

An fMRI investigation of syllable sequence production

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Abstract

Fluent speech comprises sequences that are composed from a finite alphabet of learned words, syllables, and phonemes. The sequencing of discrete motor behaviors has received much attention in the motor control literature, but relatively little has been focused directly on speech production. In this paper we investigate the cortical and subcortical regions involved in organizing and enacting sequences of simple speech sounds. Sparse event-triggered functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) was used to measure responses to preparation and overt production of non-lexical three-syllable utterances, parameterized by two factors: syllable complexity and sequence complexity. The comparison of overt production trials to preparation-only trials revealed a network related to the initiation of a speech plan, control of the articulators, and to hearing one's own voice. This network included the primary motor and somatosensory cortices, auditory cortical areas, supplementary motor area (SMA), the precentral gyrus of the insula, and portions of the thalamus, basal ganglia, and cerebellum. Additional stimulus complexity led to increased engagement of the basic speech network and recruitment of additional areas known to be involved in sequencing non-speech motor acts. In particular, the left hemisphere inferior frontal sulcus and posterior parietal cortex, and bilateral regions at the junction of the anterior insula and frontal operculum, the SMA and pre-SMA, the basal ganglia, anterior thalamus, and the cerebellum showed increased activity for more complex stimuli. We hypothesize mechanistic roles for the extended speech production network in the organization and execution of sequences of speech sounds.

Introduction

Fluent speech requires a robust serial ordering mechanism to combine a finite set of discrete learned phonological units (such as phonemes or syllables) into larger meaningful expressions of words and sentences. Lashley (1951) posed the problem of serial order in behavior, asking how the brain organizes and executes smooth, temporally integrated behaviors such as speech and rhythmic motor control. His proposal for the “priming of expressive units,” or parallel, co-temporal activation of the items in a behavioral sequence prior to execution, has been supported in studies of speech production by bountiful data related to linguistic performance errors (e.g. MacKay, 1970; Fromkin, 1980; Gordon and Meyer, 1987), by reaction time experiments (e.g. Klapp, 2003), and by the demonstration of anticipatory and perseveratory coarticulation (e.g. Ohman, 1966; Hardcastle and Hewlett, 1999).

The problem of serial order in speech production can be considered at multiple levels. Phonemes, for example, might be manipulated to form syllables and words, where each phonemic token is learned and stored with corresponding auditory and/or orosensory consequences (see, for example, the DIVA model of speech production; Guenther, 1995; Guenther et al., 1998, 2006, which provides a computational account for how such tokens can be learned and produced). Data also suggest that syllable- or word-sized tokens can be learned such that they may be efficiently executed as single motor *chunks*, forming a *mental syllabary* (Levelt and Wheeldon, 1994; Levelt et al., 1999; Cholin et al., 2006); these larger chunks might then serve as manipulable tokens for speech sequence planning.

In addition to organizing sequences of planned sounds within a memory buffer, speech production requires a mechanism to *initiate* or release items to the motor apparatus at precise times. Speakers can typically produce up to six to nine syllables (20 to 30 segments) per second, which is faster than any other form of discrete motor behavior (Kent, 2000). A system that coordinates the timed release of each discrete item in the planned sequence of speech is, therefore, of critical importance to fluent performance.

While the formulation of spoken language plans has been widely studied at a conceptual level (see e.g. Levelt, 1989; Levelt et al., 1999), relatively little is known about the neural representations of those plans or about the cortical and subcortical machinery that guides the serial production of speech. Clinical studies have suggested that damage to the anterior insula or neighboring inferior frontal areas (Dronkers, 1996; Hillis et al., 2005; Tanji et al., 2001), supplementary motor area (Jonas, 1981, 1987; Ziegler et al., 1997; Pai, 1999), basal ganglia (Pickett et al., 1998; Ho et al., 1998), or cerebellum (Riva, 1998; Silveri et al., 1998) may lead to deficits in sequencing and/or initiation of speech plans. Such deficits appear in various aphasias and apraxia of speech (AOS). Literal or phonemic paraphasias, in which “well-formed sounds or syllables are substituted or transposed in an otherwise recognizable target word” (Goodglass, 1993), exist in many aphasic patients including Broca’s and (most commonly) conduction aphasics. AOS, a speech-motor con-

dition¹, has been attributed to damage to the left precentral gyrus of the insula (Dronkers, 1996), as well as the inferior frontal gyrus, subcortical structures, or posterior temporal / parietal regions (Hillis et al., 2005; Peach and Tonkovich, 2004; Duffy, 1995). Ziegler (2002) presents an excellent review of theoretical models of AOS.

Only a small portion of the large functional neuroimaging literature related to speech and language has dealt with overt speech production. Within that body, very few studies have explicitly addressed sequencing demands during overt speech. Riecker et al. (2000b) examined brain activations evoked by repetitive production of stimuli of varying complexity: consonant-vowel syllables (CV's), CCCV's, CVCVCV non-word sequences, and CVCVCV words. This study found that production of none of the stimulus types (compared to a resting baseline condition) resulted in significant activations in the SMA or insula; activation was instead largely restricted to the primary sensorimotor areas. Only CCCV production led to significant activation of the cerebellum. Production of the multi-syllabic items led to a more limited and lateralized expanse of activation in the banks of the central sulcus than did production of single syllables.

Shuster and Lemieux (2005) compared production (both overt and covert) of multi-syllabic and mono-syllabic words following the presentation of an auditory exemplar. For overt speech, additional activation was found in the left inferior parietal lobe, inferior frontal gyrus, and precentral gyrus for multi-syllabic versus mono-syllabic words. Mono-syllabic words resulted in greater activation of the left middle frontal gyrus (BA46). The results for covert speech were somewhat dissimilar; for example, in covert speech there was greater activation of the left middle frontal gyrus for multi-syllable words, and greater activation in the left precentral gyrus for mono-syllable words. A consistent finding was that multi-syllable words caused additional activation in left inferior parietal areas (BA40, a region the authors suggest to be involved in speech programming. In comparing the results of this study to that of Riecker et al. (2000b) it is difficult to develop a consistent account for the effects of sequential complexity on the speech production system.

In the present experiment, we sought to clarify how the speech system organizes and produces sequences of speech sounds. While the DIVA model of speech production makes predictions about brain activations in the executive speech motor system (Guenther et al., 2006; Guenther, *in press*) it does not address brain regions likely to be responsible for sequence planning. Based on clinical observations and studies of other non-speech sequential motor control tasks, we expected to observe additional responses to additional stimulus complexity in a network of brain regions outside of the primary sensorimotor areas (and other regions treated by the DIVA model), including the prefrontal cortex, basal ganglia, anterior insula, supplementary motor area and cerebellum. Blood oxygenation level dependent (BOLD) functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI; see

¹Apraxia of speech (AOS) as described by Darley et al. (1975) is a unique syndrome that affects motor speech production without diminished muscle strength. AOS has been associated with phoneme substitution errors similar to literal paraphasias (e.g. Wertz et al., 1984). The existence of AOS as a unique disorder, however, has been controversial (see Helm-Estabrooks, 2002) with some clinicians arguing that the condition actually reflects articulatory deficits associated with aphasia (e.g. Goodglass, 1993).

Ogawa et al., 1990; Belliveau et al., 1991; Kwong et al., 1992) was used to measure responses to speech sequences of varying complexity at both the sub- and supra-syllabic levels, and in both preparatory and overt speech production tasks. We employed an “event-triggered” design with GO and NOGO trials that offered many benefits over previous methods (see Discussion). We discuss the results in terms of the necessary mechanisms for sequencing and initiation in fluent speech production.

Materials and Methods

Subjects

Thirteen right-handed native English speakers (ages 22-50 years, mean 28.7 years, six females) with no history of neurological, speech, language, or hearing disorders participated. Written informed consent was obtained according to the Boston University Institutional Review Board and the Massachusetts General Hospital Human Research Committee.

Experimental Protocol

Tasks consisted of preparing to produce (NOGO trials) and overtly producing (GO trials) three syllable sequences. The linguistic content of the stimuli was specified by two factors: syllable complexity (*syl*) and sequence complexity (*seq*). Each factor assumed one of two levels (*simple* or *complex*), creating a 2×2 matrix of stimulus types (see Figure 1). Each type was used in GO and NOGO trials, resulting in a full $2 \times 2 \times 2$ factorial design. This third factor is referred to as *go*. A baseline stimulus (three “xxx” syllables) informed the subject that there was no speech to be planned or produced, but that (s)he should maintain fixation throughout the trial.

80 stimuli were presented in each (~ 20 min) functional run², Subjects were asked to complete three runs. For two subjects only two runs were used due to technical difficulties. Each trial began with the visual (orthographic) presentation of a stimulus. After 2.5 s the syllables were replaced by a white fixation cross. Subjects were instructed to maintain fixation and to prepare to speak the syllable sequence that they had just read. In GO trials, after a short random duration (0.5-2.0 s), the white cross turned green, signaling the subject to immediately produce the prepared sequence. Subjects were instructed to speak at a typical volume and rate and to avoid prosodic modulation. The scanner remained silent throughout the 2.5 s production period and was then triggered to acquire three functional volumes³ (details below). In NOGO trials the fixation cross remained

²One subject performed 100 stimuli per run; all other aspects were equivalent to other subjects' sessions.

