

Passive Functional Mapping of Receptive Language Areas Using Electrocorticographic Signals

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Abstract

Objective: To validate the use of passive functional mapping using electrocorticographic (ECoG) broadband gamma signals for identifying receptive language cortex.

Methods: We mapped language function in 23 patients using ECoG and using electrical cortical stimulation (ECS) in a subset of 15 subjects.

Results: The qualitative comparison between cortical sites identified by ECoG and ECS show a high concordance. A quantitative comparison indicates a high level of sensitivity (95%) and a lower level of specificity (59%). Detailed analysis reveals that 82% of all cortical sites identified by ECoG were within one contact of a site identified by ECS.

Conclusions: These results show that passive functional mapping reliably localizes receptive language areas, and that there is a substantial concordance between the ECoG- and ECS-based methods. They also point to a more refined understanding of the differences between ECoG- and ECS-based mappings. This refined understanding helps to clarify the instances in which the two methods disagree and can explain why neurosurgical practice has established the concept of a “safety margin.”

Significance: Passive functional mapping using ECoG signals provides a fast, robust, and reliable method for identifying receptive language areas without many of the risks and limitations associated with ECS.

Keywords: ECoG, electrocorticography, intracranial, receptive language, functional mapping

Highlights

1. Broadband gamma mapping identified receptive language areas in 22 of 23 subjects
2. Comparison with stimulation mapping resulted in 95% sensitivity and 59% specificity
3. 82% of contacts identified using broadband gamma were within 1.5 cm of an ECS+ site

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1. Introduction

Resectiver brain surgery for the treatment of tumors or intractable epilepsy often requires localizing “eloquent” cortical regions involved in production and comprehension of language to minimize post-surgical deficits. Among the techniques to identify these eloquent regions, electrical cortical stimulation (ECS) has become the gold standard, perhaps because of its relatively low cost and procedural simplicity (see [Borchers et al. \(2012\)](#) for review).

While its utility is undisputed, the use of ECS does have noteworthy limitations that include substantial time requirements (typically several hours ([Hamberger, 2007](#); [Ritaccio et al., 2018](#))), an increased risk for induced pathological brain activity such as after-discharges or seizures ([Corley et al., 2017](#)), and common difficulties with pediatric and other populations ([Chitoku et al., 2001](#); [Korostenskaja et al., 2014a](#); [Paus et al., 1999](#)). These issues are exacerbated in the intraoperative scenario and lead to increased morbidity ([Nossek et al., 2013](#)). Additionally, post-surgical evaluation of potential functional deficits have been conducted in a small number of studies but are not the norm ([Haglund et al., 1994](#); [Ojemann and Dodrill, 1985](#)), which greatly impedes full characterization of the efficacy of ECS or other methods (see [Hamberger \(2007\)](#) for review). A practical, rapid, accurate, and safe mapping method may improve post-surgical outcomes and may supplement or eventually replace ECS. Several studies have shown that passive functional mapping using electrocorticographic (ECoG) signals in the broadband gamma band (70–110 Hz) can safely and rapidly localize eloquent cortex in only a few minutes ([Korostenskaja et al., 2014a](#); [Babajani-Feremi et al., 2016](#); [Brunner et al., 2009](#); [Crone et al., 1998](#); [de Pestors et al., 2016](#); [Kapeller et al., 2015](#); [Korostenskaja et al., 2014b](#); [Leuthardt et al., 2007](#); [Miller et al., 2007, 2009, 2011](#); [Roland et al., 2010](#); [Schalk et al., 2008](#); [Taplin et al., 2016](#); [Wang et al., 2016](#); [Towle et al., 2008](#)). Within the domain of language function, most studies have assessed the utility of ECoG mapping to localize expressive language cortex ([Babajani-Feremi et al., 2016](#); [de Pestors et al., 2016](#); [Miller et al., 2011](#); [Taplin et al., 2016](#); [Wang et al., 2016](#)); corresponding studies for receptive language mapping have been scarce (but see [Korostenskaja et al. \(2014a\)](#) and [Towle et al. \(2008\)](#)).

Here we describe the first large-scale study (n=23) that uses passively recorded ECoG signals

29 to map receptive language function and that compares the results to those derived from ECS map-
30 ping in the 15 subjects for whom ECS results were available. Our results show that ECoG mapping
31 reliably identified receptive language areas in less than 4 minutes, and that these areas showed a
32 high degree of concordance with those identified using ECS. Furthermore, they point to a more
33 refined understanding of the differences between ECS- and ECoG-based mapping, which can ex-
34 plain why neurosurgical practice has established the concept of a 10- to 20-mm “safety margin”
35 ([Haglund et al., 1994](#); [Ojemann and Dodrill, 1985](#)).

