitive impairments in individuals post-stroke has been found to  
4 influence spontaneous recovery in the first 12 months' time post onset (TPO) and is  
5 significantly related to poorer functional outcomes (El Hachioui et al., 2014; Lesniak, Bak,  
6 Czepiel, Seniow, & Czlonkowska, 2008). Support for the role of general cognitive functions in  
7 aphasia rehabilitation has been provided by neuroimaging studies (Fridriksson et al., 2007;  
8 Geranmayeh, Brownsett, & Wise, 2014; Meinzer & Breitenstein, 2008; Menke et al., 2009;  
9 Raboyeau et al., 2008), with evidence suggesting that areas known to modulate memory,  
10 attention and cross-modal integration may be integral to the rehabilitation process.  
11 Furthermore, in an analysis of the patient profiles of the participants in a randomized  
12 controlled trial directed to the efficacy of either semantic or phonological treatment  
13 (Doesborgh et al., 2004) van de Sandt-Koenderman et al. (2008) identified general cognitive  
14 ability at 3 to 5 months TPO as a significant predictor of treatment-induced aphasia recovery  
15 at 12 months TPO. van de Sandt-Koenderman et al. (2008) investigated the influence of  
16 linguistic, somatic, neuropsychological, psychosocial, and socioeconomic variables on the  
17 treatment-induced recovery of verbal communication, as measured by the Amsterdam  
18 Nijmegen Everyday Language Test (ANELT; Blomert, Kean, Koster, & Schokker, 1994).  
19 Individuals' attention, concentration, verbal and non-verbal memory, semantic reasoning and  
20 executive function was assessed using a comprehensive cognitive assessment battery. A  
21 single measure of individuals' neuropsychological ability was then obtained based on clinical  
22 ratings from members of the multidisciplinary team. This measure of neuropsychological  
23 ability was found to be the only variable to significantly predict changes in verbal  
24 communication on the ANELT at 12 months TPO, providing support for the general role of  
25 cognition in the treatment-induced recovery from aphasia.

26         Few studies have specifically investigated the influence of cognitive abilities on  
27 anomia rehabilitation outcomes in aphasia (Basso, 2003). An early study conducted by  
28 Goldenberg, Dettmers, Grothe, and Spatt (1994) found that language ability at baseline

1 assessment significantly correlated with both spontaneous recovery and treatment success.  
2 In contrast, cognitive abilities at baseline only influenced treatment success, suggesting a  
3 specific influence of cognition in learning and therapy response. Goldenberg et al. (1994)  
4 found that two memory tests for visual information (Rey Figure recall test; Meyers & Meyers,  
5 1995; informal semantic recall task) significantly correlated with naming gains at the  
6 completion of therapy, whereas cognitive measures of praxis, executive function and working  
7 memory did not correlate with treatment outcomes. Consistent with the findings of  
8 Goldenberg et al. (1994)., Seniow, Litwin, and Lesniak (2009b) found that visuo-spatial  
9 memory, measured using the Benton Visual Retention Test (Benton, 1974), significantly  
10 correlated with improvements in naming post-therapy, whereas executive functions did not.  
11 Together, Seniow et al. (2009b) and Goldenberg et al. (1994) provide support for the role of  
12 visuo-spatial memory in the treatment-induced recovery of naming. However, these two  
13 studies included participants in the subacute phase of recovery from stroke (TPO 2 to 6  
14 months). Whilst the authors report differential effects of cognitive abilities during the  
15 treatment and recovery periods, it is still possible that these results may be influenced by  
16 spontaneous recovery.

17         Yeung and Law (2010) investigated the influence of executive function and attention,  
18 measured using the Test of Nonverbal Intelligence (TONI-3; Brown, Sherbenou, & Johnsen,  
19 1997) and the Attention Network Test (ANT; Fan, McCandliss, Sommer, Raz, & Posner,  
20 2002), respectively, on anomia therapy outcomes in 12 participants with chronic aphasia.  
21 The study revealed that executive function was significantly correlated with treatment gains  
22 at post-therapy and during the maintenance phase (weeks 2 to 4 post-therapy) as well as  
23 with generalization to phonologically related, untreated items. Furthermore, performance on  
24 the ANT significantly correlated with generalization to untreated items; however, it was not  
25 correlated with naming performance for treated items. Yeung and Law (2010) hypothesized  
26 that participants with strong executive function skills were better able to learn, apply and  
27 internalize naming strategies trained during therapy, and as such, had superior therapy  
28 outcomes.

1           Finally, a recent series of anomia therapy studies has highlighted the importance of  
2 cognitive abilities in predicting therapy outcomes (Conroy, Sage, & Lambon Ralph, 2009b;  
3 Fillingham, Sage, & Lambon Ralph, 2005a, 2005b, 2006; Sage, Snell, & Lambon Ralph,  
4 2011; Snell, Sage, & Lambon Ralph, 2010). These studies report somewhat variable results  
5 regarding the role of executive function, self-monitoring and memory performance on anomia  
6 therapy outcomes; however, this variation may have been due to small sample size. Lambon  
7 Ralph, Snell, Fillingham, Conroy, and Sage (2010) pooled the data from four studies with  
8 comparable treatment designs (Conroy, Sage, & Lambon Ralph, 2009a; Fillingham et al.,  
9 2006; Sage et al., 2011; Snell et al., 2010) to further evaluate the role of cognitive abilities in  
10 a sample of 33 participants with aphasia. A principal component analysis revealed two  
11 factors, a cognitive and a language factor, which accounted for 34.5% and 23.1% of the  
12 variation in background measures, respectively. Measures of attention (Test of Everyday  
13 Attention, TEA; Robertson, Ward, Ridgeway, & Nimmo-Smith, 1994), executive function  
14 (Wisconsin Card Sort Task; Grant & Berg, 1993), and visuo-spatial memory (Rey Figure  
15 copy / recall; Meyers & Meyers, 1995) all loaded highly on the cognitive factor, whereas  
16 repetition and reading aloud loaded highly on the language (phonological) factor. Importantly,  
17 both factors significantly correlated with therapy outcomes for anomia at post-therapy and  
18 follow-up testing. Lambon Ralph et al. (2010) is an influential study as it is the first to  
19 demonstrate, with a relatively large sample of participants, the influence of cognitive function  
20 on anomia therapy outcomes in adults with chronic aphasia. However, the total amount of  
21 therapy provided in this research was limited (i.e., average session 20 to 40 minutes, 2  
22 sessions per week for 5 weeks, total therapy time 3 hours 20 minutes to 6 hours 40 minutes).  
23 As such, it is difficult to determine whether an increased amount of therapy would have  
24 influenced the relationship between cognitive ability and therapy outcomes. For example, it is  
25 possible that only individuals with intact attentional abilities were able to attend to and  
26 consequently benefit from this limited dose of treatment. With an increased amount of  
27 therapy, it is possible that a different profile regarding the relative influence of cognitive  
28 abilities may emerge.

1 Previous research has considered the influence of cognitive impairments on  
2 treatment-induced language recovery in adults with aphasia. Several studies have  
3 investigated the effect of general cognitive abilities, measured using a composite score or  
4 battery of cognitive assessments, on treatment response (Lambon Ralph et al., 2010; van de  
5 Sandt-Koenderman et al., 2008). However, these studies do not enable consideration of the  
6 influence of individual cognitive skills and as such their clinical application may be limited.  
7 Furthermore, studies investigating the role of individual cognitive domains on treatment  
8 response have yielded mixed results. Several studies have provided support for the role of  
9 executive functions in language treatment response (Fillingham et al., 2005a, 2005b, 2006;  
10 Hinckley & Carr, 2001), whilst other studies have failed to find a significant relationship  
11 (Goldenberg et al., 1994; Seniow et al., 2009b). Likewise, evidence for the influence of  
12 attention (Hinckley & Nash, 2007; Kalbe, Reinhold, Brand, Markowitsch, & Kessler, 2005;  
13 Lambon Ralph et al., 2010) and visuo-spatial processing (Conroy et al., 2009a; Goldenberg  
14 et al., 1994; Lambon Ralph et al., 2010) on language treatment response is inconclusive.  
15 These mixed findings may be due to the influence of spontaneous recovery (Goldenberg et  
16 al., 1994; Seniow et al., 2009b), the use of small sample sizes (e.g., Conroy et al., 2009a, n =  
17 7; Fillingham et al., 2005a, n = 7; 2005b, n = 7; 2006, n = 11) or the limited dosage of therapy  
18 provided (e.g., Lambon Ralph et al., 2010).