³In GO trials, the first volume was acquired between 2.5 s and 5.0 s after the GO signal. Due to the hemodynamic

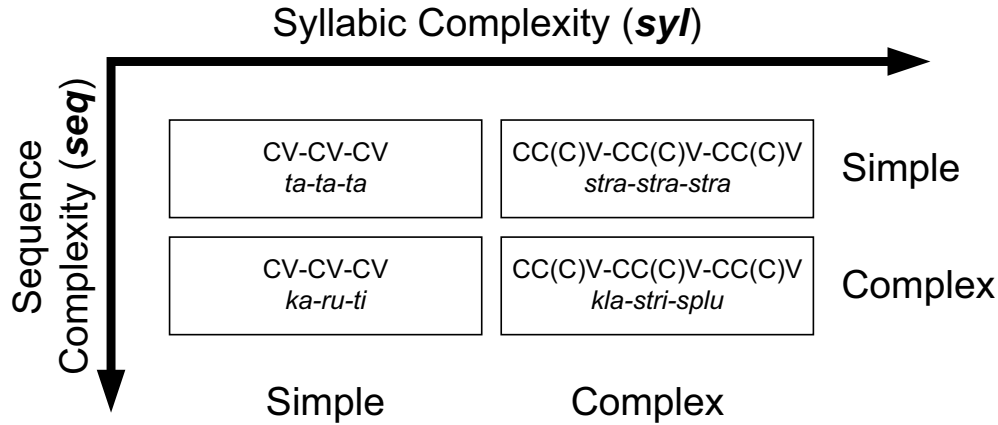


Figure 1: Speech sequence stimuli. Sequences were each comprised of three syllables separated by hyphens. Four stimulus types were used; a schema for the construction of each type, as well as an example, is shown in the boxes above. Simple sequences (S_{seq}) were repetitions of the same syllable three times; Complex sequences (C_{seq}) contained three unique syllables. A similar complexity parameterization has been used to demonstrate sequence-related effects in previous studies using finger movements (e.g. [Shibasaki et al., 1993](#); [Gerloff et al., 1997](#)). At the syllabic level, simple syllables (S_{syl}) were composed of a single consonant and a vowel (CV), whereas complex syllables (C_{syl}) began with a consonant cluster (CCCV or CCV) followed by a vowel. All syllables could be easily produced in English; consonants used in S_{syl} were a subset of those used in C_{syl} $\{/s/, /p/, /t/, /k/, /r/, /l/\}$, and all vowels were chosen randomly from $\{/a/, /i/, /u/\}$. Each stimulus type was used in both GO and NOGO trials.

white throughout. Because of the time jitter preceding the production period, subjects were unable to differentiate GO and NOGO trials until scanning began. After the third volume acquisition, the fixation cross was replaced by the next stimulus. The mean inter-trial interval was 13.75 s. Vocal responses were recorded using an MRI-compatible microphone. Utterance durations were estimated from the recorded signals, and means for each subject and condition were entered into paired t-tests to assess significant differences across conditions. Trials containing errors were removed from the study.

Data Acquisition

Subjects lay supine in a 3 Tesla Siemens Trio whole-body scanner with a Bruker head coil. Foam padding applied between the subject's head and the coil helped to constrain head movement. A high-resolution anatomical volume (T1-weighted, 128 sagittal images, 256×256 matrix, 1 mm^2 in-plane resolution, 1.33 mm slice thickness, TR=2530 ms, TE=3.3 ms, flip angle 9°) was acquired for each subject. Functional images were acquired sparsely in three-volume clusters, triggered by digital pulses sent from the stimulus computer. 30 axial slices (5 mm thickness, 0 mm gap,

delay (peaking $\sim 5 - 6$ s after task performance; [Birn et al. 1999](#)), the response in this volume is likely to be similar to the response to the NOGO task. The second and third volumes, however, are time aligned to capture the peak of the response to the GO task (5.0 to 10.0 s after the GO signal).

64×64 matrix, 3.125 mm^2 in-plane resolution) oriented parallel to the line between the anterior and posterior commissures were acquired in each volume using a T2* weighted gradient echo pulse sequence (TR=2500 ms, TE=30 ms, flip angle 90°). These slices were sufficient to cover the entire brain in all subjects. A T1-weighted anatomical volume was also acquired using the same slice parameters as the functional images and was used for between-modality co-registration.

Data Analysis

Functions from SPM2 (Wellcome Department of Imaging Neuroscience, London, UK) were used for pre-processing and voxel-based analyses. Functional series were realigned by estimating the parameters of a rigid-body transformation; these coefficients were also included as covariates of non-interest during model estimation. Images were then co-registered to the anatomical scans, spatially normalized to a template in Montreal Neurological Institute (MNI) space (Evans et al., 1993), and smoothed using an isotropic Gaussian kernel with full width at half-maximum (FWHM) of 8 mm. Stimulus events were modeled as delta functions, and the hemodynamic response at each event was estimated using a finite impulse response (FIR) model with a single time bin. Differences in the global signal level between the three functional volumes in each acquisition cluster were accounted for through linear regression.

A mixed-effects analysis was used. Models were estimated for each subject. A non-parametric permutation test (Nichols and Holmes, 2001) was used to assess effects across subjects. Using the assumption of exchangeability, condition labels were randomly permuted for each subject, resulting in $2^{\#of\ subjects} = 8192$ permutations for each contrast. Significance was determined by comparing a test statistic for the “correct” labeling to the distribution of that statistic across all permutations. Variance estimates for each voxel were pooled across a $4 \times 4 \times 4 \text{ mm}^3$ volume.

A region-of-interest (ROI) analysis was performed (Nieto-Castanon et al., 2003) to provide supplementary information about the size and significance of effects in specific, anatomically-defined cortical areas. FreeSurfer was used to reconstruct cortical surfaces from each subject’s anatomical scan (Dale et al., 1999; Fischl et al., 1999) and was trained to perform cortical parcellation (Fischl et al., 2004) according to a scheme based on anatomical landmarks and node points that was developed for speech-related studies (Tourville and Guenther, 2003). Previous tests revealed that the average overlap between regions assigned by FreeSurfer and regions assigned by a trained neuroanatomist was approximately 74%, with most errors occurring near region boundaries (S.S. Ghosh, 2005, personal communication). Data from each region and subject were extracted, reduced using a Fourier basis set, and smoothed with an isotropic Gaussian kernel with FWHM of 12mm. A mixed-effects analysis used the same design matrices as in the voxel-based analysis. Effects related to a particular contrast were considered significant for $P < 0.001$. The ROI tools were also used when possible to test for lateralization in particular ROIs. The effect sizes estimated for each subject in the left and right hemisphere for a particular ROI were entered into a

paired t-test. Lateralization was considered significant for $P < 0.05$.

Each of the individual speaking conditions was contrasted with the baseline condition. For these contrasts the False Discovery Rate (FDR) method (Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995; Genovese et al., 2002) was used to correct for multiple comparisons. A minimal speech production network was established by combining the statistical images for each overt speaking condition using a conjunction approach based on the “conjunction null” hypothesis (Nichols et al., 2005). A factorial analysis was used to estimate regions showing direct or interaction effects of each factor (*go*, *seq*, and *syl*). “Increasing” the level of each factor (from simple to complex or from NOGO to GO) was hypothesized to lead to additional activation in relevant areas. Effects in this “positive” direction are shown in the results. Inference used a combination of voxel height and cluster extent (Hayasaka and Nichols, 2004). The cluster-defining threshold was set at $\mu_c = 4$, roughly corresponding to $P < 0.001$ uncorrected. Height and extent tests were combined using the unweighted ($\theta = 0.5$) Tippet, Fisher, and cluster mass combining functions, and these were meta-combined in an additional permutation test (see Hayasaka and Nichols, 2004 for details). P-values from the individual and combined tests were corrected to control family-wise error rate (FWE). Areas which reached significance ($P_{FWE} < 0.05$) in the voxel test or the combined voxel / cluster test are included in the results.

The “Automated Anatomical Labeling” atlas (Tzourio-Mazoyer et al., 2002) was used to identify region labels for activation peaks. Cerebellar labelings refer to the parcellation scheme of Schmahmann et al. (1999). For visualization results were rendered on partially inflated cortical surfaces, created by using FreeSurfer to segment and process the cortical surface of the canonical SPM brain. It should be noted that the analysis was performed volumetrically and resulting statistical maps were projected onto the cortical surface. This results, in some cases, in activations that are contiguous in the volume but non-contiguous on the surface, primarily due to voxel-based smoothing across the banks of a sulcus.

Results

Acoustic analysis

The mean acoustic duration and between-subject standard deviation (in ms) for utterances of each stimulus type were as follows: *S_seq*, *S_syl*: 993 ± 215 ; *C_seq*, *S_syl*: 1006 ± 186 ; *S_seq*, *C_syl*: 1195 ± 209 ; *C_seq*, *C_syl*: 1332 ± 155 . The difference between *S_seq*, *S_syl* and *C_seq*, *S_syl* was not significant. All other pair-wise differences were significant ($p < 0.05$).

Basic speech production network

Production of each of the stimulus types was individually contrasted with the baseline condition. Group results showed regions of significant activation that were largely overlapping across stimulus types. Table 1 summarizes activations for each of the four GO conditions compared to baseline. The conjunction of activity across the four speaking conditions is shown in Figure 2.

The minimal network for overt production included, bilaterally, the central sulcus extending rostrally onto the precentral gyrus and caudally onto the postcentral gyrus (including ventral premotor cortex, ventral motor cortex, and ventral somatosensory cortex); the anterior insula; the superior temporal cortex extending posteriorly from the primary auditory cortex along the sylvian fissure to the parietal-temporal junction (including Heschl's gyrus, planum temporale, and the posterior superior temporal gyrus); the medial premotor areas including the supplementary motor area (SMA) and extending antero-ventrally into the pre-SMA and cingulate sulcus; the basal ganglia (putamen / pallidum); the thalamus; and the superior cerebellar hemispheres (Lobule VI and Crus I). The frontal opercular region was activated and appeared to be somewhat left-lateralized. ROI analysis confirmed that the inferior frontal gyrus *pars opercularis* was significantly active ($P < 0.001$) in all speaking conditions but did not find significant left-lateralization. The anterior insula showed a strong left lateralization ($P < 0.02$). Additional lateralized responses emerged in the left inferior frontal sulcus (IFS) above the inferior frontal gyrus *pars triangularis*, and in the right inferior cerebellum (Lobule VIII). Finally, an activation focus was observed at the base of the pons on the right (not shown).

Main effect of overt production

Figure 3 shows the main effect of overt production (GO>NOGO; $P_{FWE} < 0.05$)⁴. GO trials resulted in significantly increased responses bilaterally in the primary motor and somatosensory cortices, the superior temporal plane, the anterior insula, and the medial premotor areas, particularly focused in the supplementary motor area near the superior convexity, but also including portions of the pre-SMA and anterior cingulate sulcus. ROI analysis confirmed that both the SMA and pre-SMA bilaterally were more active for GO than for NOGO trials. The anterior cingulate showed the same trend but was not significant. No active cortical ROI's showed significant lateralization for the effect of go. Subcortically, the putamen / globus pallidus and two regions of the thalamus (one anterior, one posterior) showed an additional bilateral response. The superior

⁴The results shown for main effects and interactions are unidirectional according to the hypothesis that increasing the level of a factor will result in an increase in BOLD response. Regions that showed significant activations in the other direction were typically not active in the baseline contrasts and not areas for which we had *a priori* hypotheses. Discussion of these areas, which included the angular gyrus, precuneus, and anterior prefrontal regions, is therefore omitted for the sake of brevity.

Table 1: Activation peak summary for each overt speaking condition versus baseline (False Discovery Rate (FDR) < 0.01), sorted by anatomical region. Left to right, the columns show the region label (Tzourio-Mazoyer et al., 2002), followed by pseudo-T value and MNI coordinates of activity peaks in that region for each of the four conditions.