36 **2. Methods**

37 *2.1. Subjects*

38 A total of 23 patients with intractable epilepsy underwent temporary placement of subdural
39 electrode grids at Albany Medical College (Albany, NY) to localize seizure foci and, when clin-
40 ically indicated, to also localize eloquent language cortex using ECS mapping prior to surgical
41 resection. All patients were native English speakers and completed pre-surgical neuropsychol-
42 ogy evaluations. All patients had standard clinical followup, and none had residual receptive,
43 expressive, or anomic deficits. At the same time, comprehensive post-operative neuropsycholog-
44 ical testing was not performed in any subject. The clinical profile of the patients is summarized
45 in [Table 1](#). All patients gave informed consent for this study, which was approved by the In-
46 stitutional Review Board of Albany Medical College and the Human Research Protections Of-
47 fice of the U.S. Army Medical Research and Materiel Command. Electrode grids were placed
48 solely on the basis of clinical necessity (i.e., without any consideration of this study). Grids con-
49 sisted of platinum-iridium electrodes (4 mm in diameter, 3 mm exposed, 6–10 mm inter-electrode
50 spacing) embedded in a Silastic sheet. Subject V was implanted with a high-density electrode
51 grid that had 250 contacts (2 mm in diameter, 1 mm exposed, 3 mm inter-electrode spacing).
52 Preoperative MRI depicted the cortical anatomy; postoperative CT imaging localized the elec-
53 trodes. We created three-dimensional cortical models for each patient using preoperative MRI
54 images and the freely available software package FreeSurfer (<https://surfer.nmr.mgh.harvard.edu>).
55 To localize electrode locations on each cortical model, we co-registered these MRI images with

56 post-operative CT using Curry software (Compumedics, Charlotte, NC) or the MATLAB toolbox
57 SPM 8 (<http://www.fil.ion.ucl.ac.uk/spm/software/spm8>). Finally, we generated visualizations of
58 electrodes on each subject's cortical model using our NeuralAct software package ([Kubaneck and](#)
59 [Schalk, 2015](#)).

60 2.2. ECS Mapping

61 ECS mapping was clinically indicated for 15 of 23 patients and took 1.5–7.5 hours to per-
62 form. During this procedure, the patients were asked to perform typical sentence completion and
63 language comprehension tasks while electrical stimuli were applied (trains of up to 10 sec, 300
64 μ sec biphasic pulses, 50 Hz frequency). See [Hamberger \(2007\)](#) and [Ritaccio et al. \(2018\)](#) for a
65 review of ECS mapping. Stimulation current levels usually began at 2 mA for each stimulation
66 pair to test for after-discharges. If after-discharges were detected, current was ramped up in 2-mA
67 steps until receptive language inhibition was observed or the current level reached 10 mA. If no
68 after-discharges were detected at 2 mA, current amplitude was set immediately to 10 mA. The re-
69 liability of the language inhibition was verified through multiple stimulation trials, including sham
70 trials where no stimulation current was delivered. ECS resulted in reliable inhibition of receptive
71 language function in 10 of the 15 stimulated subjects.

72 2.3. Data Collection

73 We acquired ECoG signals from 58–250 electrode contacts at the patients' bedsides using ei-
74 ther one g.HIamp (g.tec, Graz, Austria) or eight synchronized g.USBamp (g.tec, Graz, Austria)
75 biosignal amplifier(s). Data collection and stimulus presentation were accomplished using the
76 BCI2000 software platform, a general-purpose system for real-time biosignal acquisition, pro-
77 cessing, and feedback ([Schalk et al., 2004](#); [Schalk and Mellinger, 2010](#)). BCI2000 interfaced
78 with the biosignal amplifiers to acquire ECoG signals, digitize them at 1,200 Hz, and store them
79 locally on a computer at the bedside. Electrode contacts distant from seizure foci and from the
80 anticipated anatomical location of eloquent cortex were used as ground and reference electrodes,
81 respectively. Electrodes affected by significant signal artifacts or those that did not contain clear
82 ECoG signals (i.e., ground/reference, electrodes with broken leads, environmental or physiological
83 artifacts) were removed, which left 56–237 electrodes for subsequent analyses.

84 2.4. ECoG Mapping Protocol

85 Each subject listened to four short stories from the Complex Ideational Material (CIM) subtest
86 of the Boston Diagnostic Aphasia Examination (BDAE) as a surrogate for day-to-day listening
87 activities (Korostenskaja et al., 2014b; Goodglass et al., 2001). These stories were presented
88 through loudspeakers at a comfortable volume while the words “Listen carefully” were presented
89 on a computer screen. The length of the stories varied from 17 to 36 seconds, and each story was
90 presented twice in a block-randomized fashion (3:26 min total duration). Each story was followed
91 by a 15-second rest period while the word “Relax” was presented on the screen. It is important
92 to note that this type of auditory stimulation engages the whole receptive language system, i.e.,
93 not only cortex that supports the linguistic concepts of “language” or “speech,” but also lower-
94 level auditory areas. This concept is similar to that employed with tasks used during conventional
95 ECS mapping (such as word comprehension or repetition), which also depend on intact function
96 of the whole receptive language system. While surgical resection planning only considered ECS
97 mapping results, resection spared all sites identified with both ECS and ECoG mapping.