19 The present study aimed to investigate the influence of cognitive abilities on anomia  
20 therapy outcomes, as measured by naming accuracy for treated and untreated items, in  
21 adults with chronic, post-stroke aphasia. We recruited a relatively large sample of  
22 participants with chronic aphasia; provided an increased dosage of aphasia therapy (i.e., 48  
23 hours aphasia therapy) and administered a comprehensive cognitive assessment battery. It  
24 is suggested that the integrity and recruitment of all cognitive domains is necessary for the  
25 rehabilitation process (Goldenberg et al., 1994; Seniow et al., 2009b). As such, we  
26 considered the influence of skills within each of the cognitive domains on anomia treatment  
27 response. Sufficient attention to task during training is required in order to process  
28 information (Helm-Estabrooks, 2002) and according to Keefe (1995) is necessary for cortical

1 reorganization and recovery to occur. From a clinical perspective, sustained attention is  
2 important for individuals to be able to maintain focus for the duration of the therapy session,  
3 whilst selective attention is necessary in order to block-out external stimuli. As rehabilitation  
4 is considered a learning experience, intact memory processes are required in order to recall  
5 trained skills and behaviors (Goldenberg et al., 1994). The goal of anomia therapy is to  
6 (re)acquire verbal information and as such; specific consideration of individuals' verbal short-  
7 term memory is important (Martin & Saffran, 1999). Given that aphasia therapy resources are  
8 often provided visually (i.e., pictorially), we also considered individuals' visuo-spatial short  
9 term memory (Seniow et al., 2009b). Visuo-spatial short-term memory has the additional  
10 benefit of being able to be assessed in individuals' with severe expressive aphasia.  
11 Individuals' working memory, which involves the ability to store information short-term whilst  
12 completing a cognitive task, was also assessed. This skill is considered an important  
13 component of intelligent reasoning and as such, has implications for the therapeutic process  
14 (Seniow et al., 2009b). Finally, we considered skills pertaining to individuals' executive  
15 functioning, including measures of cognitive flexibility, concept formation and problem  
16 solving. These skills directly relate to the ability to understand the goals of intervention, self-  
17 regulate behavior, and generate and implement strategies to facilitate communication (Helm-  
18 Estabrooks, 2002; Hinckley & Carr, 2001; Seniow et al., 2009b). As baseline language ability  
19 is acknowledged as a key predictor of anomia therapy outcomes (e.g., Lambon Ralph et al.,  
20 2010; Martin, Fink, Renvall, & Laine, 2006), we also investigated the influence of two  
21 language variables, Aphasia severity and lexical-semantic processing, on anomia therapy  
22 gains.

23           It was hypothesized that individuals with aphasia would demonstrate variable  
24 cognitive profiles and that impairments in the cognitive domains of attention (Helm-  
25 Estabrooks, 2002; Lambon Ralph et al., 2010; Yeung & Law, 2010), memory (Goldenberg et  
26 al., 1994; Seniow et al., 2009b), and executive function (Lambon Ralph et al., 2010; Yeung &  
27 Law, 2010) would result in inferior therapeutic outcomes at post-therapy and 1 month follow-  
28 up, with respect to the confrontation naming of treated and untreated items. It was also



1 hypothesized that individual cognitive domains would differ in their contribution to anomia  
2 treatment outcomes, with respect to the relative importance of individual cognitive domains  
3 (Helm-Estabrooks, 2002; Kalbe et al., 2005). As such, we also aimed to explore the relative  
4 impact of impairments in attention, memory and executive function on anomia therapy  
5 outcomes.

6 This study was conducted as part of a larger research project investigating the  
7 efficacy of the intensive, comprehensive aphasia rehabilitation program, Aphasia Language  
8 Impairment and Functioning Therapy (Aphasia LIFT). In the rehabilitation literature, there is  
9 increasing support for the provision of intensive therapy (Bhogal, Teasell, Foley, &  
10 Speechley, 2003; Bhogal, Teasell, & Speechley, 2003; Pulvermuller & Berthier, 2008);  
11 however, few studies have directly considered how cognitive ability may influence  
12 participation in intensive aphasia therapy programs. An intensive treatment schedule may  
13 place increasing cognitive demands on adults with aphasia and as such, it is possible that  
14 individuals with cognitive impairments may differentially respond to intensive versus  
15 distributed training. Consequently, a secondary aim of this study was to investigate the  
16 relationship between treatment intensity, cognitive ability and anomia therapy outcomes.

## 17 **METHODS**

### 18 **Study design**

19 Data for this study were collected as part of the broader Aphasia LIFT research  
20 program (Dignam et al., 2016; Dignam et al., 2015). A multiple baseline, parallel-group, pre-  
21 post-test design was employed.

### 22 **Participants**

23 Thirty-four adults (6F, 28 M; mean age 58.5 y, SD 10.9) with chronic aphasia (mean  
24 TPO 38.7 mo, SD 50.4) participated in the study (Table 1, Supplemental Table 1). Further  
25 details of these participants are reported in Dignam et al. (2015). The selection criteria for  
26 recruitment included 1) left hemisphere stroke; 2) greater than 4 months TPO; 3) residual  
27 aphasia with an aphasia severity score of less than 62.8 on the Comprehensive Aphasia  
28 Test (CAT; Swinburn, Porter, & Howard, 2004); and 4) fluent English spoken prior to their

1 stroke. Participants were excluded from the study if they had 1) co-morbid neurological  
2 impairment (e.g., diagnosis of dementia or Parkinson's disease); or 2) severe dysarthria or  
3 apraxia of speech. A decision was made by the research team to include one participant  
4 (P33) with a borderline CAT aphasia severity score of 63.0 due to the presence of significant  
5 word finding difficulties in conversation. Participants were allocated to an intensive (LIFT; n =  
6 16; 16 h per week, 3 weeks) versus distributed (D-LIFT; n = 18; 6 h per week, 8 weeks)  
7 treatment condition based on their geographic location, the availability of a position within the  
8 research program, and personal factors (i.e., participant availability, transport,  
9 accommodation). Two-tailed *t* tests and Fisher's exact tests were used to compare the two  
10 cohorts, LIFT and D-LIFT, at baseline. The two groups were comparable with respect to  
11 baseline demographic, language and cognitive variables ( $p > .05$ ) (Table 1). This study was  
12 approved by the relevant institutional ethics committees and written informed consent was  
13 obtained from participants prior to participation in study procedures.

#### 14 **Assessment**

15 Prior to therapy, all participants underwent a comprehensive language (Table 2) and  
16 cognitive assessment (Table 3). As therapy primarily targeted word retrieval, confrontation  
17 naming of treated and untreated items was selected as the primary outcome measure. Three  
18 baseline naming probes, consisting of 309 picture (noun) stimuli obtained from the Bank of  
19 Standardized Stimuli (Brodeur, Dionne-Dostie, Montreuil, & Lepage, 2010) were  
20 administered. Forty-eight items that the participant was unable to name correctly (i.e., 0/3 or  
21 1/3 accuracy) were selected and randomly allocated to treated (n = 24) and untreated control  
22 (n = 24) sets. In order to provide a level of success with therapy, 12 items that the person  
23 with aphasia was able to name correctly (i.e., 2/3 or 3/3 accuracy) were selected and  
24 randomly allocated to treated (n = 6) and untreated control (n = 6) sets. Independent  
25 samples *t* tests confirmed that treated and untreated control sets were comparable with  
26 regards to baseline naming accuracy, SUBTITLE frequency (Balota et al., 2007), name  
27 agreement (Brodeur et al., 2010) and number of syllables ( $p < .05$ ). During therapy,  
28 confrontation naming accuracy for treated and untreated items was probed after every 3

1 hours of impairment therapy. Outcome measures for naming accuracy of treated and  
2 untreated items were collected immediately post-therapy and at 1 month follow-up.

### 3 *Language*

4 The language battery of the CAT (Swinburn et al., 2004) was administered to  
5 evaluate participants' receptive and expressive language abilities. An estimate of  
6 participants' lexical-semantic processing was also obtained from the CAT by taking the sum  
7 of participants' raw scores from the auditory and written (single) word comprehension  
8 subtests.

### 9 *Attention*

10 Two auditory subtests from the Test of Everyday Attention (TEA; Robertson et al.,  
11 1994) were administered to evaluate participants' sustained attention (Elevator Counting)  
12 and selective attention (Elevator Counting with Distraction). The Elevator Counting with  
13 Distraction subtest also loads highly on verbal working memory.

### 14 *Verbal Memory and Learning*

15 The Hopkins Verbal Learning Test - Revised (HVLTR; Brandt & Benedict, 2001)  
16 was administered to evaluate participants' verbal short-term memory and learning. Verbal  
17 short-term memory and working memory were also measured using the forward and reverse  
18 digit span tasks (Lezak et al., 2004), respectively. The reverse digit span task is also  
19 suggested to load on measures of attentional capacity and executive function (Baddeley &  
20 Hitch, 1974; Groeger, Field, & Hammond, 1999; Lezak et al., 2004).