Region	S_syl S_seq		S_syl C_seq		C_syl S_seq		C_syl C_seq	
	pseudo-T	MNI-coord	pseudo-T	MNI-coord	pseudo-T	MNI-coord	pseudo-T	MNI-coord
Precentral_L	3.54	(-46,-10,60)	4.78	(-44,-18,64)			7.04	(-60,0,30)
Precentral_R	4.1	(56,6,40)	4.2	(-34,-6,54)	3.83	(56,6,40)	6.55	(62,-4,42)
Postcentral_L	11.38	(-54,-12,40)	5.05	(48,6,32)	3.63	(50,-14,60)	5.14	(56,8,40)
Postcentral_R	9.3	(-62,-4,24)	4.91	(56,8,32)	14.63	(-52,-12,40)	12.82	(-54,-10,44)
Rolandic_Oper_L	6.21	(-42,-24,12)	9.31	(-62,-4,22)	9.2	(-62,-4,24)	7.72	(60,-4,32)
Rolandic_Oper_R	8.54	(66,-10,12)	10.16	(64,-10,14)	8.11	(68,-6,26)	6.19	(68,-4,22)
Insula_L	7.17	(-32,20,0)	10.11	(56,-6,34)	7.85	(56,-8,38)	7.44	(-44,-24,14)
Insula_R	5	(40,10,6)	11.53	(-48,-26,14)	10.11	(-42,-24,12)	7.49	(-52,0,4)
Heschl_L	4.09	(38,24,2)	8.86	(-64,-12,12)	8.4	(68,-8,12)	8.23	(-40,14,4)
Heschl_R	4.52	(38,-22,8)	7.89	(-50,2,6)	6.94	(-44,4,0)	8.37	(40,24,0)
Temporal_Sup_L	7.87	(-62,-8,6)	10.69	(54,-14,12)	5.44	(36,-22,6)	9.18	(-62,-12,8)
Temporal_Sup_R	7.73	(-54,-4,4)	5.36	(38,-6,14)	5.16	(-64,-30,12)	5.63	(-64,-30,12)
Temporal_Pole_Sup_L	7.09	(-56,8,-6)	10.07	(-34,8,8)	8.34	(58,-12,6)	7.33	(52,-24,10)
Temporal_Pole_Sup_R	7.24	(64,6,2)	9.48	(-34,-4,8)	8.26	(66,-22,8)	7.16	(60,-14,8)
Frontal_Inf_Oper_L	4.13	(50,4,-8)	4.27	(42,8,-14)	7.25	(50,-24,12)	6.58	(64,-28,2)
Frontal_Inf_Oper_R	4.09	(48,14,18)	7.15	(-66,-24,8)	6.53	(70,-30,16)	6.78	(-52,8,-4)
Frontal_Inf_Tri_L	3.26	(-34,36,12)	4.72	(-40,-2,-14)	5.64	(-66,-22,8)	7.03	(64,6,2)
Frontal_Inf_Tri_R			9.92	(70,-26,8)	5.16	(-64,-30,12)	6.38	(64,8,0)
Frontal_Mid_L	1.77	(-32,46,12)	7.29	(-46,6,28)	8.34	(66,-22,8)	7.6	(-54,12,0)
Frontal_Mid_R			5.81	(-54,14,32)	7.25	(50,-24,12)	7.09	(-48,10,28)
Supp_Motor_Area_L	10.13	(-2,-2,68)	8.12	(-38,24,2)	6.53	(-36,26,2)	8.71	(50,20,-6)
Supp_Motor_Area_R	6.59	(-2,6,50)	5.73	(-36,26,2)	3.75	(-38,32,14)	7.09	(-56,16,30)
Cingulum_Mid_L	8.89	(4,4,70)	6.68	(40,26,4)	5.73	(-36,26,2)	4.8	(-46,28,24)
Cingulum_Mid_R	7.34	(-4,14,40)	5.11	(50,20,0)	3.75	(-38,32,14)	4.8	(-46,28,24)
Parietal_Sup_L			3	(-36,40,32)			4.37	(-30,-6,50)
Parietal_Inf_L			2.89	(-26,46,20)			4.04	(-42,46,20)
Parietal_Inf_R			5.51	(56,-8,54)			7.8	(-28,-52,50)
Supramarginal_L			9.39	(0,0,66)			5.14	(-52,-38,54)
Caudate_L	6.56	(-12,2,10)	6.3	(-6,10,52)			4.4	(-48,-36,46)
Caudate_R			8.66	(-6,14,42)			3.52	(34,-56,52)
Putamen_L	8.33	(-24,2,-10)	4.11	(-8,-12,42)				
Putamen_R	8.01	(-20,12,4)	3.3	(8,-12,40)				
Pallidum_R			5.97	(-28,-52,52)				
Thalamus_L			4.23	(-52,-36,50)				
Thalamus_R			3.08	(40,-48,48)				
Cerebellum_6_L			2.48	(42,-44,46)				
Cerebellum_6_R			5.47	(-60,-40,30)				
Cerebellum_Crus1_R			3.18	(-46,-30,32)				
Cerebellum_8_R			6.53	(-2,14,42)				
Vermis_3			4.11	(-8,-12,42)				
Vermis_6			3.3	(8,-12,40)				
Fusiform_L	4.28	(-44,-60,-20)	9.84	(-22,2,6)				
			9.84	(-30,-8,-4)				
			9	(-28,-16,10)				
			10.48	(32,-6,-2)				
			8.69	(24,4,6)				
			6.99	(20,8,6)				
			6.94	(32,-16,-2)				
			6.48	(32,-4,-4)				
			5.31	(30,-4,8)				
			6.27	(24,2,-6)				
			9.35	(-10,-16,4)				
			10.14	(-10,-14,6)				
			7.45	(12,-22,0)				
			6.67	(14,-12,6)				
			6.24	(20,-16,10)				
			5.92	(8,-6,4)				
			5.63	(-26,-60,-22)				
			9.21	(-20,-60,-22)				
			7.2	(-28,-60,-24)				
			7.73	(-28,-62,-28)				
			6.38	(-14,-62,-18)				
			9.15	(22,-62,-20)				
			4.5	(22,-22,-2)				
			7.96	(34,-62,-26)				
			5.47	(8,-68,-20)				
			7.04	(42,-54,-28)				
			6.82	(38,-52,-56)				
			5.06	(36,-40,-52)				
			4.74	(20,-64,-46)				
			3.47	(4,-46,-16)				
			4.6	(4,-56,-24)				
			5.83	(-46,-60,-20)				

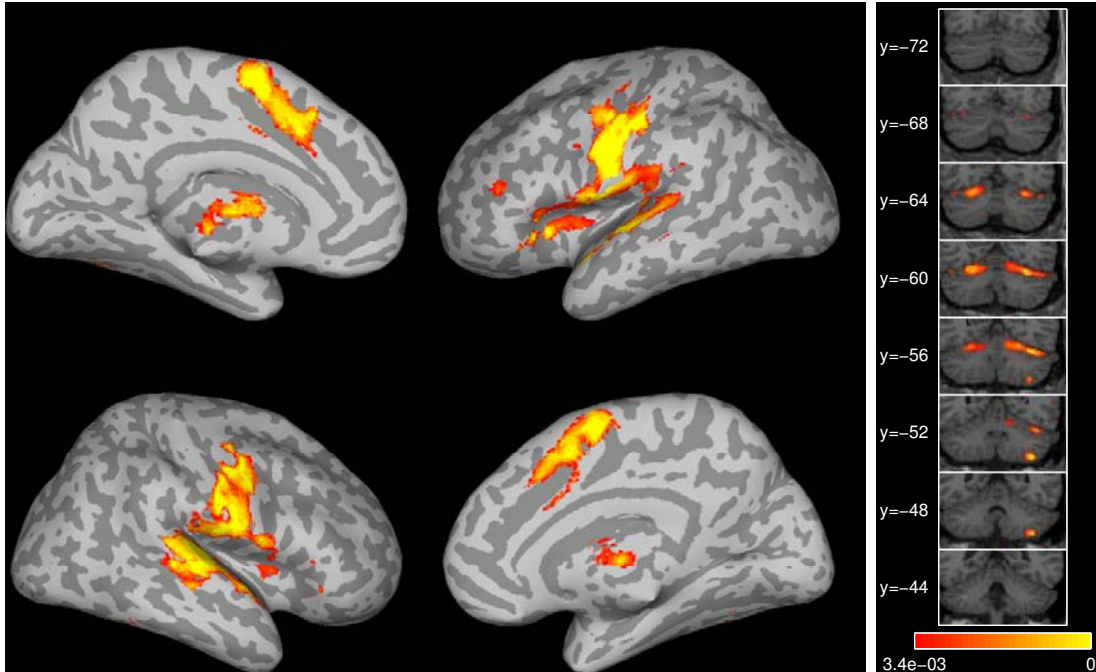


Figure 2: Minimal speech production network. These renderings show the conjunction of activations in the four overt speaking (GO) conditions compared to baseline. The map was thresholded to control false discovery rate at 5%. The color scale represents significance level (P-value) of activations, and results are rendered using a logarithmic scale ($-\log_{10}(P)$). *Left:* Significant activity rendered on semi-inflated cortical surface. Dark gray cortical areas represent sulci, lighter gray areas are gyri. *Right:* Significant activations rendered on coronal slices through the cerebellum at various depths. Anatomical sections are cropped versions of the canonical SPM T1 image, and follow neurological conventions (right hemisphere on the right side of image); y-values refer to planes in MNI-space. The color scale is common to both cortical and cerebellar renderings.

cerebellar cortices (Lobule VI) bilaterally were more active for GO trials, as was a small region in the right inferior cerebellum (anterior Lobule VIII). This latter region was significant in the voxel-based test but not in combined voxel-cluster inference. Table 2 summarizes activations for the main effect of *go*.