98 2.5. ECoG Signal Processing

99 We then identified the cortical locations whose ECoG broadband gamma activity changed
100 while the subjects listened to the stories. (Broadband gamma activity has been shown to be a reli-
101 able indicator of neuronal activity directly underneath an electrode (Lachaux et al., 2007)). To do
102 this, we first eliminated common noise by re-referencing the ECoG signals to a common average
103 reference (CAR). We then extracted broadband gamma activity by bandpass-filtering (70–110 Hz,
104 4th-order Butterworth filter), followed by a Hilbert transform. To determine which ECoG loca-
105 tions increased their broadband gamma activity during the listening task, we applied a bootstrap
106 test (using 1,000 randomly assigned listening and relax periods) to determine, for each location,
107 the statistical significance of the difference in mean broadband gamma activity between listening
108 and relax periods. We defined those locations as statistically significant where p was smaller than
109 0.05 after Bonferroni correction for the number of electrodes in that subject.

110 **3. Results**

111 *3.1. Qualitative Results*

112 The ECoG-based mapping results from all 23 subjects are shown in Figure 1. Each cortical
113 model represents one subject and indicates the electrode locations as black and red circles. Elec-
114 trodes whose broadband gamma activity was significantly increased during the listening task are
115 indicated in red (ECoG+). The diameter of each red electrode is related to the magnitude of sta-
116 tistical significance, i.e., the negative logarithm of the p value. A summary of broadband gamma
117 amplitudes during the baseline (median: $2.4 \mu\text{V}$), as well as the range of task-related amplitude
118 increases considered significant (12-83%) is given in Supplementary Table 1. The comparison
119 between ECS- and ECoG-based results is shown in Figure 2 for the subset of 10 of the 23 subjects
120 for whom ECS resulted in inhibition of language function. Blue circles indicate the electrodes for
121 which this inhibition was reliably observed (ECS+).

122 *3.2. Quantitative Results*

123 The ECoG-based mapping results in Figure 2 suggest a high concordance with ECS-based
124 mapping results. To quantify the degree of concordance, we determined the sensitivity and speci-
125 ficity of the ECoG-based mapping results with respect to the ECS maps using a next-neighbor
126 approach. We calculated sensitivity and specificity as in Brunner et al. (2009) according to the
127 following equations in which T_P is the true positive rate, F_P is the false positive rate, T_N is
128 the true negative rate, and F_N is the false negative rate: Sensitivity = $T_P/(T_P+F_N)$, Specificity
129 = $T_N/(T_N+F_P)$.

130 The results show an average sensitivity of the ECoG-based mapping method of 95% ($\pm 5.0\%$)
131 and an average specificity of 59% ($\pm 7.3\%$) for the 15 subjects on whom ECS mapping was per-
132 formed. Additionally, a paired t-test shows significantly more active sites identified using ECoG-
133 based (6.7 ± 1.2) compared to ECS-based (2.4 ± 0.6) mapping ($p < 0.001$). Only stimulated sites
134 were considered. Active sites are represented as mean \pm SEM. The results of this analysis are
135 summarized in Table 2.

136 Consistent with the literature, these results indicate a high level of sensitivity and a lower level
137 of specificity. At the same time, we noticed that the ECoG+ results tended to cluster around the

138 ECS+ results, forming what could be termed a “functional penumbra.” On the basis of this obser-
139 vation, we believe that the relationship between ECS+ and ECoG+ sites may be better captured by
140 the fraction of ECoG+ sites that were within a certain distance from the ECS+ sites. The results
141 shown in Table 2 and Figure 3 indicate that 82% ($\pm 7.1\%$) of the ECoG+ sites were within one
142 contact of the ECS+ sites in the 10 subjects who had an ECS response.¹

143 4. Discussion

144 In the largest study of its kind to date, we here provide an evaluation of passive functional map-
145 ping of receptive language in 23 patients with epilepsy. The results show that current ECoG-based
146 mapping methods support practical, effective, and efficient localization of receptive language areas
147 (i.e., any area supporting any aspect of auditory or linguistic function) in 22/23 patients. Addi-
148 tionally, we observed a high degree of concordance in the 10/15 subjects for whom ECS+ results
149 were available. None of the subjects in this study underwent fMRI mapping of language function,
150 although a comparison between passive functional mapping and fMRI has been demonstrated in
151 [Korostenskaja et al. \(2014b\)](#). ECoG-based mapping can be accomplished at the bedside, can be
152 completed in under 4 minutes, is procedurally simple, and has recently become widely available
153 ([Kapeller et al., 2015](#)). Mapping results readily identify eloquent sites in the temporal lobe in all
154 subjects with appropriate coverage when a subtest of the Boston Diagnostic Aphasia Examina-
155 tion is applied to simulate everyday listening activities. The regions outlined by these sites are
156 qualitatively highly concordant to the sites identified using electrical stimulation.