### 21 *Visuo-spatial Memory and Learning*

22 The Brief Visuo-spatial Memory Test – Revised (BVMT-R; Benedict, 1997) was  
23 administered to evaluate participants' visuo-spatial memory and learning

### 24 *Executive Function*

25 Two subtests from the Delis Kaplan Executive Function System test (D-KEFS; Delis,  
26 Kaplan, & Kramer, 2001) were administered to evaluate participants' executive function  
27 skills. The D-KEFS Trails (switching) subtest is a measure of cognitive flexibility, which is  
28 considered important for higher-level skills such as multitasking, simultaneous processing

1 and divided attention (Delis et al., 2001). The D-KEFS Sorting subtest assesses participants'  
2 concept formation and problem solving abilities.

### 3 **Therapy**

4 Therapy was administered in accordance with the principles of Aphasia LIFT outlined  
5 in Rodriguez et al. (2013). Participants each received 48 hours of aphasia therapy, which  
6 predominantly targeted word retrieval impairments. Therapy was comprised of 14 hours of  
7 impairment therapy, 14 hours of computer therapy, 14 hours of functional therapy and 6  
8 hours of psycho-social group therapy. Impairment therapy incorporated training of 30 treated  
9 items using semantic feature analysis and phonological components analysis (Boyle, 2010;  
10 Boyle & Coelho, 1995; Leonard, Rochon, & Laird, 2008). Computer therapy reinforced  
11 training of these items using the computer software program StepbyStep (Steps Consulting  
12 Limited., 2002). Functional therapy incorporated practice of communication strategies and  
13 skills in functional communication environments, for example through the use of role-play  
14 and script training (Cherney, Halper, Holland, & Cole, 2008). Finally, group therapy  
15 employed a psycho-social approach and was based on the Aphasia Action Success  
16 Knowledge program (Grohn, Brown, Finch, Worrall, Simmons-Mackie, Thomas, unpublished  
17 data, 2012).

18 A comprehensive Aphasia LIFT manual was developed to promote treatment fidelity.  
19 Therapy was provided by qualified speech pathologists who received training on the  
20 treatment approaches used in Aphasia LIFT. In some instances, computer therapy was  
21 facilitated by trained speech pathology students or a trained allied health assistant under the  
22 supervision of a qualified speech pathologist. Further details regarding the therapy  
23 procedures are reported in Dignam et al. (2016) and Dignam et al. (2015).

### 24 **Data Analysis**

25 Therapy outcomes for treated and untreated items were analyzed at the individual  
26 level using the WEighted Statistics Rate of Change (WEST-ROC) method outlined in  
27 Howard, Best, and Nickels (2014). The WEST-ROC analysis takes into account individual  
28 variability during the baseline phase and compares participants' pre-therapy naming

1 accuracy with naming accuracy at post-therapy and 1 month follow-up using a weighted one  
2 sample *t* test (Howard et al., 2014).

3 In order to establish a single treatment outcome score for treated and untreated  
4 items, the proportion of potential maximal gain was calculated at post-therapy and 1 month  
5 follow-up (e.g., post-therapy raw score – pre-therapy mean score)/(total number of items –  
6 pre-therapy mean score) (Lambon Ralph et al., 2010). Proportion of treatment gain at post-  
7 therapy was transformed using a reflect and logarithmic transformation (Tabachnick & Fidell,  
8 2007). The proportion of potential maximal gain for treated and untreated items at post-  
9 therapy (treated items transformed) and 1 month follow-up, approximated a normal  
10 distribution according to the Shapiro Wilk test ( $p > .05$ ) (Shapiro & Wilk, 1965). Multiple  
11 regression analyses were conducted to determine the relative contributions of language and  
12 cognitive variables at baseline to anomia therapy outcomes at post-therapy and 1 month  
13 follow-up. Consistent with Murray (2012), variables that were significantly correlated with  
14 treatment outcomes at post-therapy or 1 month follow-up were entered into the multiple  
15 regression analyses. Where bivariate correlations between variables was high (i.e.,  $> .70$ ),  
16 the variable least correlated with therapy outcome was omitted in order to prevent issues  
17 with multi-collinearity (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). To account for potential differences  
18 between treatment conditions, Group (i.e., LIFT/D-LIFT) was also entered into the multiple  
19 regression analyses. Prior to finalizing the multiple regression models, assumptions of  
20 normality, linearity and homoscedasticity of residuals were tested and met.

## 21 **RESULTS**

22 Thirty-two participants completed the therapy trial. Two D-LIFT participants (P29,  
23 P31) withdrew from the study prior to the completion of therapy due to acute onset illness  
24 and their data have been excluded from analyses. One D-LIFT participant (P18) did not  
25 complete the 1 month follow-up assessment due to a change in personal circumstances.

26 Participants' proportion of potential maximal gain for treated and untreated items at  
27 post-therapy and 1 month follow-up are reported in Table 4. A subset of this data ( $n = 28$ ) are  
28 reported in Dignam et al. (2016). Twenty-six out of 32 participants made statistically

1 significant improvements in confrontation naming accuracy for treated items at post-therapy  
2 and therapy gains were maintained for 21 out of 31 participants at 1 month follow-up.  
3 Furthermore, nine out of 32 participants made statistically significant improvements in  
4 confrontation naming accuracy for untreated items at post-therapy and this was maintained  
5 for six out of 31 participants at 1 month follow-up.

### 6 **Pearson Correlations**

7 Pearson correlation analyses between language and cognitive ability and therapy  
8 outcomes for treated and untreated items are reported in Table 5. Strong, positive  
9 relationships (i.e.,  $r > .70$ ) between the following independent variables were found: Aphasia  
10 severity and lexical-semantic processing ( $r = .702, p < .001$ ); HVLTR Total score and HVLTR  
11 R Delayed score ( $r = .827, p < .001$ ); HVLTR Total score and D-KEFS Sorting (description)  
12 ( $r = .781, p < .001$ ); HVLTR Delayed score and D-KEFS Sorting (description) ( $r = .713, p <$   
13  $.001$ ); and BVMT-R Total score and BVMT-R Delayed score ( $r = .868, p < .001$ ). Where a  
14 strong, positive correlation between two independent variables was found, the independent  
15 variable least correlated with therapy outcomes at post-therapy or 1 month follow-up,  
16 according to the Pearson correlation coefficient, was omitted from the multiple regression  
17 analysis.

18 Pearson correlation analyses were also used to investigate the relationship between  
19 Aphasia severity (CAT) and cognitive abilities (Supplementary Table 2) in order to account  
20 for the potential influence of language processing ability on the validity of cognitive  
21 measures.

### 22 **Multiple Regression Analyses**

#### 23 *Treated Items*

24 Eight variables were entered into the multiple regression model to establish the  
25 relationship between language and cognitive ability and anomia therapy gains at post-  
26 therapy (Group, lexical-semantics, HVLTR Total score, BVMT-R Total score, BVMT-R  
27 Learning score, Reverse digit span, D-KEFS Trails-Switching, D-KEFS Sorting-Total Sorts).  
28 The multiple regression model was statistically significant and accounted for 72.3% of the

1 variance in anomia treatment outcomes at post-therapy,  $R^2 = .723$ , adjusted  $R^2 = .626$ ,  $F(8,$   
2  $23) = 7.50$ ,  $p < .001$  (Table 6). The beta weights indicate that verbal short-term memory and  
3 learning ability (HVLTR Total score),  $\beta = -.551$ ,  $p = .002$ , and lexical-semantic processing,  $\beta$   
4  $= -.496$ ,  $p = .004$ , significantly contributed to therapy outcome at post-therapy, while the  
5 regression coefficient for Group (i.e., LIFT/D-LIFT) was not statistically significant,  $\beta = -.190$ ,  
6  $p = .120$ . Furthermore, squared semi-partial correlations indicate that 15.4% of the variance  
7 was uniquely accounted for by verbal short-term memory and learning ability, whereas  
8 lexical-semantic processing contributed 12.7%.

9         Seven variables were entered into the multiple regression model to determine the  
10 relationship between language and cognitive ability and therapy gains for treated items at 1  
11 month follow-up (Group, lexical-semantics, HVLTR Delayed score, BVMT-R Delayed score,  
12 BVMT-R Learning score, Reverse digit span, D-KEFS Sorting-Total Sorts). The multiple  
13 regression model was statistically significant and accounted for 59.6% of the variance in  
14 therapy gains at 1 month follow-up,  $R^2 = .596$ , adjusted  $R^2 = .467$ ,  $F(7, 22) = 4.63$ ,  $p = .003$   
15 (Table 7). Analysis of the beta weights indicate that lexical-semantic processing significantly  
16 contributed to therapy outcomes at 1 month follow-up,  $\beta = .545$ ,  $p = .012$ , and squared semi-  
17 partial correlations indicate that lexical-semantic processing accounted for 13.9% of unique  
18 variance in treatment outcomes. The regression coefficients for Group ( $\beta = .292$ ,  $p = .060$ )  
19 and individual cognitive variables ( $p > .05$ ) were not statistically significant.