Main effect of sequence complexity

Figure 4 shows the main effect of sequence complexity ($C_{seq} > S_{seq}$; $P_{FWE} < 0.05$). The medial premotor areas were more active bilaterally for complex sequences. Region-level testing showed an effect in both hemispheres in the pre-SMA but no effect in the SMA or anterior cingulate. The lateral frontal cortex, including premotor and prefrontal areas and extending along the inferior frontal sulcus was also more active. These activations were strikingly left-lateralized in the voxel-based results. The lateralization test for the ventral premotor cortex and the inferior frontal gyrus *pars opercularis* showed very strong left lateralization ($P < 0.001$); however, none of the

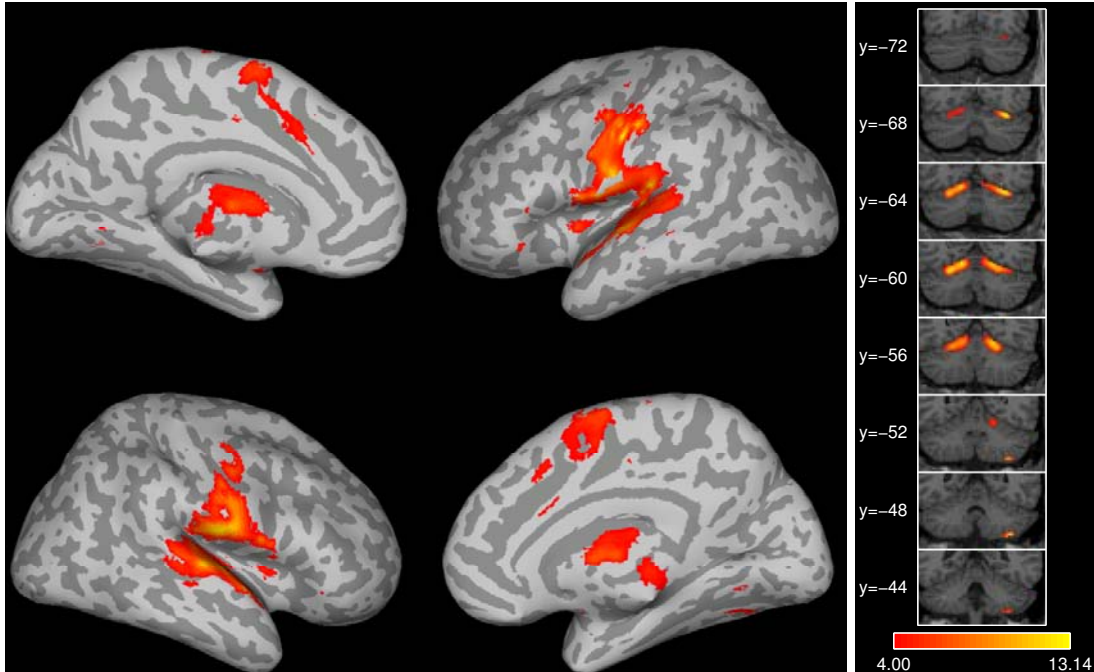


Figure 3: Main effect of overt production: areas that showed a significantly greater response for GO trials than for NOGO trials, averaged across other factors. The statistical image was thresholded at $P_{FWE} < 0.05$. Color scale represents voxel-wise pseudo-T value for significant voxels. See *methods* for further details. *Left:* Significant activity rendered on semi-inflated cortical surface. Dark gray cortical areas represent sulci, lighter gray areas are gyri. *Right:* Significant activations rendered on coronal slices through the cerebellum at various depths. Anatomical sections are cropped versions of the canonical SPM T1 image, and follow neurological conventions (right hemisphere on the right side of image); y-values refer to planes in MNI-space. The color scale is common to both cortical and cerebellar renderings.

ROI's in the parcellation scheme (Tourville and Guenther, 2003) corresponded well to the inferior frontal sulcus region, and thus we could not explicitly test this using the ROI tools. Regions at the junction of the anterior insula and the frontal operculum were engaged bilaterally by sequence complexity. The ROI analysis confirmed that the activation included both the anatomically defined anterior insula and frontal operculum ($P < 0.001$). The effect was significantly greater in the left anterior insula than in the right; no such lateralization effect was found in the frontal operculum. The posterior parietal lobe, left lateralized ($P < 0.05$), and the inferior posterior temporal lobes also showed the sequence complexity effect. The cerebellum demonstrated strong effects bilaterally (although somewhat stronger in the right hemisphere) in the superior areas (Lobule VI, Crus I, Crus II) and unilaterally in the right inferior cerebellar cortex (Lobule VIII). The superior cerebellar activations extended more laterally than those related to the main effect of go (see above), and also included portions of the vermis. The anterior thalamus and caudate nucleus also showed a main effect for sequence complexity bilaterally. Table 3 summarizes activations for the main effect of *seq*.

Table 2: Significant ($P < 0.05$, corrected for multiple comparisons) activation peak summary for the main effect of overt production ($GO > NOGO$). Left to right, columns show the size of contiguous clusters, the P-value for that cluster using combined cluster extent-voxel height inference, the P-value based only on cluster extent, and the voxel-wise P-value, pseudo-T value, MNI coordinates, and anatomical region label for activation peaks within the cluster. All P-values are corrected to control family-wise error.

Cluster-size	P(combo)	P(cluster)	P(voxel)	pseudo-T	MNI (x,y,z)	Region Label
3682	0.00037	0.00171	0.00012	13.14092	(-54,-12,40)	Postcentral_L
			0.00012	11.95341	(-44,-24,12)	Rolandic_Oper_L
			0.00037	10.31301	(-64,-8,20)	Postcentral_L
			0.00037	9.89571	(-62,-6,4)	Temporal_Sup_L
			0.01318	6.81526	(-48,-16,2)	Heschl_L
			0.01648	6.62541	(-50,10,-6)	Temporal_Pole_Sup_L
			0.02441	6.29443	(-60,-30,12)	Temporal_Sup_L
			0.02454	6.28383	(-44,6,-2)	Insula_L
			0.02966	6.1484	(-48,-14,60)	Precentral_L
			6079	0.00037	0.00073	0.00024
0.00037	9.79065	(64,8,0)				Temporal_Pole_Sup_R
0.00122	8.48157	(62,-4,28)				Postcentral_R
0.00122	8.35654	(50,-22,12)				Rolandic_Oper_R
0.00281	7.87694	(12,-16,4)				Thalamus_R
0.00378	7.78941	(46,-14,0)				Temporal_Sup_R
0.00378	7.74591	(0,-6,12)				Thalamus_Mid
0.0127	6.83599	(10,0,10)				Caudate_R
0.01379	6.72545	(68,-26,4)				Temporal_Sup_R
0.01917	6.49536	(-10,-16,4)				Thalamus_L
0.03809	5.98882	(-24,0,-8)				Putamen_L
0.04089	5.93748	(-20,4,2)				Pallidum_L
0.06079	5.68653	(30,0,-6)				Putamen_R
0.08899	5.38535	(40,8,4)				Insula_R
0.09436	5.34178	(-10,-14,16)				Thalamus_L
0.11584	5.19571	(20,8,4)				Putamen_R
0.13843	5.06274	(14,-16,16)				Thalamus_R
0.19312	4.82253	(34,-12,-2)				Putamen_R
0.39014	4.24658	(48,2,-10)	Temporal_Sup_R			
490	0.01111	0.0127	0.01416	6.7078	(32,-66,-22)	Cerebellum_6_R
			0.03003	6.14265	(20,-58,-18)	Cerebellum_6_R
482	0.01135	0.01294	0.01953	6.45726	(-26,-60,-22)	Cerebellum_6_L
			0.02075	6.39888	(-14,-60,-16)	Cerebellum_4_5_L
1162	0.00635	0.00598	0.39856	4.22681	(-8,-58,-2)	Lingual_L
			0.02136	6.37997	(0,0,68)	Supp_Motor_Area_R
			0.02222	6.34191	(2,-6,72)	Supp_Motor_Area_R
			0.08215	5.44359	(0,2,50)	Supp_Motor_Area_R
			0.08728	5.40461	(2,-4,52)	Supp_Motor_Area_R
			0.11011	5.2412	(2,18,40)	Frontal_Sup_Medial_R
53	0.06458	0.10913	0.14331	5.04149	(-4,-14,78)	Paracentral_Lobule_L
			0.04102	5.93599	(38,-48,-56)	Cerebellum_8_R

Main effect of syllable complexity

Figure 5 shows the main effect of syllable complexity ($C_{syl} > S_{syl}$; $P_{FWE} < 0.05$). The medial premotor areas showed additional activation in the voxel-based analysis; region-level testing showed a significant effect isolated to the pre-SMA bilaterally, with no significant difference in the effect size between hemispheres. The junction of the frontal operculum and anterior insula was engaged bilaterally; in the ROI test, the effect was significant in the anatomically defined frontal operculum (FO) in both hemispheres, but the effect was below significance in the anterior insula in both hemispheres. Additionally, the left posterior parietal cortex, near the intraparietal

Table 3: Significant ($P < 0.05$, corrected for multiple comparisons) activation peak summary for the main effect of sequential complexity (*seq*). Left to right, columns show the size of contiguous clusters, the P-value for that cluster using combined cluster extent-voxel height inference, the P-value based only on cluster extent, and the voxel-wise P-value, pseudo-T value, MNI coordinates, and anatomical region label for activation peaks within the cluster. All P-values are corrected to control family-wise error.

Cluster-size	P(combo)	P(cluster)	P(voxel)	pseudo-T	MNI (x,y,z)	Region Label
4920	0.00024	0.00012	0.00049	9.3025	(22,-60,-20)	Cerebelum_6_R
			0.00061	8.6905	(32,-60,-26)	Cerebelum_6_R
			0.0061	7.13077	(-34,-56,-32)	Cerebelum_6_L
			0.00708	7.00493	(36,-54,-56)	Cerebelum_8_R
			0.0083	6.89034	(26,-32,-46)	Cerebelum_8_R
			0.00964	6.8132	(6,-74,-38)	Cerebelum_Crus2_R
			0.00977	6.80131	(16,-70,-48)	Cerebelum_8_R
			0.01575	6.54791	(30,-62,-56)	Cerebelum_8_R
			0.01843	6.43769	(36,-44,-54)	Cerebelum_8_R
			0.03589	6.07315	(-44,-58,-10)	Temporal_Inf_L
			0.04578	5.92515	(6,-68,-18)	Cerebelum_6_R
			0.06006	5.76695	(30,-38,-50)	Cerebelum_8_R
			0.06995	5.6757	(4,-80,-18)	Vermis_6
			0.13599	5.24158	(-24,-64,-22)	Cerebelum_6_L
			0.16626	5.10358	(-48,-64,-22)	Fusiform_L
			0.17029	5.08838	(22,-82,-18)	Fusiform_R
			0.17712	5.0637	(-16,-62,-16)	Cerebelum_6_L
			0.21021	4.94853	(-30,-78,-22)	Cerebelum_6_L
			0.30566	4.65947	(-22,-84,-22)	Cerebelum_Crus1_L
			2294	0.00037	0.00061	0.46948
0.47888	4.2941	(36,-38,-40)				Cerebelum_Crus2_R
0.00024	11.3493	(0,6,56)				Supp_Motor_Area_R
0.00049	9.32545	(8,30,34)				Cingulum_Mid_R
0.00049	9.25186	(-2,18,46)				Supp_Motor_Area_L
0.00061	8.66842	(0,2,68)				Supp_Motor_Area_R
0.00073	8.53792	(0,-6,70)				Supp_Motor_Area_R
0.00122	8.14325	(-2,22,36)				Frontal_Sup_Medial_L
0.00281	7.64762	(-48,4,30)				Precentral_L
0.0061	7.12261	(-56,-8,46)				Postcentral_L
1736	0.00061	0.00098	0.01782	6.46693	(-50,28,24)	Frontal_Inf_Tri_L
			0.02063	6.34655	(-54,16,32)	Frontal_Inf_Oper_L
			0.05212	5.84752	(-50,-6,54)	Precentral_L
			0.05823	5.77984	(-54,6,42)	Precentral_L
			0.08655	5.54831	(-32,-4,64)	Frontal_Sup_L
			0.1167	5.35413	(-42,-2,44)	Precentral_L
			0.18481	5.03744	(-32,-4,52)	Precentral_L
			0.21655	4.92606	(-58,10,20)	Frontal_Inf_Oper_L
			0.23328	4.86595	(-26,-6,50)	Frontal_Sup_L
			0.00061	8.71686	(0,-6,12)	Thalamus
1153	0.00061	0.00305	0.00098	8.27126	(-8,-2,10)	Caudate_L
			0.23267	4.86751	(18,-8,20)	Caudate_R
			0.00061	8.71972	(-32,22,4)	Insula_L
1031	0.00061	0.00354	0.00452	7.2841	(-42,16,6)	Insula_L
			0.00854	6.88164	(-48,14,2)	Frontal_Inf_Oper_L
			0.02576	6.24065	(-48,20,-6)	Frontal_Inf_Orb_L
830	0.00171	0.00476	0.00195	7.84031	(40,22,2)	Insula_R
			0.00391	7.36148	(50,20,-2)	Frontal_Inf_Oper_R
1063	0.0022	0.0033	0.00684	7.02179	(-30,-54,58)	Parietal_Sup_L
			0.00757	6.95509	(-26,-60,56)	Parietal_Sup_L
			0.01013	6.76815	(-30,-48,46)	Parietal_Inf_L
			0.11938	5.33424	(-48,-32,46)	Postcentral_L
			0.41821	4.40675	(-26,-68,38)	Parietal_Sup_L
130	0.07507	0.04443	0.45251	4.34567	(-52,-34,52)	Postcentral_L
			0.14087	5.21796	(26,-64,64)	Parietal_Sup_R
			0.23376	4.86263	(32,-56,52)	Parietal_Inf_R