157 Despite this high qualitative concordance, quantitative concordance (95% sensitivity, 59%
158 specificity) was not perfect. Indeed, in contrast to mapping of motor function, which has consis-
159 tently resulted in very close agreement between ECS- and ECoG-based mapping ([Brunner et al.,](#)
160 [2009](#); [Kapeller et al., 2015](#); [Leuthardt et al., 2007](#)), mapping of language function shows a mod-
161 estly higher degree of discrepancy. For example, [Sinai et al. \(2005\)](#) reported a sensitivity of 38%
162 and specificity of 78% for language mapping. [Miller et al. \(2011\)](#) reported a sensitivity of 89%

¹The implanted electrodes had 6- or 10-mm spacing. We here define “within one contact” as those electrodes that were less than 1.5 cm away, which includes the next-neighboring electrodes in a standard grid with 10-mm spacing.

163 and specificity of 66% for a noun reading task, and a sensitivity of 74% and specificity of 48%
164 for a verb generation task. Finally, [Korostenskaja et al. \(2014b\)](#) documented a sensitivity of 75%
165 and specificity of 90% when using the next-neighbor approach. Previous discussions of this topic
166 have centered on the different tasks used by the two methods and on the fundamental differences
167 between them. Specifically, ECS is an active and causal method that disrupts cortical networks
168 that are critical for a particular function, whereas ECoG is a passive and correlational method
169 that highlights all cortical populations that are engaged by a particular task ([Su and Ojemann,](#)
170 [2013](#)). Furthermore, ECoG-based mapping assigns a function to individual electrodes, whereas
171 ECS usually assigns it to both the anode and cathode electrode. (This circumstance motivates the
172 next-neighbor approach of analysis.) While clearly reasonable, these explanations appear rela-
173 tively descriptive and do not provide a satisfactory explanation of differences in mapping results
174 across methods. For example, while it is possible that neuronal activation detected with the ECoG
175 method originates from neurons that participate in a task without in any way causally contributing
176 to task-related function, we deem it unlikely that the brain expends precious energy on unneces-
177 sary neuronal activation. Moreover, it is clear that ECoG+ sites are not randomly scattered across
178 the cortical surface but rather index cohesive regions on and around those identified using ECS,
179 even though corresponding specificity values can be very low. For example, the ECoG+ sites
180 shown for subject Q in [Figure 2](#) appear quite similar to the ECS+ sites, but the specificity value
181 for this example is only 9%.² As a further complication, current methods of evaluation (such as
182 the sensitivity and specificity metrics used here) presume that maps produced by ECS are correct
183 and that any deviation from those maps with the use of a different method are due to shortcomings
184 of the method being compared to ECS.

185 Together with the qualitative results shown in [Figure 2](#) and [Figure 3](#), the nature of the two dif-
186 ferent methods may provide clues to resolving this unsatisfactory situation: ECS-based mapping
187 is based on a subjective, qualitative, and coarse evaluation (e.g., visual observation of the pa-
188 tient's behavior), whereas ECoG-based mapping is based on an objective, quantitative, and highly

²In subject Q, ECS was performed on 27 electrodes, which resulted in 5 ECS+ sites. ECoG-based mapping resulted in 14 ECoG+ sites. With neighbors, there were 25 ECoG+ hits, which resulted in 2 true negative and 20 false positive hits. Based on these results, specificity was $2/(2 + 20) = 9\%$.

189 sensitive procedure (i.e., automated statistical evaluation by a computer algorithm). Hence, it
190 seems plausible that ECS identifies only those locations whose stimulation produces deficits so
191 pronounced (e.g., complete interruption of speech) that they can be readily identified during the
192 necessarily brief evaluations during the stimulation procedure, whereas ECoG also identifies loca-
193 tions that are responsible for more nuanced aspects of language function. Notable in this context,
194 it is well known that the auditory system is composed of distinct constituent functional areas that
195 evaluate different aspects of auditory or language function such as music (Norman-Haignere et al.,
196 2015), syntax (Blank et al., 2016), or semantics (Fedorenko et al., 2016). All of these areas can be
197 identified by the ECoG-based method. At the same time, without application of detailed auditory
198 and language batteries (which are impractical due to the lengthy amount of time required), the
199 ECS-based method will fail to identify those important areas of auditory or language function.
200 In this view, locations that produce the most substantial deficits in function are defined by the
201 ECS-based method, and these locations are surrounded by a functional penumbra of cortex that is
202 also involved in subtler yet still important aspects of language function. Thus, excision of ECoG+
203 sites that are ECS- may well produce detectable functional deficits. Indeed, a growing number
204 of recent studies are providing initial experimental evidence supporting this view (Kojima et al.,
205 2013, 2012; Cervenka et al., 2013; Genetti et al., 2015).