#### 20         *Untreated Items*

21         Three variables were entered into the multiple regression model to determine the  
22 influence of language and cognitive performance on naming accuracy for untreated items at  
23 post-therapy (Group, lexical-semantics, HVLTR Delayed score). The multiple regression  
24 model was statistically significant and accounted for 51.5% of the variance in therapy gains  
25 for untreated items at post therapy,  $R^2 = .515$ , adjusted  $R^2 = .461$ ,  $F(3, 27) = 9.54$ ,  $p < .001$   
26 (Table 8). The regression coefficient for Group was statistically significant,  $\beta = .313$ ,  $p = .030$ .  
27 As such, separate multiple regression models were run for the LIFT and D-LIFT conditions.  
28 The multiple regression model for the D-LIFT group was statistically significant,  $R^2 = .642$ ,

1 adjusted  $R^2 = .587$ ,  $F(2, 13) = 11.65$ ,  $p = .001$ . Performance on the HVLT-R (Delayed score)  
2 accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in naming gains for untreated items at  
3 post-therapy,  $\beta = .726$ ,  $s^2 = 28.7\%$ ,  $p = .007$ , whereas lexical-semantic processing did not ( $p$   
4  $> .05$ ). In contrast, the multiple regression model for the LIFT condition was not significant ( $p$   
5  $= .160$ ).

6 Finally, five variables were entered into the multiple regression model for untreated  
7 items at 1 month follow-up (Group, lexical-semantics, HVLT-R Delayed score, BVMT-R  
8 Delayed score, BVMT-R Learning score). The multiple regression model was statistically  
9 significant and accounted for 52.2% of the variance in naming gains for untreated items at 1  
10 month follow-up,  $R^2 = .522$ , adjusted  $R^2 = .426$ ,  $F(5, 25) = 5.46$ ,  $p = .002$  (Table 9). The beta  
11 weights indicate that the HVLT-R Delayed score significantly contributed to naming gains in  
12 untreated items at 1 month follow-up,  $\beta = .455$ ,  $s^2 = 11.6\%$ ,  $p = .021$ .

## 13 **DISCUSSION**

14 This study investigated the influence of cognitive abilities, including attention, memory  
15 and executive function, and language processing ability on short and long-term anomia  
16 therapy outcomes in adults with chronic aphasia. Importantly, we found that both language  
17 and cognitive variables independently predicted therapy outcomes for anomia. With respect  
18 to the role of individual cognitive abilities, we hypothesized that impairments in the cognitive  
19 domains of attention, memory and executive function would negatively influence anomia  
20 therapy outcomes. Consistent with this hypothesis, we found that performance on measures  
21 of verbal and visuo-spatial short-term memory, working memory and executive function was  
22 significantly correlated with naming gains for treated items. Furthermore, we found that  
23 performance on the delayed memory tasks for verbal and visuospatial short-term memory  
24 and visuo-spatial learning correlated with generalization to untreated items. In contrast to our  
25 hypotheses, however, we found that attentional capacity was not correlated with therapy  
26 gains for treated or untreated items. These findings are somewhat consistent with the results  
27 of a small number of studies that have previously investigated the relationship between  
28 cognitive ability and anomia therapy outcomes in adults with chronic aphasia (Lambon Ralph



1 et al., 2010; Yeung & Law, 2010). We further sought to explore the relative influence of  
2 individual cognitive domains on anomia therapy outcomes. We found that verbal short-term  
3 memory ability was the only cognitive skill to independently predict therapy gains for treated  
4 and untreated items, suggesting a key role of verbal short-term memory in anomia  
5 rehabilitation.

## 6 **Treated Items**

### 7 *Memory and Learning*

8 Helm-Estabrooks (2002) suggests that aphasia therapy is a learning experience and  
9 consequently therapy outcomes are dependent upon memory processes. The importance of  
10 memory-related structures on the success of anomia therapy has been further highlighted in  
11 neuroimaging studies conducted by Meinzer et al. (2010) and Menke et al. (2009).

12 Consistent with these results, we found that verbal and non-verbal short-term memory  
13 (HVLТ-R, BVMT-R) and working memory (reverse digit span) significantly correlated with  
14 anomia therapy outcomes and that verbal short-term memory was a significant predictor of  
15 therapy gains for treated and untreated items. Our findings suggest that the integrity of  
16 general memory processes is important in order to be able to learn and retain linguistic  
17 knowledge trained during aphasia rehabilitation. Previous research has highlighted the  
18 importance of verbal short-term memory in language learning and this skill has been found to  
19 significantly influence verbal learning in people with aphasia (Martin & Saffran, 1999).  
20 Furthermore, recent research has found that verbal learning ability, measured using a novel  
21 word learning paradigm, was significantly correlated with anomia therapy gains in adults with  
22 aphasia (Dignam et al., 2016). The results of the present study contribute to our  
23 understanding of the role of verbal short-term memory and learning in language recovery in  
24 aphasia and suggest that the short-term retention and rehearsal of linguistic information is an  
25 important skill in achieving anomia treatment gains.

26 Despite the potential influence of participants' language abilities, the HVLТ-R (total  
27 score) was the only cognitive measure to significantly contribute to the multiple regression  
28 model for treated items at post-therapy. According to the beta values, both verbal short-term

1 memory and lexical semantic processing independently predicted therapy gains for treated  
2 items at post-therapy. Furthermore, consideration of the squared semi-partial correlations  
3 indicates that verbal short-term memory ability accounted for 15.4% of variance in treated  
4 items at post-therapy, when controlling for the influence of other variables including lexical-  
5 semantic processing. Consequently, these findings suggest that verbal short-term memory  
6 was an important predictor of anomia treatment gains, independent of individuals' language  
7 processing ability.

8 Further support for the influence of short-term memory on anomia therapy outcomes  
9 is provided by the significant correlations between visuo-spatial memory, measured by the  
10 BVMT-R, and therapy gains for treated items. The positive relationship between visual-  
11 spatial memory and therapy outcomes is consistent with studies investigating treatment  
12 success and spontaneous recovery in acute/subacute aphasia (Goldenberg et al., 1994;  
13 Seniow et al., 2009b) and in treatment-induced recovery in chronic aphasia (Lambon Ralph  
14 et al., 2010). Goldenberg et al. (1994) suggests that the ability to recall linguistic information  
15 is dependent upon general memory abilities and that in adults with aphasia memory capacity  
16 may be determined using non-verbal, visuo-spatial memory tasks. Consequently, it is  
17 possible that measures of visuo-spatial short-term memory are more sensitive to the general  
18 memory capacity of individuals with aphasia, as they bypass an impaired language system.  
19 This argument further suggests that general memory capacities are important for language  
20 learning and recovery in aphasia rehabilitation.

21 Key differences emerged in the multiple regression models predicting therapy  
22 outcomes for treated items at post-therapy and 1 month follow-up, with respect to measures  
23 of memory. Interestingly, Total Scores from the HVLТ-R and BVMT-R (i.e., immediate recall  
24 scores) were most highly correlated with anomia therapy outcomes immediately post-  
25 therapy. In contrast, the Delayed Scores from the HVLТ-R and BVMT-R were most highly  
26 correlated with the maintenance of therapy gains at 1 month follow-up. These findings  
27 suggest that the cognitive mechanisms supporting memory and recall after a brief delay (i.e.,  
28 20 – 25 minutes) may also contribute to the long-term maintenance of therapy gains in

1 aphasia rehabilitation. As such, verbal and visuo-spatial memory tests incorporating a brief  
2 delayed recall test may provide important information about individuals' ability to maintain  
3 treatment gains in the long-term.

#### 4 *Executive Function*

5 Studies have demonstrated that higher order cognitive skills, including executive  
6 function, are important to be able to navigate the complex dynamics of human  
7 communication (Frankel, Penn, & Ormond-Brown, 2007; Fridriksson et al., 2006; Purdy,  
8 2002). Furthermore, previous research suggests that executive function plays an important  
9 role in the acquisition and maintenance of anomia therapy gains (Fillingham et al., 2005b;  
10 Lambon Ralph et al., 2010; Yeung & Law, 2010). Consistent with these studies, we found  
11 that two measures of executive function, the D-KEFS Sorting (total sorts) subtest and the D-  
12 KEFS Trails (switching) subtest, significantly correlated with anomia therapy outcomes for  
13 treated items. Hinckley and Carr (2001) suggest that executive functioning may influence  
14 individuals' response to particular types of aphasia therapy. The D-KEFS Sorting subtest is  
15 suggested to measure skills including concept formation and problem solving. The therapy  
16 provided in the present study included impairment based training, using semantic feature  
17 analysis and phonological components analysis. This treatment incorporates elements of  
18 strategy, concept formation and goal oriented behavior by encouraging participants to self-  
19 generate semantic and phonological features in order to aid retrieval of the target word. The  
20 D-KEFS Trails (switching) subtest is suggested to measure skills pertaining to mental  
21 flexibility including multi-tasking and simultaneous processing. Simultaneous processing  
22 involves combining discrete stimuli in order to better comprehend the whole (Huang, 2011)  
23 and as such, may be pertinent to the generation and integration of semantic and  
24 phonological features. It is suggested that the type of impairment-based treatment employed  
25 in the current study specifically engaged the use of higher-order executive functions,  
26 including concept formation, problem solving and simultaneous processing, to facilitate word  
27 retrieval. Consequently, participants' performance on measures of executive function

1 significantly correlated with and contributed to therapy success for treated items at post-  
2 therapy and 1 month follow-up.