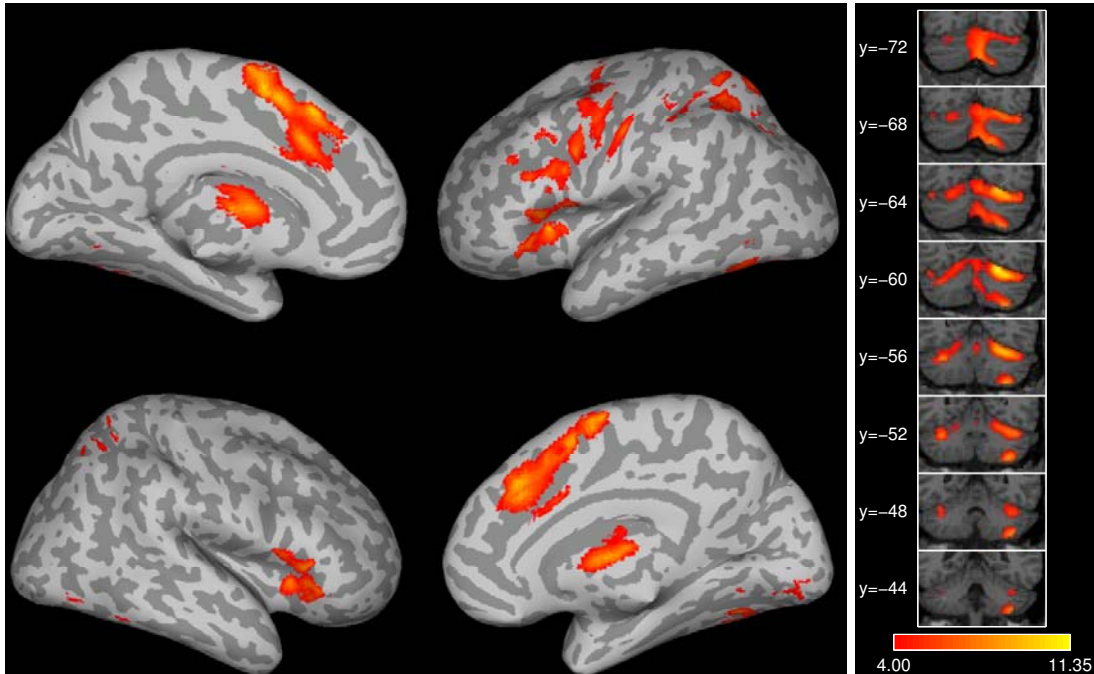


Figure 4: Main effect of sequence complexity: areas that showed a significantly greater response to complex sequences than to simple sequences, averaged across other factors. The statistical image was thresholded at $P_{FWE} < 0.05$. Color scale represents voxel-wise pseudo-T value. See *methods* for details. *Left:* Significant activity rendered on semi-inflated cortical surface. Dark gray cortical areas represent sulci, lighter gray areas are gyri. *Right:* Significant activations rendered on coronal slices through the cerebellum at various depths. Anatomical sections are cropped versions of the canonical SPM T1 image, and follow neurological conventions (right hemisphere on the right side of image); y-values refer to planes in MNI-space. The color scale is common to both cortical and cerebellar renderings.

and postcentral sulci demonstrated an effect due to *syl*. Cerebellar effects were much more focal when compared with the effect of *seq*, with significant increased activity limited to the right superior cerebellar cortex (Lobule VI) near the vermis, and generally posterior to the areas showing an effect of *seq* (see Figure 4). Table 4 summarizes activations for the main effect of *syl*.

Interactions between factors

No significant ($P_{FWE} < 0.05$) interaction effects were found for $go \times seq$, $go \times syl$, or for the three-way interaction $go \times seq \times syl$. There was, however, a strong interaction between the factors *seq* and *syl*. Figure 6 shows brain areas that demonstrated a significant positive-direction interaction between sequence complexity and syllable complexity (i.e. $\{C_{syl}, C_{seq} - C_{syl}, S_{seq}\} > \{S_{syl}, C_{seq} - S_{syl}, S_{seq}\}$). These areas included the medial premotor cortices (SMA / pre-SMA / cingulate sulcus), the junction of the frontal operculum and anterior insula bilaterally, the left posterior parietal cortex, the anterior thalamus, the superior cerebellum, and regions of the

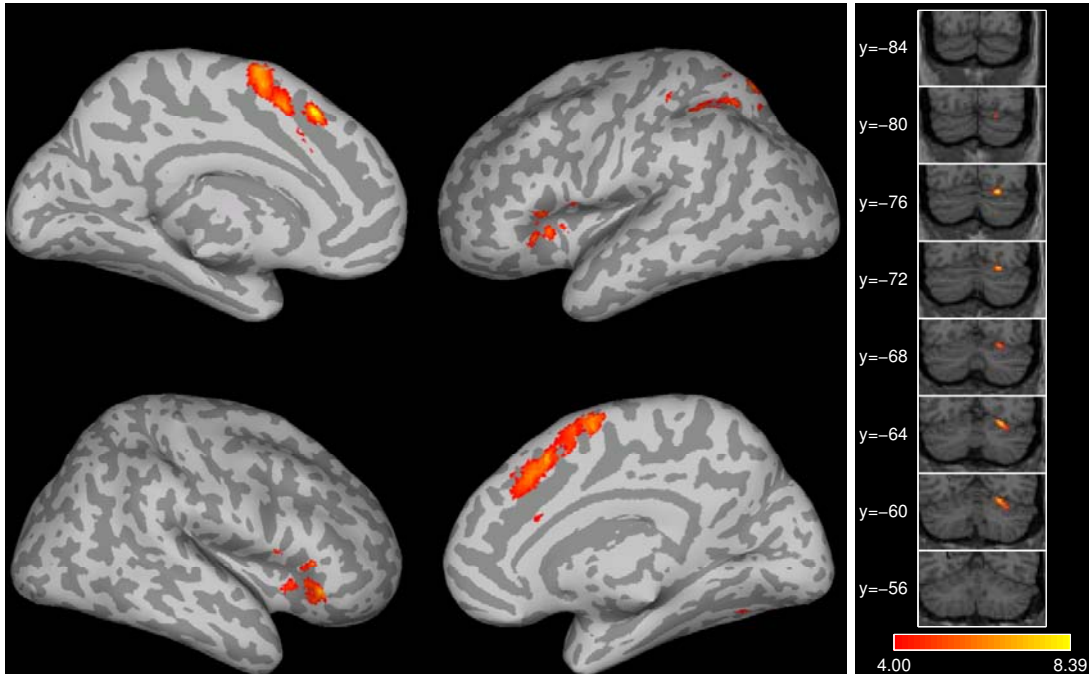


Figure 5: Main effect of syllable complexity: areas that showed a significantly greater response for sequences comprised of complex syllables than for sequences comprised of simple syllables, averaged across other factors. The statistical image was thresholded at $P_{FWE} < 0.05$. Color scale represents voxel-wise pseudo-T value. See *methods* for details. *Left:* Significant activity rendered on semi-inflated cortical surface. Dark gray cortical areas represent sulci, lighter gray areas are gyri. *Right:* Significant activations rendered on coronal slices through the cerebellum at various depths. Anatomical images are cropped versions of the canonical SPM T1 image, and follow neurological conventions (right hemisphere on the right side of image); y-values refer to planes in MNI-space. The color scale is common to both cortical and cerebellar renderings.

precentral gyrus and prefrontal cortex in and surrounding the inferior frontal sulcus, primarily in the left hemisphere. Results from region-level testing showed that the medial activations only produced a significant effect in the pre-SMA (and not SMA), bilaterally. The effects in the ventral premotor cortex, inferior frontal gyrus *pars opercularis*, and superior parietal lobe were significantly ($P < 0.05$) left-lateralized. Table 5 summarizes activations for the $seq \times syl$ interaction. A further investigation of interactions between *syl* and *seq* is also available in the online supplementary materials.

Discussion

In this study, we sought to better understand the neural substrates for planning and producing sequences of simple speech sounds, a faculty that is ubiquitous in normal discourse. This topic has received relatively little attention in the neuroimaging literature to date, with most studies of language production focusing on aspects of word generation and production (reviewed in

Table 4: Significant ($P < 0.05$, corrected for multiple comparisons) activation peak summary for the main effect of syllable complexity (*sy1*). Left to right, columns show the size of contiguous clusters, the P-value for that cluster using combined cluster extent-voxel height inference, the P-value based only on cluster extent, and the voxel-wise P-value, pseudo-T value, MNI coordinates, and anatomical region label for activation peaks within the cluster. All P-values are corrected to control family-wise error.