206 The concept of a functional penumbra identified by those ECoG+ sites that are not identified by
207 ECS may provide the physiological basis for the empirical “1-cm rule” in functional neurosurgery.
208 This rule is based on previous findings (Haglund et al., 1994; Ojemann and Dodrill, 1985) that
209 excision of cortex within 1–2 cm of contacts identified by ECS greatly increases the likelihood
210 of producing functional deficits (Hamberger, 2007). Consistent with these findings, we found
211 that 82% of the ECoG+ contacts were within 1.5 cm (i.e., one lateral or diagonal contact in a
212 standard grid with 10-mm spacing) of an ECS+ site. If this notion is correct, function should
213 remain completely intact if all ECoG+ sites are spared.

214 This important observation notwithstanding, different types of function clearly carry different
215 levels of importance to a patient’s quality of life. The best example is non-dominant language
216 function, which is readily identified by our ECoG-based method (see subjects A, J, M, N, O, P,
217 S, and V Figure 1) or by fMRI (Norman-Haignere et al., 2015; Blank et al., 2016; Binder et al.,

218 1997; Benjamin et al., 2017). While it is increasingly clear that the non-dominant hemisphere
219 is involved in different aspects of expressive (Cogan et al., 2014) and receptive (Chang et al.,
220 2011) language function, there are still uncertainties about the functional significance of non-
221 dominant receptive language areas. It does appear that it is related in part to speech prosody
222 (Ross and Mesulam, 1979; Ross, 1981), i.e., not how a voice sounds or what its words mean, but
223 rather how one says those words. Thus, it is quite possible that ECS-based mapping typically
224 does not identify receptive language function on the non-dominant hemisphere simply because
225 conventional receptive language mapping tasks only test auditory/sentence comprehension and
226 not their affective interpretation. To complicate this interpretation, we did observe inhibition of
227 receptive language function in non-dominant language cortex during ECS mapping (subjects A,
228 M, O). In any event, more comprehensive ECS language testing may in theory be able to identify
229 much more subtle aspects of receptive language, but the long duration and risks associated with
230 ECS mapping will likely mean continued focus on testing those aspects of language function that
231 are most important to quality of life.

232 Because it is critical for people to hear sounds and understand the meaning of spoken words,
233 and presumably less important to learn about the affective context of those sounds or words, non-
234 dominant temporal lobe is usually excised when clinically indicated (e.g., by the presence of a
235 tumor or epileptic foci) without consideration of any language areas. Hence, the necessarily brief
236 and coarse evaluations of language function during ECS-based mapping do provide information
237 about the localization of those aspects of receptive language function that appear to be most useful
238 to human functioning, and ECoG protocols that highlight only those areas still need to be devel-
239 oped. Design of these more specialized ECoG-based mapping batteries should be informed by
240 the extensive literature on the functional compartmentalization of the language system. Once de-
241 veloped, application of those batteries should provide unprecedented utility to clinicians in their
242 surgical planning and for informing the patient about potential functional deficits resulting from
243 surgery. In any case, derivation of functional ECoG maps and their careful comparison to other
244 modalities such as ECS (as performed in our study) clearly requires rigorous quantitative methods.
245 This position is in strong opposition to a recent report (Asano and Gotman, 2016) that argued for
246 qualitative visual inspection of gamma changes.

247 ECS has been the gold-standard for functional mapping for decades. It is widely accepted that
248 application of conventional ECS methods produces specific and reliable outcomes at defined sites,
249 and that neurosurgical resective strategies guided by this method eliminate or minimize sensorimo-
250 tor and linguistic post-operative deficits (Haglund et al., 1994; Sanai et al., 2008). Despite its long
251 history and undeniable practical utility, ECS also has clear and broadly acknowledged shortcom-
252 ings. It is time-consuming and may evoke after-discharges or seizures that can reduce or eliminate
253 its utility. Furthermore, despite its widespread and long-standing clinical usage, the technique is
254 still not standardized, and different centers have striking inconsistencies in methodology and sub-
255 sequent resection strategies (Hamberger et al., 2014). Thus, what is clearly required is not only the
256 innovation of new methods that do not have the limitations of ECS, but also large and prospective
257 studies that carefully evaluate the relationship of results achieved with any method with post-
258 operative outcome. Unfortunately, clinical and practical realities have largely limited studies of
259 mapping efficacy (including the work described here) to retrospective evaluations of a relatively
260 limited number of patients that did not receive comprehensive post-operative neuropsychological
261 evaluation. This situation is continuing to leave ample room for methodological debates.