### 3 *Attention*

4 Consistent with Lambon Ralph et al. (2010), we found that performance on the TEA  
5 Elevator Counting subtest was within normal limits for the majority of participants (28 out of  
6 34 participants) and did not significantly correlate with therapy outcomes. Participants'  
7 performance on the TEA Elevator Counting with Distraction (TEA/D) subtest was more  
8 variable, with 18 out of 34 participants demonstrating impaired selective attention. In contrast  
9 to our research hypotheses and Lambon Ralph et al. (2010), we found that performance on  
10 the TEA/D did not significantly correlate with therapy gains for treated items at post-therapy  
11 or 1 month follow-up. One potential account for this result is that the dosage of therapy  
12 provided in Aphasia LIFT (i.e., 48 hours) was sufficient to generate therapy-related changes  
13 even for individuals with impaired attention. The therapy dosage provided in Lambon Ralph  
14 et al. (2010) included two 20 to 40 minute therapy sessions per week for 5 weeks. As such, it  
15 is possible that with this limited total amount of therapy, only participants with strong  
16 attentional capacities were able to engage in and benefit from treatment. In contrast, with an  
17 increased dosage of therapy provided in the present study, even individuals with impaired  
18 attentional systems responded to therapy.

### 19 *Language Ability*

20 We found that both aphasia severity and lexical-semantic processing were  
21 significantly correlated with therapy gains for treated items. Specifically, lexical-semantic  
22 processing significantly predicted therapy gains for treated items at post-therapy and 1  
23 month follow-up. These findings are consistent with the results of previous research, which  
24 suggests that intact lexical-semantic processing is integral to the acquisition and  
25 maintenance of anomia therapy gains (Martin, Fink, & Laine, 2004; Martin et al., 2006). A  
26 number of theories have been proposed to account for the role of lexical-semantic  
27 processing in anomia treatment success (e.g., Howard, Hickin, Redmond, Clark, & Best,  
28 2006; Martin et al., 2006; Martin & Gupta, 2004); however, this remains a complex and

1 unresolved issue (Dignam et al., 2016). One potential account is provided by Martin et al.  
2 (2006), who suggest that impaired (input) lexical-semantic processing may result in impaired  
3 spreading activation to semantic levels of representations and consequently limit changes to  
4 the strength of connections between lexical-semantics and phonology. In addition, Martin  
5 and Gupta (2004) suggest that impaired lexical-semantic processing may disrupt semantic  
6 encoding during input and thus inhibit the learning of new verbal information. Further  
7 research to better understand the relationship between lexical-semantic processing and  
8 anomia treatment success is required.

### 9 **Untreated Items**

10 Consistent with previous research (Nickels, 2002b), we found that only a small  
11 number of participants made significant improvements in confrontation naming for untreated  
12 items at post-therapy (9 participants) and 1 month follow-up (6 participants). In a review of  
13 the anomia therapy literature, Best et al. (2013) found that treatments with a focus on  
14 strategy, particularly those that incorporated semantics, were more likely to achieve  
15 generalization than treatments that targeted specific representations. If the application of  
16 strategy is responsible for generalization, it is hypothesized that executive function would  
17 significantly correlate with gains for untreated items. However, the results of the present  
18 study do not support this hypothesis. Instead, we found that delayed recall for verbal  
19 information (i.e., HVLT-R Delayed score) significantly predicted gains for untreated items.  
20 Interestingly, Nickels (2002a) found improvements in naming accuracy for untreated items as  
21 a result of attempted naming, when no feedback or cueing was provided. Nickels (2002a)  
22 hypothesized that successful naming of a target may raise the resting level of activation,  
23 making it more likely that the target will be successfully retrieved on future presentations.  
24 Accordingly, Howard et al. (2014) suggest that in some cases improved naming for untreated  
25 items may actually be the result of repeated probing rather than generalization of word  
26 retrieval skills. It is possible that exposure to the untreated items alone may have  
27 inadvertently resulted in improved naming. Consistent with this suggestion, individuals with  
28 superior short-term memory and learning processes, as measured by the HVLT-R, were

1 more likely to recall prior presentations of the probes and thus accurately retrieve the target  
2 items. The results of our study suggest that exposure to the probes and not generalization of  
3 underlying word retrieval skills may have resulted in improved naming for untreated items. As  
4 suggested by Howard et al. (2014), use of three stimuli sets (treated items, untreated items  
5 which are probed as frequently as treated items, and untreated items that are only assessed  
6 before and after the therapy phase) will allow further evaluation of the effects of  
7 generalization, independent of repeated naming probes.

8 We hypothesized that impairments in attention, executive function and memory would  
9 negatively influence anomia therapy success for treated and untreated items. However, only  
10 short-term memory ability significantly accounted for gains in untreated items and we  
11 suggest that this result may be due to repeated probing. In contrast, both short-term memory  
12 and executive function significantly correlated with therapy outcomes for treated items. This  
13 finding suggests that treatment effects were not just the result of exposure to treated stimuli,  
14 but that higher order cognitive processes were important to the therapeutic process and  
15 therapy outcomes. Furthermore, lexical-semantic processing was found to significantly  
16 influence therapy gains for treated items but not untreated items. This finding provides further  
17 support for the suggestion that alternative mechanisms are operating to support the  
18 acquisition and maintenance of treated items versus untreated items.

### 19 **Treatment Intensity**

20 We found that therapy group (LIFT/D-LIFT) was not a significant predictor of naming  
21 accuracy for treated items at post-therapy ( $\beta = -.190, p = .120$ ) or at 1 month follow-up ( $\beta =$   
22  $.292, p = .060$ ). Whilst we found a significant effect of Group for naming of untreated items at  
23 post-therapy ( $\beta = .313, p = .030$ ), post-hoc power analyses conducted using G\*Power 3.1  
24 (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009) indicate an achieved power of 0.43 for the LIFT  
25 condition, suggesting that this analysis was underpowered. Consequently, a larger cohort of  
26 participants is required in order to explore the relationship between treatment intensity,  
27 cognitive ability and generalization of anomia therapy outcomes.

### 28 **Limitations & Future Directions**

1           The validity of cognitive assessment in adults with aphasia, particularly assessments  
2 involving verbal processing, is often challenged due to the potential influence of language  
3 impairments on measures of cognition. In order to address this concern, we evaluated the  
4 relationship between cognitive variables and Aphasia severity (CAT) (Supplemental Table 2).  
5 Consistent with previous research (e.g., Baldo et al., 2005; Hinckley & Nash, 2007; Kalbe et  
6 al., 2005), we found significant correlations between measures of cognitive ability and  
7 aphasia severity. However, whilst cognitive tasks involving language processing components  
8 did correlate with aphasia severity, not all of these variables were found to significantly  
9 influence anomia therapy outcomes. For example, we found a strong, positive correlation  
10 between reverse digit span and aphasia severity ( $r = .818, p < .001$ ), and yet, this variable  
11 only accounted for 0.1% of unique variance in therapy gains for treated items at post-  
12 therapy. If the influence of cognitive variables on anomia therapy outcomes was confounded  
13 by language processing abilities, we would expect that cognitive variables with a strong  
14 correlation with aphasia severity, such as reverse digit span, would emerge as significant  
15 predictors; however, this was not the case. Furthermore, consideration of squared semi-  
16 partial correlations indicate that cognitive ability, specifically verbal short-term memory,  
17 accounted for a significant proportion of variance in treatment gains independent of lexical-  
18 semantic processing ability. Finally, we found significant, positive correlations between  
19 cognitive measures with limited verbal demands, such as the BVMT-R, and aphasia severity,  
20 which suggests that this relationship is not solely governed by the language processing  
21 requirements of the assessment. Thus, our results provide support for the interpretation that  
22 cognitive abilities influenced anomia therapy outcomes, independently of language  
23 processing ability.