Cluster-size	P(combo)	P(cluster)	P(voxel)	pseudo-T	MNI (x,y,z)	Region Label
1106	0.00159	0.00488	0.00061	8.38733	(0,18,46)	Supp_Motor_Area_L
			0.0094	7.00759	(0,4,62)	Supp_Motor_Area_R
			0.01013	6.95133	(0,0,70)	Supp_Motor_Area_R
			0.04236	5.97899	(4,24,38)	Cingulum_Mid_R
510	0.00879	0.01306	0.00623	7.20664	(50,22,-6)	Frontal_Inf_Orb_R
			0.09216	5.4626	(42,20,-12)	Frontal_Inf_Orb_R
			0.0979	5.42468	(38,26,0)	Insula_R
			0.125	5.24541	(38,24,-6)	Insula_R
346	0.02197	0.02063	0.021	6.40769	(-26,-62,52)	Parietal_Sup_L
			0.05579	5.7753	(-30,-54,52)	Parietal_Inf_L
			0.12891	5.22414	(-48,-40,52)	Parietal_Inf_L
			0.3396	4.44609	(-20,-66,66)	Parietal_Sup_L
380	0.02026	0.01855	0.42749	4.23381	(-38,-44,44)	Parietal_Inf_L
			0.05469	5.78835	(-34,26,0)	Frontal_Inf_Tri_L
			0.06726	5.6656	(-34,22,4)	Insula_L
			0.11047	5.33845	(-50,12,0)	Frontal_Inf_Oper_L
178	0.07104	0.04468	0.16602	5.02891	(22,-76,-20)	Cerebellum_6_R
			0.19812	4.89095	(26,-62,-18)	Cerebellum_6_R

Indefrey and Levelt, 2000; Turkeltaub et al., 2002), or on other aspects of verbal output such as speaking rate (Wildgruber et al., 2001; Riecker et al., 2005) or prosody (Riecker et al., 2002). Previous computational studies in our laboratory have led to the implementation of a neural model that is capable of learning and producing (by means of a computer-simulated vocal tract) simple speech sounds (Guenther, 1994, 1995; Guenther et al., 1998, 2006). More recently we have generated and tested hypotheses regarding the anatomical locations of various processing components and representations in the model (Guenther et al., 2006; Guenther, in press). Currently, however, the model does not treat sequencing or explicit planning beyond a single “chunk.” Here we investigated the neural substrates for representing speech items (and their serial order) within planned sequences, and for initiating and coordinating the serial production of these items (e.g. Lashley’s *action syntax* problem; Lashley, 1951).

Subjects spoke or prepared to speak non-word sequences of three syllables. The use of non-lexical items served to eliminate semantic effects, which were not of interest in this study⁵. Because our modeling work is not tied to a particular level of phonological representation (the current DIVA implementation is capable of learning phonemes, syllables, or multi-syllabic words), and because the research community has not arrived at a consensus on planning “units” in speech, the stimuli were parameterized by two complexity factors: within each syllable (syllable complexity or *sy1*) and across the syllables in the sequence (sequence complexity or *seq*). Many previous authors have considered the importance of the syllable as a unit in speech production (Sevald et al., 1995;

⁵It has been suggested (Gupta et al., 2005), however, that non-words repetition and word list recall may share common sequencing mechanisms. We believe that the use of non-words simplifies possible interpretations of the experimental results and still sheds light on mechanisms involved in more typical language production.

Table 5: Significant ($P < 0.05$, corrected for multiple comparisons) activation peak summary for the positive interaction effect of syllable complexity \times sequence complexity ($seq \times syl$). Left to right, columns show the size of contiguous clusters, the P-value for that cluster using combined cluster extent-voxel height inference, the P-value based only on cluster extent, and the voxel-wise P-value, pseudo-T value, MNI coordinates, and anatomical region label for activation peaks within the cluster. All P-values are corrected to control family-wise error.

Cluster-size	P(combo)	P(cluster)	P(voxel)	pseudo-T	MNI (x,y,z)	Region Label
2768	0.00012	0.00037	0.00012	9.24008	(0,16,48)	Supp_Motor_Area_L
			0.00037	8.85036	(-8,8,62)	Supp_Motor_Area_L
			0.00037	8.32387	(2,34,36)	Frontal_Sup_Medial_R
			0.00073	8.07759	(8,26,34)	Cingulum_Mid_R
			0.03589	6.11734	(0,16,66)	N/A
			0.06482	5.77648	(2,14,32)	Cingulum_Mid_R
			0.08374	5.61253	(-6,24,28)	Cingulum_Ant_L
2101	0.00012	0.00049	0.00012	9.15435	(34,22,-8)	Frontal_Inf_Orb_R
			0.00195	7.77868	(38,44,24)	Frontal_Mid_R
			0.00891	6.97827	(52,20,-4)	Frontal_Inf_Orb_R
			0.01501	6.60839	(40,20,10)	Frontal_Inf_Tri_R
			0.13525	5.30193	(52,34,26)	Frontal_Inf_Tri_R
			0.31763	4.67356	(58,24,14)	Frontal_Inf_Tri_R
			0.00037	8.41327	(-42,30,24)	Frontal_Inf_Tri_L
3187	0.00024	0.00037	0.00305	7.42877	(-30,24,6)	Insula_L
			0.00439	7.31329	(-42,46,22)	Frontal_Mid_L
			0.01282	6.68387	(-36,16,-8)	Insula_L
			0.01404	6.64428	(-58,14,18)	Frontal_Inf_Oper_L
			0.04053	6.06169	(-52,16,14)	Frontal_Inf_Tri_L
			0.04272	6.04246	(-44,14,4)	Insula_L
			0.12463	5.35462	(-62,6,28)	Precentral_L
			0.15784	5.19544	(-40,12,26)	Frontal_Inf_Tri_L
			0.27173	4.80442	(-52,10,44)	Frontal_Mid_L
			0.31409	4.68594	(-50,4,36)	Precentral_L
			0.01111	6.81014	(42,-50,-30)	Cerebellum_Crus1_R
			0.0166	6.5356	(28,-52,-24)	Cerebellum_6_R
			0.02649	6.27152	(32,-52,-28)	Cerebellum_6_R
0.0271	6.24839	(36,-56,-28)	Cerebellum_6_R			
0.03821	6.08466	(-2,-72,-8)	Vermis_6			
0.05945	5.82793	(14,-66,-12)	Cerebellum_6_R			
0.11084	5.43767	(42,-72,-28)	Cerebellum_Crus1_R			
0.13684	5.29047	(2,-56,-32)	Vermis_9			
0.31763	4.67387	(14,-58,-20)	Cerebellum_6_R			
0.52759	4.17515	(14,-54,-14)	Cerebellum_4_5_R			
856	0.00244	0.00366	0.00317	7.39145	(16,-6,14)	Caudate_R
			0.00415	7.32411	(-10,0,10)	Caudate_L
			0.01111	6.81383	(10,-2,12)	Caudate_R
			0.03857	6.08045	(-4,-10,14)	Thalamus_L
			0.07166	5.71289	(8,-8,2)	Thalamus_R
			0.01379	6.65005	(-30,-52,50)	Parietal_Inf_L
			0.10303	5.48829	(-40,-44,54)	Parietal_Sup_L
1004	0.00305	0.00281	0.1759	5.12255	(-52,-40,56)	Postcentral_L
			0.18689	5.08376	(-36,-48,42)	Parietal_Inf_L
			0.48474	4.26502	(-24,-72,46)	Parietal_Sup_L
			0.51648	4.19948	(-18,-68,64)	Parietal_Sup_L
			0.07263	5.69839	(34,2,58)	Frontal_Mid_R
			0.19836	5.0424	(34,2,38)	Frontal_Mid_R
			0.21497	4.98342	(34,4,44)	Frontal_Mid_R
292	0.0282	0.01501	0.23511	4.92222	(44,12,38)	Frontal_Mid_R
			0.43384	4.36841	(34,0,48)	Precentral_R
			0.0166	6.53542	(-44,-58,-16)	Fusiform_L
			0.10193	5.49464	(-32,0,52)	Frontal_Mid_L
114	0.03137	0.06018	0.15063	5.22492	(-38,0,62)	Precentral_L
			0.50818	4.21622	(-38,-4,42)	Precentral_L
			0.0354	0.02271		

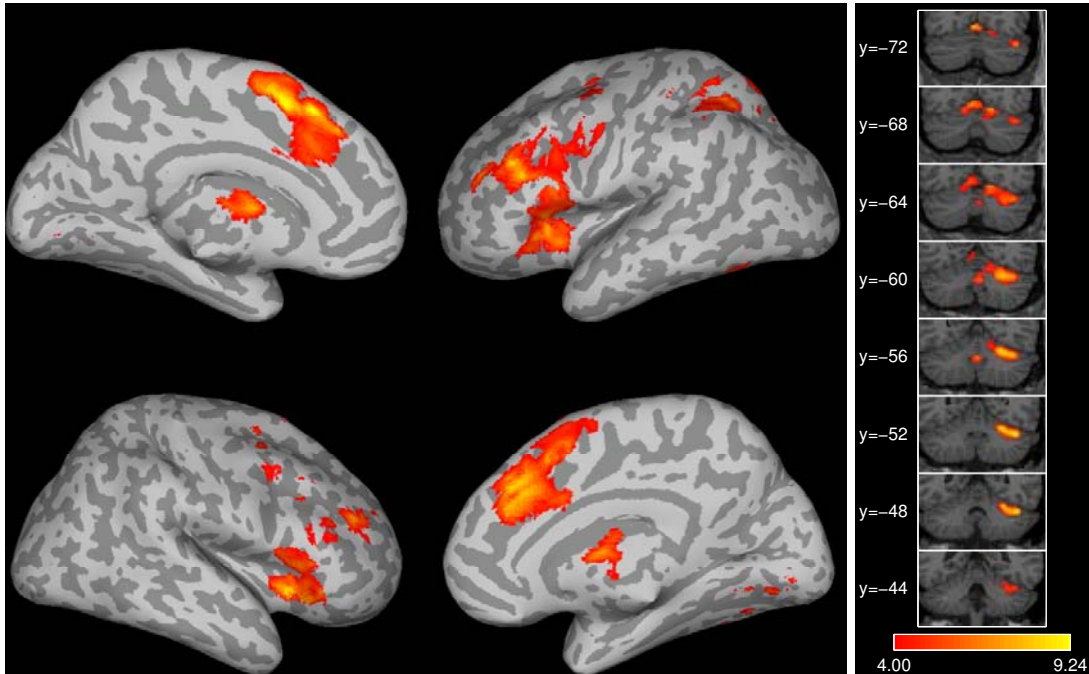


Figure 6: Interactions between sequence complexity and syllable complexity. The statistical image was thresholded at $P_{FWE} < 0.05$. Color scale represents voxel-wise pseudo-T value. See *methods* for details. *Left:* Significant activity rendered on semi-inflated cortical surface. Dark gray cortical areas represent sulci, lighter gray areas are gyri. *Right:* Significant activations rendered on coronal slices through the cerebellum at various depths. Anatomical images are cropped versions of the canonical SPM T1 image, and follow neurological conventions (right hemisphere on the right side of image); y-values refer to planes in MNI-space. The color scale is common to both cortical and cerebellar renderings.