262 **5. Conclusions**

263 In our study, we completed the largest evaluation of passive ECoG-based mapping of receptive
264 language function to date. The results are encouraging and, perhaps even more importantly, helped
265 us to propose a refined understanding of the basis for and interpretation of ECS- and ECoG-based
266 results. Due to its ease-of-use, ready availability, and refined appreciation of its function described
267 herein, it is becoming increasingly obvious that passive ECoG-based mapping will become one of
268 the most important novel tools in presurgical functional mapping. At a growing number of medical
269 centers, this is already the case.

Conflict of Interest Statement

Mr. Swift was employed by g.tec during the time of this study, and was involved in developing cortiQ, a commercial tool for mapping of cortical function.

Dr. Coon was employed by g.tec during the time of this study, and was involved in developing cortiQ, a commercial tool for mapping of cortical function.

Dr. Guger is CEO of g.tec, which is developing cortiQ, a commercial tool for mapping cortical function.

Dr. Brunner holds intellectual property for brain mapping technologies, and may derive licensing income from the same.

Dr. Bunch reports no disclosures.

Dr. Lynch reports no disclosures.

Dr. Frawley reports no disclosures.

Dr. Ritaccio holds intellectual property for brain mapping technologies, and may derive licensing income from the same.

Dr. Schalk holds intellectual property for brain mapping technologies, and may derive licensing income from the same.

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JRS performed the statistical analysis and wrote the paper

WGC analyzed data and wrote the paper

CG supervised the study

PB implemented and performed the experiment, and extracted the data

MEB performed the experiment

TML performed the experiment

BKF performed the experiment

ALR wrote the paper and supervised the study

GS designed and supervised the study, and wrote the paper

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Subj.	Age	Sex	Hand. Dom.	Verb. IQ	Grid Hem.	Lang. Dom.	Electr. Impl.	Electr. Anal.	# ECoG+	# ECS+	# Stim.
A	24	M	R	83	R	L	99	98	8	3	66
B	26	F	R	106	L	L	109	103	1	N/A	N/A
C	56	M	R	82	L	L	97	94	1	N/A	N/A
D	45	M	R	93	L	L	58	56	15	N/A	N/A
E	49	F	L	91	L	L	72	68	7	3	43
F	29	F	R	111	L	B	120	118	10	N/A	N/A
G	25	F	R	84	L	B	128	118	5	2	107
H	18	F	L	117	L	L	94	94	10	2	52
I	15	F	R	91	R	N/A	69	61	0	0	59
J	22	M	N/A	78	R	N/A	81	77	4	0	31
K	28	M	R	114	L	L	134	116	16	N/A	N/A
L	25	F	R	91	L	B	98	78	17	2	47
M	54	M	L	116	R	L	76	65	10	6	28
N	44	M	L	91	L	R	81	79	8	0	40
O	25	F	R	103	R	N/A	79	78	4	1	49
P	21	F	R	N/A	R	N/A	136	135	4	N/A	N/A
Q	20	F	R	81	L	L	90	89	14	5	28
R	36	M	R	76	R	B	92	91	1	0	10
S	40	F	R	91	R	N/A	117	113	8	N/A	N/A
T	33	M	R	N/A	L	N/A	114	110	9	N/A	N/A
U	57	F	R	N/A	L	N/A	98	94	9	4	54
V	33	F	R	92	R	N/A	250	237	70	0	9
W	17	F	N/A	N/A	L	N/A	74	73	13	8	74

Table 1: Clinical profile of the 23 subjects in this study All subjects had normal cognitive capacity and were literate and functionally independent. Language lateralization was based on WADA tests and/or functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI). Number of electrodes analyzed represents the total number of electrodes implanted after removing those affected by artifacts. All subjects who had an ECS mapping performed (n=15) were considered for quantitative comparisons between ECS and passive mapping outcomes.

Subj.	Sens. (%)	Spec. (%)	Within 1.5cm (%)
A	100	81	88
E	100	63	100
G	50	86	40
H	100	72	89
I	N/A	100	N/A
J	N/A	74	N/A
L	100	32	65
M	100	50	89
N	N/A	63	N/A
O	100	81	50
Q	100	9	100
R	N/A	40	N/A
U	100	65	100
V	N/A	0	N/A
W	100	75	100
Avg.	95	59	82

Table 2: **Sensitivity and specificity values for each subject** The right-most column indicates the fraction of ECoG+ electrodes that were within 1.5 cm of an ECS+ electrode. Electrodes that were not stimulated were not considered for the comparisons. Sensitivity cannot be computed in subjects that did not have at least one ECoG+ site, and is reported here as not applicable (N/A).