24           This study specifically evaluated the influence of language and cognitive abilities on  
25 anomia therapy outcomes; however, stroke-related (i.e., lesion site and size) and  
26 demographic variables may also influence recovery and treatment response (Marshall &  
27 Phillips, 1983; Meinzer et al., 2010; Plowman, Hentz, & Ellis, 2012; Watila & Balarabe, 2015).  
28 Furthermore, metacognition plays a critical role in the learning process and as such, may

1 influence therapy outcomes (Toppino, Cohen, Davis, & Moors, 2009). Consistent with this  
2 suggestion, Fillingham et al. (2005a, 2005b) found that self-monitoring and participant  
3 awareness were significant predictors of anomia treatment success. Finally, personal factors,  
4 such as level of motivation and support, are important to the therapeutic process and may  
5 influence individuals' ability to achieve therapy gains. Further research investigating factors  
6 influencing treatment-induced recovery are required in order to advance models of  
7 rehabilitation and to establish clinically useful predictors of aphasia therapy response.

8         Finally, it is acknowledged that the therapy provided, Aphasia LIFT, was a  
9 comprehensive therapy program, which incorporated a combination of impairment,  
10 functional, computer and group-based training. Although impairment and computer-based  
11 therapy aimed to directly remediate the naming of treated items it is possible that therapeutic  
12 response may have been influenced by additional therapy components. As such, further  
13 research investigating the influence of cognitive domains on anomia therapy outcomes,  
14 whilst controlling the treatment approaches employed, is required.

## 15 **Summary & Conclusions**

16         This study provides evidence that both cognitive and language ability at baseline may  
17 significantly influence naming gains for treated and untreated items in response to aphasia  
18 therapy. Specifically, our findings provide support for the influence of verbal short-term  
19 memory and lexical-semantic processing on confrontation naming gains for treated items.  
20 This study advances our understanding of the cognitive mechanisms subserving treatment  
21 success in aphasia rehabilitation and the findings have important implications for clinical  
22 practice. Consideration of individuals' cognitive ability, specifically verbal short-term memory,  
23 may be helpful in determining individuals' suitability for therapy and in predicting therapy  
24 response. Furthermore, consideration of individuals' cognitive profile may help to develop  
25 more targeted language interventions, commensurate with individuals' cognitive strengths  
26 and weaknesses.

27



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**Table 1.** Participant profiles at baseline assessment.

<b>Variable</b>	<b>LIFT</b>	<b>D-LIFT</b>	<b>p value</b>
Sample size	16	18	
Sex	2F, 14M	4F, 14M	.66
Age (SD), y	56.9 (10.3)	60.0 (11.5)	.41
Handedness (EHI), n			
Right	15	16	>.99
Left	1	2	
Location of Stroke (left hemisphere), n	16	18	
Time Post Onset (SD), mo	47.3 (49.3)	31.1 (51.4)	.36
Aphasia Severity (CAT)	51.6 (6.4)	52.3 (5.3)	.75
Lexical-semantics	49.6 (9.3)	49.6 (12.7)	.99
Baseline Naming	108.3 (78.3)	136.4 (71.5)	.28
TEA	6.6 (0.8)	5.9 (1.4)	.08
TEA/D	5.9 (3.4)	4.0 (2.5)	.08
HVLT/T	12.9 (7.9)	12.8 (6.1)	.97
HVLT/D	2.9 (3.2)	4.1 (3.1)	.32
BVMT/T	16.1 (9.3)	15.1 (8.4)	.74
BVMT/D	5.8 (3.5)	6.6 (4.0)	.54
BVMT/L	2.8 (1.8)	3.7 (2.7)	.25
Digit span (forward)	4.4 (2.3)	4.1 (1.7)	.64
Digit span (reverse)	2.8 (1.7)	2.9 (1.7)	.74
D-Kefs Trails (switching)	3.6 (2.9)	2.7 (2.4)	.34
D-Kefs Sorting (total sorts)	6.6 (2.2)	6.3 (2.2)	.65
D-Kefs Sorting (description)	15.9 (13.6)	12.4 (10.3)	.40

*Note.* N = sample size; LIFT = Intensive therapy condition; D-LIFT = Distributed therapy condition; EHI = Edinburgh Handedness Index; CAT = Comprehensive Aphasia Test; TEA = Test of Everyday Attention (elevator counting subtest); TEA/D = Test of Everyday Attention with distraction (elevator counting with distraction subtest); HVLT/T = Hopkins Verbal Learning Test (total score); HVLT/D = Hopkins Verbal Learning Test (delayed score); BVMT/T = Brief Visuo-spatial Memory Test (total score); BVMT/D = Brief Visuo-spatial Memory Test (delayed score); BVMT/L = Brief Visuo-spatial Memory Test (learning score); D-KEFS Trails (switching) = Delis-Kaplan Executive Function System Test (trail making test, number-letter switching scaled score); D- KEFS Sorting (total sorts) = Delis-Kaplan Executive Function System Test (sorting test, confirmed sorts raw score); D-KEFS Sorting (description) = Delis-Kaplan Executive Function System Test (sorting test, description raw score).

**Table 2.** Participant language profiles at baseline assessment.

ID	Group	CAT Spoken Comp (56)	CAT Written Comp (59)	CAT Repetition (59)	CAT Naming (62)	CAT Reading (57)	CAT Writing (57)	CAT Severity (62.9)	Lexical-Semantics (60)	Mean Baseline Naming
1	LIFT	<b>61</b>	<b>65</b>	<b>66</b>	60	<b>59</b>	<b>61</b>	61.6	59	204.7
2	LIFT	<b>59</b>	55	56	53	51	52	53.7	55	109.7
3	LIFT	51	47	45	43	47	48	46.8	47	20.3
4	LIFT	46	46	43	35	42	49	45.1	45	5.3
5	LIFT	44	31	56	46	42	42	43.5	27	55.3
6	LIFT	<b>59</b>	56	53	55	55	56	54.9	56	118.0
7	LIFT	53	<b>60</b>	58	57	54	<b>58</b>	57.1	56	103.3
8	LIFT	55	57	52	62	50	<b>60</b>	56.8	59	216.3
9	LIFT	<b>60</b>	51	53	55	46	49	53.5	56	217.3
10	LIFT	46	41	45	42	44	44	43.9	35	30.0
11	LIFT	44	43	47	54	49	48	48.5	40	110.0
12	LIFT	<b>57</b>	53	<b>61</b>	60	57	<b>62</b>	59.1	55	219.0
13	LIFT	50	48	48	47	38	47	45.8	51	32.0
14	LIFT	50	51	54	57	50	49	52.0	56	140.3
15	LIFT	<b>61</b>	57	<b>72</b>	59	56	56	60.5	54	148.7
16	LIFT	41	46	39	40	46	48	43.5	43	3.0
17	D-LIFT	30	35	46	47	46	39	40.5	10	34.3
18	D-LIFT	<b>63</b>	<b>63</b>	45	56	50	57	54.3	58	156.7
19	D-LIFT	36	51	42	43	45	50	45.9	47	16.3
20	D-LIFT	45	45	46	49	53	45	48.4	46	43.0
21	D-LIFT	56	50	51	56	50	52	52.8	51	161.7
22	D-LIFT	56	51	52	55	51	47	50.4	55	205.3
23	D-LIFT	51	37	<b>72</b>	50	46	51	51.4	28	78.0
24	D-LIFT	<b>61</b>	58	57	53	54	<b>58</b>	56.3	56	157.7
25	D-LIFT	50	53	49	54	48	51	50.9	56	169.0
26	D-LIFT	56	52	52	55	53	50	52.1	54	153.7
27	D-LIFT	50	46	<b>60</b>	48	50	54	51.1	42	45.0
28	D-LIFT	<b>60</b>	<b>62</b>	53	54	48	54	54.6	56	124.7
29*	D-LIFT	<b>62</b>	<b>62</b>	53	59	50	<b>65</b>	60.6	56	268.0
30	D-LIFT	<b>60</b>	56	59	58	53	57	55.6	60	206.7
31*	D-LIFT	<b>58</b>	56	52	56	47	<b>69</b>	56.2	60	181.7
32	D-LIFT	45	48	48	53	49	48	46.5	45	104.7
33	D-LIFT	<b>59</b>	57	<b>60</b>	<b>64</b>	<b>66</b>	<b>69</b>	<b>63.0</b>	54	227.0
34	D-LIFT	48	54	47	52	48	49	50.9	58	122.3

*Note.* ID = participant identification number; LIFT = Intensive therapy condition; D-LIFT = Distributed therapy condition; CAT = Comprehensive Aphasia Test; (score) = CAT cut-off for non-aphasic performance; **Bold** = scores above cut-off; SS = Semantic impairment; POL = Phonological impairment; SS-POL = impairment in mapping semantics to phonology; \* withdrew from study.