Ferrand and Segui, 1998; Ziegler and Maassen, 2004; Cholin et al., 2006), and in the present study the presentation of stimuli as three one-syllable items separated by hyphens likely encouraged participants to treat syllables as chunks (see for example Klapp, 2003, who demonstrated a similar chunking effect dependent on how the stimuli were structured). Although syllable-sized units are probably involved at some level(s) of the speech planning process, the relevance of phonemic units is also supported by slips of the tongue, phonemic paraphasias, and deficits in disorders such as apraxia of speech. “Slots and fillers” (Shattuck-Hufnagel, 1979, 1983, 1987) or “Frame and Content” (MacNeilage, 1998) theories of speech production postulate that syllables and the phonemes which comprise them may have separate representations; the syllable may serve to mark the eligibility of phonemes in certain positions and at certain times.

In the $2 \times 2 \times 2$ factorial analysis performed here, the complexity-related effects have important interpretations in understanding the representations of forthcoming speech plans. A main effect of *seq* was observed when a region showed a greater response due to the demands of representing three unique syllables compared to just one. Increasing sequence complexity also *necessarily* led to an increase in the number of unique sub-syllabic targets. A main effect of *syl* occurred when a region’s response increased due to the demands for representing sub-syllabic complexity *at the*

level of a single syllable. Because the syllable complexity comparison was made without regard for sequence complexity, it does not always reflect the necessity to plan more articulatory targets over the entire forthcoming utterance; instead it is always true that increasing *syl* increases the structural complexity of the individual syllable-sized items being planned. A $seq \times syl$ interaction would occur when increasing sequence or syllable complexity increased the size of the effect of the other factor (e.g. if the effect of sequence complexity was greater when the syllabic items were complex).

The experimental protocol used was different in several ways from most other neuroimaging studies of speech production. First, the utilization of a sparse scanning procedure (see also [Eden et al., 1999](#); [Birn et al., 2004](#); [Schmithorst and Holland, 2004](#); [Nebel et al., 2005](#)) that took advantage of the hemodynamic delay enabled the use of overt speech production while avoiding movement-related artifacts ([Birn et al., 1998](#); [Barch et al., 1999](#)), and allowed subjects to produce utterances in relative silence. Other authors have dealt with movement artifacts by excluding images obtained during articulation from their analyses (e.g. [Riecker et al., 2002](#)), but this approach still requires subjects to speak with loud background noise due to the scanner gradients. While the issues with imaging overt speech have been discussed in the literature ([Munhall, 2001](#); [Gracco et al., 2005](#)), they are often disregarded due to technical limitations or other priorities (although see [de Zubicaray et al., 2000](#) and [Abrahams et al., 2003](#)). Also, in the present design, stimuli were drawn randomly from different conditions in each trial, eliminating adaptation and habituation effects that can occur with blocked presentation. Finally, the inclusion of a random-duration wait period between stimulus presentation and the GO signal enabled the imaging of pre-articulatory preparation for speech as well as the articulation period without cueing the subject about the trial type beforehand. This design is similar to simple reaction time tasks (e.g. [Sternberg et al., 1978](#); [Klapp, 2003](#)) as well as electrophysiological studies of motor sequence performance in non-human primates (e.g. [Shima and Tanji, 2000](#); [Lu and Ashe, 2005](#)). In the latter studies, cells in many regions of the frontal cortex show anticipatory activity related to the forthcoming sequence during the wait period. Here we attempted to measure similar responses with fMRI in the wait period prior to articulation of syllable sequences.

While the NOGO task used in this experiment shares common elements with *covert* speech, it is not equivalent to that task, which has been used in many speech imaging studies. In our task, there is no explicit instruction other than to “be prepared to immediately speak” the most recently presented sequence upon viewing a GO signal. It was assumed that subjects use the stimulus display as a “precue,” loading the sequence into a working memory buffer prior to the arrival of the GO signal. This notion is supported by the classical finding in reaction time studies that choice reaction time (in which the GO signal itself informs the subject of the stimulus) is longer than simple reaction time (in which the precue provides the stimulus, as in the present study; [Donders, 1969](#)).

The minimal network used for producing syllable sequences was assessed by performing a

conjunction analysis (Nichols et al., 2005) between the four individual speaking conditions compared to the baseline. This method based on the maximum P -statistic provides a conservative estimate (Friston et al., 2005) of the speech production system (see Figure 2). Overt production of syllable sequences of all types resulted in significant activation that extended beyond the central sulcus, involving also the medial premotor areas, the frontal operculum and anterior insula, the anterior thalamus, and the cerebellum. The only differences between speaking conditions were in the phonological composition of the sequences. Very generally, we observed that increasing the complexity of the stimulus led to additional activity in this minimal speech production network and beyond. Average utterance durations varied moderately but significantly across conditions. Although these differences could, themselves, lead to variable brain responses, one would expect duration-specific responses to be focused in the primary sensorimotor and auditory regions. Differences observed across conditions in “higher-order” regions are unlikely to have been a simple effect of speaking duration.

The results observed here conflict with the findings of Riecker et al. (2000b), who examined the effects of articulatory/phonetic complexity. In that study, none of the stimuli elicited significant activation of the anterior insula, frontal operculum, or SMA, and only production of complex syllables (our terminology) activated the cerebellum. There were several differences between experimental designs. In Riecker et al. (2000b), stimuli were spoken repeatedly for one minute periods. For single syllables, this amounted to simple repetitions over the full minute; for the multi-syllabic utterances, subjects attempted to equally space the individual syllables at the same rate as the single syllable stimuli, and repeated the set of three until the minute was complete. In our protocol, a sequence was presented then removed during a delay period, forcing subjects to load the sequence into a working memory buffer in anticipation of the GO signal. A three syllable utterance was prepared and/or produced just once in a trial, and the next trial involved a new stimulus. In a previous study in our laboratory (Ghosh et al., 2003), production of even simple vowel sounds activated areas beyond those observed in Riecker et al. (2000b); furthermore, in that experiment, syllables were produced immediately upon visual presentation, so the activation of those areas cannot be merely attributed to the verbal working memory requirements in the present study. We believe that the limited activation patterns for complex speech stimuli in Riecker et al. (2000b) most likely resulted from the blocked paradigm used. The authors’ suggestion that poly-syllable tokens might be organized as higher-order units posing fewer demands on the motor system seems unlikely. In English, for example, there are approximately 500 very commonly used syllables. If arbitrary non-lexical combinations of these syllables were stored as higher-level motor memories, this would result in an unlikely combinatorial explosion. Rather, as Lashley (1951) noted, the human brain must be able to arrange smooth sequences of behavior from a finite alphabet of learned acts. The additional activations observed in the present study due to increasing stimulus complexity supports the notion that these utterances were “assembled” and not simply executed from a single motor memory.

The basic speech production network observed is in general agreement (although activated re-

gions differ depending on the precise conditions and baselines used) with many other studies of overt production of various speech stimuli (Murphy et al., 1997; Wise et al., 1999; Riecker et al., 2000a; Fiez, 2001; Blank et al., 2002; Riecker et al., 2002; Shuster and Lemieux, 2005; Riecker et al., 2005, see also Indefrey and Levelt, 2000 and Turkeltaub et al., 2002 for meta-analyses of word production experiments). Many of the regions within and beyond the minimal speech production network (Figure 2) showed complexity-related response variations. Our results show that sequence and syllable complexity interacted strongly in many of the regions in which a main effect of *seq* was observed. This is likely due to the hierarchical relationship between syllables and the phonemes or phonetic targets that comprise them. In this study, a complex sequence of simple syllables (e.g. ka-ru-ti) could contain up to four more distinct phonetic targets than a simple sequence of simple syllables (e.g. ka-ka-ka), whereas a complex sequence of complex syllables (e.g. kla-tri-splu) could contain up to eight more targets than a simple sequence of complex syllables (e.g. kla-kla-kla). Thus the two factors were inherently intertwined, and an interaction would be anticipated if a region represented the full forthcoming speech plan at a sub-syllabic level, or if the representation of complex syllables was simply larger (e.g. greater BOLD response). In assessing the main effect of *seq*, complex sequences were compared to simple ones regardless of the complexity of the individual syllables within. While more *syllables* had to be represented for complex sequences, subjects also had to plan more sub-syllabic targets because these stimuli *always* contained more unique phonemes than did simple sequence stimuli. If an area showed a main effect for *seq*, but did *not* show an interaction between *seq* and *syl*, this would indicate that the area likely was used to represent "chunks" without regard for the complexity of the chunk. In the present study, the only region that showed the main effect of *seq* but did not also show the *seq* × *syl* interaction was the right inferior cerebellum (Lobule VIII). The fact that the remaining regions showing a main effect for *seq* also showed a *seq* × *syl* interaction is informative because it indicates that in most portions of the speech planning system, sub-syllabic detail plays an important representative role.

A major motivation for this study was to provide additional constraints for models of the speech production system. In the following sections, we discuss the patterns of responses obtained for various anatomical structures, review previous pertinent data, and develop hypotheses concerning how these structures may each contribute to the planning and production of sequences of syllables and, moreover, fluent speech.

Sensorimotor areas

Overt production of all stimulus types resulted in significant bilateral activation (compared to baseline) of the primary sensorimotor areas in and surrounding the central sulcus. These areas showed a main effect for *go*, indicating that they were, on average, more active for performance than for preparation. In both comparisons, the activity maps roughly follow the motor / sensory

homunculus representations of the lips, jaw, tongue, and larynx (see [Guenther et al., 2006](#), for a review of the estimated anatomical locations of the components of the speech motor system). These results suggest that the primary motor and somatosensory cortices, bilaterally, are engaged in the online control of the articulators and registration of orosensory feedback. This result was, of course, expected since sensorimotor cortical activity is seen in all neuroimaging studies involving articulated speech.