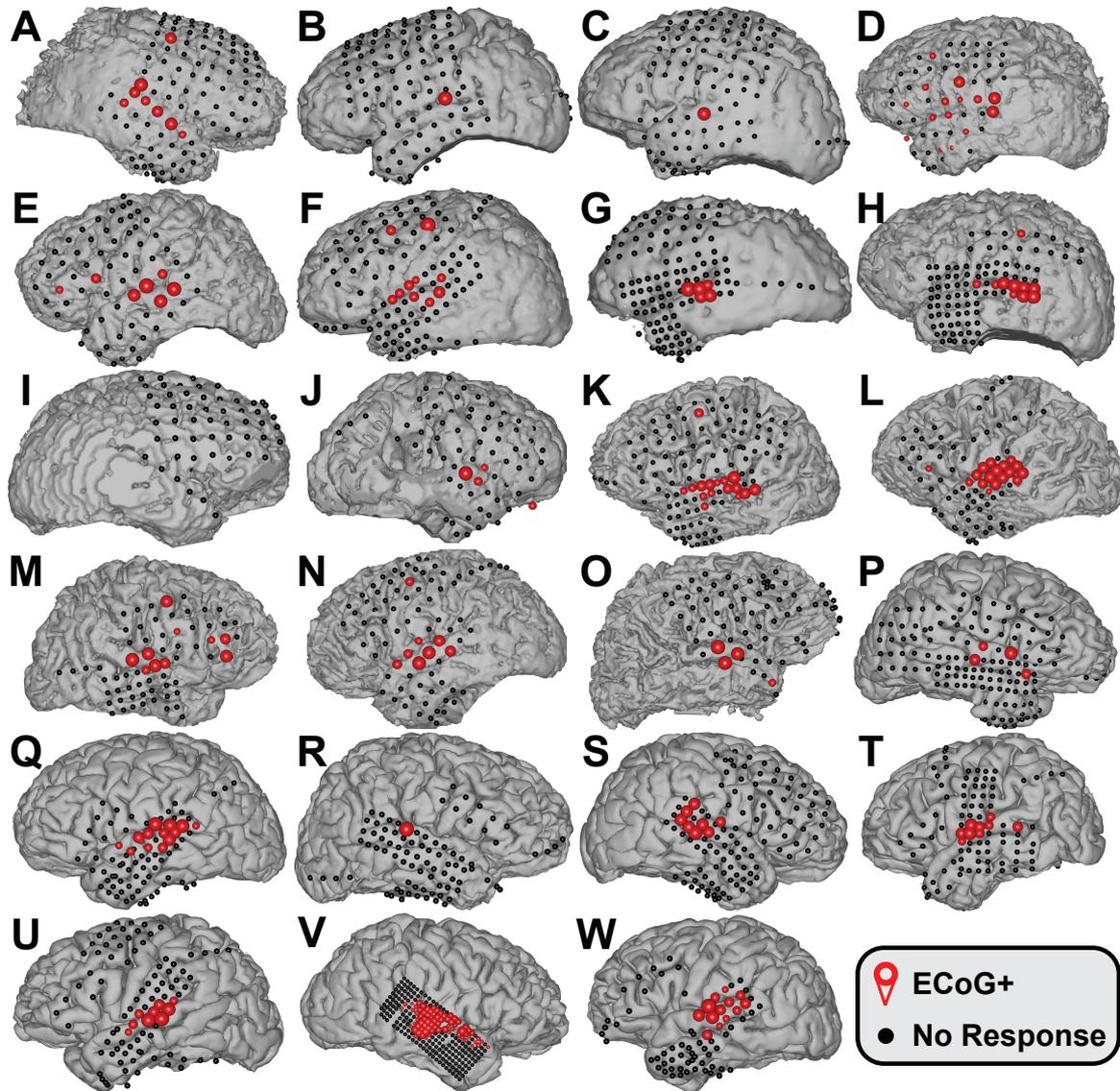


Figure 1: **ECoG-based mapping of receptive language activity** Electrode locations for each of the 23 subjects are shown as black or red circles. Electrodes affected by significant signal artifacts or those that did not contain clear ECoG signals are indicated by small white circles. Electrodes whose broadband gamma activity significantly increased during the listening task are shown as large red circles. The diameter of each red electrode is related to the magnitude of task-related ECoG broadband gamma modulation (see Methods).