**Table 3.** Participant cognitive profiles at baseline assessment.

ID	Group	TEA <i>(max = 7)</i>	TEA/D <i>(max = 10)</i>	HVLT/T <i>(max = 36)</i>	HVLT/D <i>(max = 36)</i>	BVMT/T <i>(max = 36)</i>	BVMT/D <i>(max = 36)</i>	BVMT/L <i>(max = 12)</i>	Digit Span <i>(forward)</i>	Digit Span <i>(reverse)</i>	D-KEFS Trails <i>(switching)</i>	D-KEFS Sorting <i>(total sorts)</i>	D-KEFS Sorting <i>(description)</i>
1	LIFT	<u>7</u>	<u>10</u>	12	1	14	2	0	7	5	3	6	23
2	LIFT	<u>7</u>	<u>5</u>	9	2	13	5	1	7	2	2	7	26
3	LIFT	<u>7</u>	4	9	na	13	4	5	6	3	1	6	0
4	LIFT	<u>7</u>	<u>10</u>	2	1	19	9	6	2	2	8	6	6
5	LIFT	<u>6</u>	4	10	0	0	0	0	5	2	1	2	0
6	LIFT	<u>6</u>	2	22	6	13	3	5	5	3	2	6	21
7	LIFT	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	20	5	27	10	4	4	5	6	7	22
8	LIFT	<u>7</u>	<u>9</u>	30	11	30	8	3	4	4	7	11	36
9	LIFT	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	20	6	12	6	4	7	2	5	9	32
10	LIFT	4	<u>3</u>	8	0	9	4	2	2	0	1	5	0
11	LIFT	<u>6</u>	2	10	1	6	2	1	2	2	1	5	12
12	LIFT	<u>7</u>	<u>10</u>	18	5	24	8	3	7	4	9	8	30
13	LIFT	<u>7</u>	6	6	1	6	2	2	3	2	1	8	0
14	LIFT	<u>7</u>	1	10	0	21	10	4	3	2	1	7	13
15	LIFT	<u>7</u>	<u>10</u>	19	5	34	12	2	7	6	7	9	34
16	LIFT	<u>7</u>	2	1	0	16	7	3	0	0	2	4	0
17	D-LIFT	<u>6</u>	<u>4</u>	2	0	4	2	0	3	0	1	2	0
18	D-LIFT	5	<u>6</u>	23	10	30	11	3	3	4	6	9	28
19	D-LIFT	<u>6</u>	4	5	2	9	2	2	2	0	1	6	4
20	D-LIFT	2	2	7	2	15	6	2	3	2	2	3	2
21	D-LIFT	<u>7</u>	<u>9</u>	11	3	21	11	7	4	4	9	7	25
22	D-LIFT	4	4	16	5	9	4	6	2	2	1	4	11
23	D-LIFT	<u>6</u>	2	13	0	11	7	4	7	4	1	7	4

24	D-LIFT	<u>7</u>	4	8	4	19	6	1	6	3	1	8	9
25	D-LIFT	<u>6</u>	1	14	6	29	12	6	2	2	1	7	12
26	D-LIFT	<u>7</u>	<u>5</u>	14	3	15	3	5	4	2	4	7	4
27	D-LIFT	<u>7</u>	<u>10</u>	10	0	16	10	7	7	4	4	8	5
28	D-LIFT	<u>7</u>	3	14	6	17	9	4	5	4	1	6	19
29*	D-LIFT	4	1	28	9	27	11	6	3	3	1	9	34
30	D-LIFT	<u>7</u>	2	18	9	23	12	9	5	4	7	8	22
31*	D-LIFT	5	<u>5</u>	10	6	23	12	1	5	5	3	6	15
32	D-LIFT	<u>6</u>	2	11	3	3	0	0	3	0	2	4	0
33	D-LIFT	<u>7</u>	3	13	3	6	3	2	7	6	1	3	8
34	D-LIFT	<u>7</u>	<u>5</u>	13	2	7	6	2	3	4	2	9	22

Note. ID = participant identification number; LIFT = Intensive therapy condition; D-LIFT = Distributed therapy condition; **Bold** = scores above cut-off; TEA = Test of Everyday Attention (elevator counting subtest); TEA/D = Test of Everyday Attention with distraction (elevator counting with distraction subtest); HVL/T = Hopkins Verbal Learning Test-Revised (total score); HVL/D = Hopkins Verbal Learning Test-Revised (delayed score); BVMT/T = Brief Visuo-spatial Memory Test-Revised (total score); BVMT/D = Brief Visuo-spatial Memory Test-Revised (delayed score); BVMT/L = Brief Visuo-spatial Memory Test-Revised (learning score); D-KEFS Trails (switching) = Delis-Kaplan Executive Function System Test (trail making test, number-letter switching scaled score); D- KEFS Sorting (total sorts) = Delis-Kaplan Executive Function System Test (sorting test, confirmed sorts raw score); D-KEFS Sorting (description) = Delis-Kaplan Executive Function System Test (sorting test, description raw score).

**Table 4.** Individual participants' proportion of maximal potential gain for treated and untreated items.

ID	Group	Treated Items Proportional Gain		Untreated Items Proportional Gain	
		Post-therapy	Follow-up	Post-therapy	Follow-up
1	LIFT	.82*	.56*	.24	.10
2	LIFT	.43*	.27	-.02	.12
3	LIFT	.57*	.45*	-.04	.21
4	LIFT	.25	.18	.07	.04
5	LIFT	.33	.06	.11	-.10
6	LIFT	.84*	.32	.28	.38
7	LIFT	.77*	.61*	.26	.22
8	LIFT	.96*	.63*	.25	.21
9	LIFT	.87*	.78*	.45*	.45*
10	LIFT	.34*	.26*	.10	.10
11	LIFT	.51*	.23	.12	-.01
12	LIFT	.91*	.66*	.43*	.30
13	LIFT	.30	.39	-.07	.10
14	LIFT	.96*	.91*	.42	.33
15	LIFT	.83*	.58*	.11	.24
16	LIFT	.10	.03	-.01	-.01
17	D-LIFT	.21	.16	.15	.07
18	D-LIFT	.91*	na	.55	na
19	D-LIFT	.40*	.08	-.11	-.11
20	D-LIFT	.58*	.42*	.15	.24
21	D-LIFT	.95*	.80*	.26	.22
22	D-LIFT	1.00*	.95*	.67*	.43*
23	D-LIFT	.06	.06	.02	.02
24	D-LIFT	.43*	.57*	.29	.14
25	D-LIFT	.82*	.64*	.54*	.44
26	D-LIFT	.71*	.43*	.26	.22
27	D-LIFT	.77*	.63*	.05	-.05
28	D-LIFT	.81*	.76*	.60*	.40*
30	D-LIFT	.95*	.95*	.70*	.85*
32	D-LIFT	.82*	.68*	.44*	.23
33	D-LIFT	.85*	.69*	.37*	.47*
34	D-LIFT	.91*	.91*	.43*	.38*

*Note.* ID = Participant identification; LIFT = Intensive treatment condition; D-LIFT = Distributed treatment condition; \* WEST-ROC Analysis  $p < .05$ .

**Table 5.** Pearson correlations for language and cognitive variables and therapy gains for treated and untreated items.

	Treated Items		Untreated Items	
	Post Therapy	Follow-up	Post Therapy	Follow-up
Aphasia Severity (CAT)	-.592**	.544**	.419*	.484**
Lexical-semantics	-.666**	.665**	.489**	.589**
TEA	-.084	.171	-.048	.053
TEA/D	-.204	.146	-.140	-.185
HVLT/T	-.706**	.513**	.537**	.536**
HVLT/D	-.636**	.531**	.635**	.683**
BVMT/T	-.425*	.348	.273	.312
BVMT/D	-.406*	.438*	.338	.389*
BVMT/L	-.410*	.396*	.325	.475**
Digit span (forward)	-.144	.202	.007	.159
Digit span (reverse)	-.473**	.461**	.263	.355
D-KEFS Trails (switching)	-.421*	.288	.190	.211
D-KEFS Sorting (total sorts)	-.403*	.409*	.156	.243
D-KEFS Sorting (description)	-.652**	.507**	.424*	.445*

*Note.* \* $p < .05$ ; \*\* $p < .01$ ; CAT = Comprehensive Aphasia Test; TEA = Test of Everyday Attention (elevator counting subtest); TEA/D = Test of Everyday Attention with distraction (elevator counting with distraction subtest); HVLT/T = Hopkins Verbal Learning Test (total score); HVLT/D = Hopkins Verbal Learning Test (delayed score); BVMT/T = Brief Visuo-spatial Memory Test (total score); BVMT/D = Brief Visuo-spatial Memory Test (delayed score); BVMT/L = Brief Visuo-spatial Memory Test (learning score); D-KEFS Trails (switching) = Delis-Kaplan Executive Function System Test (trail making test, number-letter switching scaled score); D-KEFS Sorting (total sorts) = Delis-Kaplan Executive Function System Test (sorting test, confirmed sorts raw score); D-KEFS Sorting (description) = Delis-Kaplan Executive Function System Test (sorting test, description raw score).

**Table 6.** Multiple regression model with proportion of potential maximal therapy gain for treated items at post-therapy as the dependent variable.

	Regression Coefficient (B)	Standard Error (B)	95% Confidence Interval (B)		Standardised Coefficient ( $\beta$ )	Squared Semi-Partial Correlations ( $sr^2$ )	t	p value
			Lower	Upper				
Group	-.110	.068	-.250	.031	-.190	.031	-1.61	.120
Lexical-semantics	-.013	.004	-.021	-.005	-.496	.127	-3.24	.004
HVLT/T	-.025	.007	-.039	-.010	-.551	.154	-3.57	.002
BVMT/T	.005	.006	-.008	.017	.134	.007	.774	.447
BVMT/L	-.017	.017	-.052	.017	-.136	.013	-1.04	.310
Digit span (Reverse)	.006	.025	-.046	.057	.033	.001	.232	.818
D-KEFS Trails	-.023	.017	-.058	.012	-.215	.023	-1.37	.183
D-KEFS Sorting	.034	.022	-.012	.079	.250	.028	1.52	.143

*Note.* HVLT/T = Hopkins Verbal Learning Test (total score); BVMT/T = Brief Visuo-spatial Memory Test (total score); BVMT/L = Brief Visuo-spatial Memory Test (learning score); D-KEFS Trails (switching) = Delis-Kaplan Executive Function System Test (trail making test, number-letter switching scaled score); D-KEFS Sorting (total sorts) = Delis-Kaplan Executive Function System Test (sorting test, confirmed sorts raw score).

**Table 7.** Multiple regression model with proportion of potential maximal therapy gain for treated items at 1 month follow-up as the dependent variable.

	Regression Coefficient (B)	Standard Error (B)	95% Confidence Interval (B)		Standardised Coefficient ( $\beta$ )	Squared Semi-Partial Correlations ( $sr^2$ )	t	p value
			Lower	Upper				
Group	.165	.083	-.008	.337	.292	.072	1.98	.060
Lexical-semantics	.014	.005	.003	.024	.545	.139	2.75	.012
HVLT/D	.010	.018	-.028	.048	.103	.006	.569	.575
BVMT/D	.012	.017	-.023	.047	.158	.010	.730	.473
BVMT/L	<.001	.024	-.050	.050	-.002	<.001	-.010	.992
Digit span (Reverse)	.020	.028	-.038	.077	.120	.009	.715	.482
D-KEFS Sorting	-.007	.025	-.060	.046	-.056	.002	-.286	.778

*Note.* HVLT/D = Hopkins Verbal Learning Test (delayed score); BVMT/D = Brief Visuo-spatial Memory Test (delayed score); BVMT/L = Brief Visuo-spatial Memory Test (learning score); DD- KEFS Sorting (total sorts) = Delis-Kaplan Executive Function System Test (sorting test, confirmed sorts raw score).

**Table 8.** Multiple regression models for LIFT and D-LIFT with proportion of potential maximal therapy gain for untreated items at post-therapy as the dependent variable.

	Regression Coefficient (B)	Standard Error (B)	95% Confidence Interval (B)		Standardised Coefficient ( $\beta$ )	Squared Semi-Partial Correlations ( $sr^2$ )	t	p value
			Lower	Upper				
Combined (LIFT, D-LIFT)								
Group	.136	.059	.014	.258	.313	.094	2.28	.030
Lexical-semantics	.005	.003	-.002	.011	.233	.033	1.35	.189
HVLT/D	.033	.012	.007	.058	.456	.124	2.63	.014
LIFT								
Lexical-semantics	.005	.005	-.007	.017	.295	.056	.957	.357
HVLT/D	.014	.016	-.020	.049	.280	.051	.908	.382
D-LIFT								
Lexical-semantics	.002	.004	-.007	.011	.105	.006	.467	.648
HVLT/D	.060	.019	.020	.100	.726	.287	3.23	.007

Note. LIFT = Intensive treatment condition; D-LIFT = Distributed treatment condition; HVLT/D = Hopkins Verbal Learning Test (delayed score).

**Table 9.** Multiple regression model with proportion of potential maximal therapy gain for untreated items at 1 month follow-up as the dependent variable.

	Regression Coefficient (B)	Standard Error (B)	95% Confidence Interval (B)		Standardised Coefficient ( $\beta$ )	Squared Semi-Partial Correlations ( $sr^2$ )	t	p value
			Lower	Upper				
Group	.126	.063	-.005	.257	.290	.075	1.98	.059
Lexical-semantics	.004	.004	-.003	.012	.219	.028	1.20	.242
HVLT/D	.033	.013	.005	.060	.455	.116	2.46	.021
BVMT/D	-.004	.011	-.027	.020	-.063	.002	-.328	.746
BVMT/L	.011	.018	-.026	.048	.117	.007	.618	.542

*Note.* HVLT/D = Hopkins Verbal Learning Test (delayed score); BVMT/D = Brief Visuo-spatial Memory Test (delayed score); BVMT/L = Brief Visuo-spatial Memory Test (learning score).



**Supplemental Table 1.** Participant demographic profiles at baseline.

ID	Group	Sex	Age	TPO	Education	Occupation
1	LIFT	M	54	20	High school (Year 10)	Sales manager
2	LIFT	M	70	33	High school	Business owner
3	LIFT	M	51	9	Post-graduate degree	Accountant
4	LIFT	M	57	66	TAFE Certificate	Film maker
5	LIFT	M	50	126	High school	Maintenance business
6	LIFT	M	70	52	High school	Hospitality business
7	LIFT	M	47	24	Undergraduate degree	Engineer
8	LIFT	M	41	29	Undergraduate degree	Engineer
9	LIFT	M	68	135	Primary / Middle school	Sales representative
10	LIFT	F	41	16	Undergraduate degree	Nurse
11	LIFT	M	66	161	High school (Year 10)	Bus driver
12	LIFT	M	52	22	Post-graduate degree	Psychologist
13	LIFT	M	54	11	Trade / Apprenticeship	Training officer
14	LIFT	M	66	34	TAFE Diploma	Accountant
15	LIFT	M	52	9	Undergraduate degree	Engineer
16	LIFT	F	71	9	Diploma	Nurse
17	D-LIFT	M	76	13	High school	Banker
18	D-LIFT	M	47	9	TAFE Certificate	Arborist
19	D-LIFT	F	62	38	High school	Shop keeper
20	D-LIFT	M	71	17	High school (Year 10)	Milkman
21	D-LIFT	M	64	225	Post-graduate degree	Engineer
22	D-LIFT	M	55	23	Trade / Apprenticeship	Chef
23	D-LIFT	M	59	16	Trade / Apprenticeship	Carpet layer
24	D-LIFT	M	52	19	TAFE Diploma	Handyman
25	D-LIFT	M	56	13	Post-graduate degree	Prof. Radiology
26	D-LIFT	M	69	82	Post-graduate degree	Financial Advisor
27	D-LIFT	M	35	7	Post-graduate degree	IT Consultant
28	D-LIFT	M	58	16	TAFE Certificate	Salesman
29*	D-LIFT	M	54	21	Trade / Apprenticeship	Mining supervisor
30	D-LIFT	M	43	14	Undergraduate degree	Quarantine inspector
31*	D-LIFT	F	77	4	Primary / Middle school	Home duties
32	D-LIFT	M	72	22	Post-graduate degree	Professor
33	D-LIFT	F	59	12	High school (Year 10)	Administration
34	D-LIFT	F	71	7	Primary / Middle school	Hospitality

*Note.* ID = participant identification number; TPO = Time post onset; LIFT = Intensive therapy condition; D-LIFT = Distributed therapy condition.

**Supplemental Table 2.** Pearson correlations for aphasia severity and cognitive abilities.

	<b>Aphasia Severity (CAT)</b>
TEA	.184
TEA/D	.275
HVLT/T	.678**
HVLT/D	.574**
BVMT/T	.532**
BVMT/D	.384*
BVMT/L	.143
Digit span (forward)	.590**
Digit span (reverse)	.818**
D-KEFS Trails (switching)	.338
D-KEFS Sorting (total sorts)	.501**
D-KEFS Sorting (description)	.743**

*Note.* \* $p < .05$ ; \*\* $p < .01$ ; CAT = Comprehensive Aphasia Test; TEA = Test of Everyday Attention (elevator counting subtest); TEA/D = Test of Everyday Attention with distraction (elevator counting with distraction subtest); HVLT/T = Hopkins Verbal Learning Test (total score); HVLT/D = Hopkins Verbal Learning Test (delayed score); BVMT/T = Brief Visuo-spatial Memory Test (total score); BVMT/D = Brief Visuo-spatial Memory Test (delayed score); BVMT/L = Brief Visuo-spatial Memory Test (learning score); D-KEFS Trails (switching) = Delis-Kaplan Executive Function System Test (trail making test, number-letter switching scaled score); D- KEFS Sorting (total sorts) = Delis-Kaplan Executive Function System Test (sorting test, confirmed sorts raw score); D-KEFS Sorting (description) = Delis-Kaplan Executive Function System Test (sorting test, description raw score).