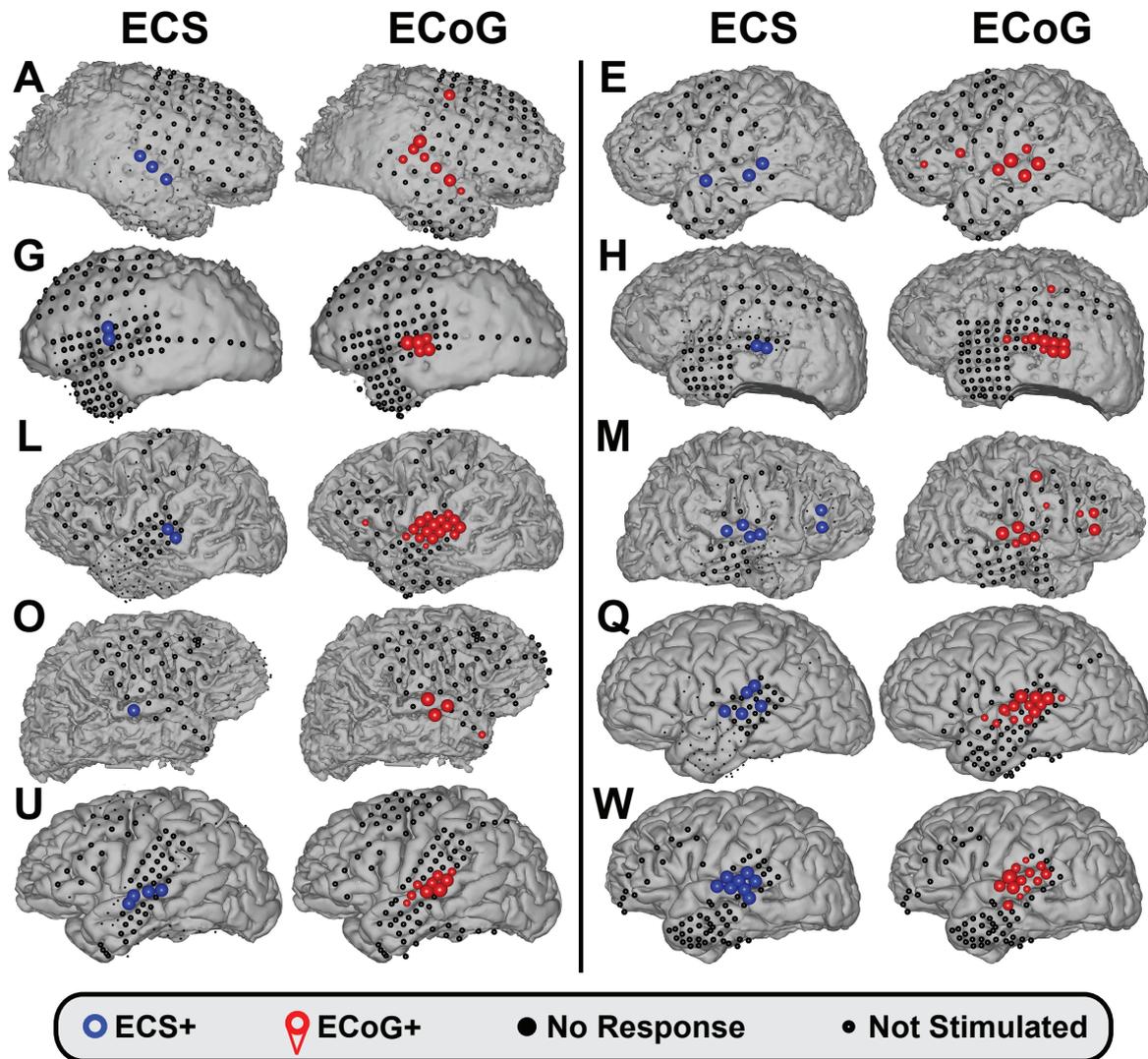


Figure 2: **Comparison between ECS- and ECoG-based mapping methods** Electrode locations for each of the 10 subjects with ECS-induced language inhibition are shown as black, blue, or red circles. Electrodes affected by significant signal artifacts or those that did not contain clear ECoG signals are indicated by small white circles. Electrodes whose broadband gamma activity significantly increased during the listening task are shown as large red circles (ECoG+). The diameter of each red electrode is related to the magnitude of task-related ECoG broadband gamma modulation (see Methods). Blue circles indicate electrodes for which ECS-induced language inhibition was reliably observed (ECS+). Large black circles indicate electrodes without ECS-induced inhibition of language function (i.e., “No Response”), while small black circles indicate electrodes that were not stimulated.

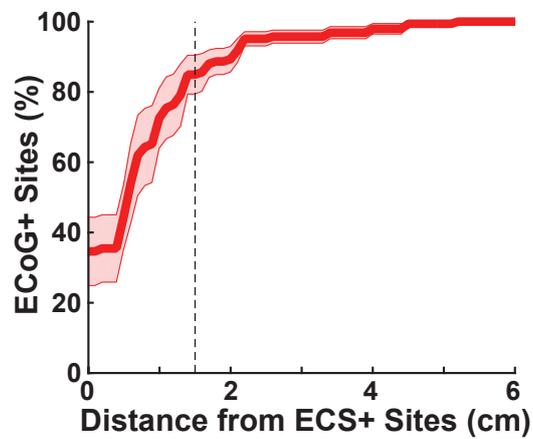


Figure 3: **Percentage of ECoG+ sites within a certain distance of ECS+ sites** The thick red line represents the fraction of ECoG+ electrodes within a certain distance of an ECS+ electrode, averaged across the subset of 10 subjects for whom ECS resulted in reliable inhibition of language function. The shaded region represents the standard error of the mean. The dashed vertical line indicates the 1.5 cm distance mark. 82% ($\pm 7.1\%$) of ECoG+ electrodes are within that distance of an ECS+ electrode.