Significant left lateralization at the level of the precentral gyrus has previously been demonstrated for *covert* speech ([Wildgruber et al., 1996](#); [Riecker et al., 2000a](#)). [Riecker et al. \(2000a\)](#) found bilateral activation (with moderate left-hemisphere bias) when the speaking task was made overt. In the present study, a similar lateralization of motor cortex activity was observed for the preparation-only trials. ROI analyses revealed significant ($P < 0.05$) left lateralization in the ventral motor cortex during NOGO trials. For GO trials, this region's activation was on average stronger in the left, but this trend was not significant. The effect of (*seq*) was also significantly stronger in the left hemisphere ventral motor and ventral premotor cortices. These results, coupled with the previous observations for covert speech, suggest a special role for the left hemisphere motor cortex. We hypothesize that preparation for speaking “primes” motor cortical cells primarily in the left hemisphere that drive execution of learned motor programs, but that the right hemisphere motor cortex becomes active when overt speech is initiated in order to aid in the online control of the articulators.

Left hemisphere prefrontal areas

We observed a strong left-lateralized response to additional sequence complexity (see [Figure 4](#)) in the left precentral gyrus and prefrontal cortex along the inferior frontal sulcus. The left IFS region also showed a strong positive interaction effect between *seq* and *syl* (see [Figure 6](#)). In other words, the IFS response was greater for complex vs. simple sequences, but the amount of the additional signal was larger when sequences were composed of complex syllables. This region did not show a main effect of *syl*.

The lateral prefrontal cortex has been implicated in many studies of language and working memory ([Gabrieli et al., 1998](#); [Kerns et al., 2004](#); [Fiez et al., 1996](#); [D’Esposito et al., 1998](#)) and in serial order processing ([Petrides, 1991](#); [Averbeck et al., 2002, 2003](#)). The complexity-related activity observed here is near the human homologue of a region that [Averbeck et al. \(2002, 2003\)](#) recorded from (BA46) while monkeys planned serial drawing movements. [Averbeck et al. \(2002\)](#) demonstrated that prior to initiating a planned sequence of movements, there existed a parallel co-active representation of each of the components of the forthcoming sequence. The relative activity level in groups of cells that coded for the component movements corresponded to the order in which the movements would be produced. Based on the results of the present study, we hypothesize that planning memory-guided syllable sequences also necessitates such a parallel

representation; coding for three distinct syllable “chunks” requires more neural and metabolic resources than coding for a sequence that contains only one syllable “chunk” repeated three times. We speculate that a standing parallel representation of the forthcoming utterance is located in or near the inferior frontal sulcus. The presence of a strong interaction between *seq* and *syl* suggests that complex syllables may require the activation of multiple phonological units in the inferior frontal sulcus, or that complex or less frequently utilized syllables have a larger representation in this area than simple syllables.

An alternative hypothesis regarding IFS activity was proposed by Crosson et al. (2001) who found that, in an inner speech task, IFS activity was modulated by the amount of semantic processing required. The authors speculated that the IFS is involved in word generation from semantic cues. In a follow-up study of covert word generation, Crosson et al. (2003) found left IFS activity only when word generation required the use of semantic knowledge. In the present study we observed modulation of IFS activity related to the composition of non-lexical syllable sequences. The stimuli were designed to remove semantic effects completely but we still observed IFS activation and stimulus-dependent modulation. This suggests that this region, at least in part, plays a non-semantic role in representing speech plans.

We also observed activity within the left posterior inferior frontal gyrus *pars opercularis* (BA44) and neighboring premotor areas related to *seq*. In previous work this area (in the left hemisphere) has been associated with the *Speech Sound Map* component of the DIVA model (Guenther et al., 2006). The effect of *seq* in both the ventral premotor cortex and the inferior frontal gyrus *pars opercularis* was significantly greater in the left hemisphere. A prediction of the model, which suggests that Speech Sound Map cells read out motor plans for well-learned speech “chunks,” is that there should be additional activity when multiple chunks are activated. Because production of complex sequences requires the activation of multiple speech sound map cells, one would expect to observe additional activity with BOLD fMRI, thus accounting for the complexity-related activation of posterior BA44 observed here.

Anterior insula and frontal operculum

Recently the role of the anterior insula in speech production has received great attention (Dronkers, 1996; Wise et al., 1999; Nagao et al., 1999; Ackermann and Riecker, 2004; Hillis et al., 2005). Dronkers (1996) identified the precentral gyrus of the left-hemisphere insula as the common site of lesion overlap in a group of patients diagnosed with apraxia of speech; this region was preserved in an aphasic control group without AOS. Wise et al. (1999) found a similar region involved in articulated but not covert speech. In this study we observed activation in or near the precentral gyrus of the insula in *both hemispheres* during all GO conditions (Figure 2); these areas were not significantly active for NOGO trials, and did not show significant effects for the factors *seq* or *syl*. We conclude that this portion of the anterior insula, believed to be analogous to that found

by Wise et al. (1999), is engaged only for the overt production of speech and is not explicitly involved in sequence representation. The involvement of the right anterior insula in overt speech is somewhat surprising (Cf. Wise et al., 1999; Riecker et al., 2000a). Ackermann and Riecker (2004) suggested that the left and right insula might act on different time scales in vocal control; this study involved supra-segmental sequences, but subjects were specifically instructed to avoid prosodic modulation, which has been attributed to right hemisphere structures. It is possible that in previous experiments the right insula was involved but failed to reach significance and/or the present use of non-lexical stimuli may have further engaged the right hemisphere.

Nota and Honda (2003) hypothesized that the anterior insula may be involved in encoding and buffering phonetic plans for articulation. This suggestion was based on results showing insular involvement when the spoken utterance was changed randomly throughout the session but not when the same utterance was repeatedly spoken. The present result, that the precentral gyrus region of the insula was active in all GO trials, is consistent with this suggestion because stimuli were chosen randomly per trial, and thus subjects always needed to “reload” the speech plan. The lack of a complexity effect, however, suggests that it is unlikely to play a role in the representation of the phonological / phonetic plan. Furthermore, this area became active due to *overt* speech, not merely by reloading a speech plan as in the NOGO trials. Insular damage has previously been found to lead to deficits in speech initiation (Shuren, 1993) and motivation to speak (Habib et al., 1995). Based on our results, this portion of the insula is more likely involved in these functions than in speech encoding or sequence buffering.

A separate focus of activity, at the junction of the anterior insula and frontal operculum bilaterally, showed a consistent activation pattern that was quite different from that discussed above. Increased responses were observed for additional sequence or syllable complexity. This area also showed a strong interaction between *seq* and *syl* and showed no significant difference for GO vs. NOGO trials. It is likely, therefore, that this region is involved in representation of the speech plan at some level. We hypothesize that it may be a substrate for the integration of lower-level aspects of the speech motor plan with more abstract representations of speech sounds used in sequence planning. In addition to providing the proper speech units to the motor apparatus at appropriate times, a system for organizing fluent speech must also integrate affective and linguistic prosody, for example. The anterior insula is well connected with the medial premotor areas and the temporal and parietal lobes, and gives projections to the frontal operculum as well as the prefrontal cortex (Augustine, 1996; Flynn et al., 1999). It is therefore in a position to provide contextual information to the *speech sound map* allowing flexible production of learned motor programs. This notion is similar to one discussed by Van der Merwe (1997) who likened motor programs to computer sub-routines, which can be supplied with parameters by other parts of the speech / language system. Alternatively, this region may be a portion of the speech sound map itself.

Temporal and parietal areas

The observed temporal lobe activity can be primarily attributed to subjects hearing their own voices while speaking. Compared with the baseline, the overt speaking (GO) conditions conjointly activated bilateral areas along the supra-temporal plane, including Heschl's gyrus and planum temporale, as well as the posterior superior temporal gyrus. Each of these areas also was significantly more active for GO trials than for NOGO trials, and none showed effects for the other factors.

A region in the parietal lobe along the intraparietal sulcus near the junction with the postcentral sulcus responded to additional complexity, demonstrating effects for *seq* and *syl*, and a *seq* × *syl* interaction. These effects were significantly stronger in the left hemisphere. This area was not a part of the minimal network required for performance of any of the sequence types (see Figure 2), but did become active (compared to the baseline condition) for complex sequences (Table 1). No significant differences were found between GO and NOGO trials. The intraparietal sulcus divides the superior parietal lobule (BA 7) and the supramarginal gyrus (BA 40). The latter area has been associated with the “phonological store” portion of Baddeley's (1986) phonological loop model (Paulesu et al., 1993; Awh et al., 1996; Jonides et al., 1998); in Baddeley's model this module contains phonological representations which can be temporarily activated by incoming verbal information. Henson et al. (2000) found activity in BA 7 and BA 40 (near the focus of activation in this study) when comparing a delayed matching task involving letters to one involving non-verbal symbols. They suggest that these areas participate in phonological recoding of visually presented verbal materials. Crottaz-Herbette et al. (2004) found nearby areas along the left intraparietal sulcus to be more active in a verbal working memory task when stimuli were presented visually than when they were presented auditorily.

These results suggest that the activation of primarily left hemisphere parietal areas in this study is likely related to the translation of the orthographic display of the stimuli into manipulable phonological codes used in speech planning. Because stimuli of increasing complexity at both the syllable and sequence level would presumably require further encoding, the complexity effects in these areas are naturally accounted for. The absence of a main effect for *go* indicates that this activity is not significantly augmented during production. This makes sense if the activation is due to orthographic to phonological translation, which can be performed immediately upon stimulus presentation in both GO and NOGO trials.

Medial premotor areas

The role of the SMA in speech production has been studied since stimulation experiments in patients by Penfield and colleagues elicited speech arrest or prolongation of vowel sounds (Penfield and Welch, 1951; Penfield and Roberts, 1959). Many studies have shown that the me-

dial aspect of Brodmann's Area 6 comprises at least two sub-regions that can be distinguished on the basis of cytoarchitecture, connectivity, and function: the pre-SMA located rostral to the vertical line passing through the anterior commissure (VCA line), and the SMA-proper located caudally (Picard and Strick, 1996). Additional motor-related zones also lie in the anterior portions of the cingulate sulcus (BA32) and have been associated with complex movements (Picard and Strick, 1996). Although most lesion and brain imaging studies have failed to delineate these regions, Tanji and colleagues have collected a wealth of data in monkeys that suggest that the SMA and pre-SMA are both crucially involved in the representation of movement sequences, with the pre-SMA likely serving a higher-order role than the SMA (Matsuzaka et al., 1992; Tanji and Shima, 1994; Shima et al., 1996; Shima and Tanji, 1998, 2000; Tanji, 2001). The two regions have different patterns of connectivity with cortical and subcortical areas in monkeys (Jürgens, 1984; Luppino et al., 1993), and diffusion tensor imaging results verify disparate connections in humans (Johansen-Berg et al., 2004; Lehericy et al., 2004). While the pre-SMA is well-connected with the prefrontal cortices and the anterior striatum, the SMA is more connected with the motor cortex and the posterior striatum. This suggests a role more generally associated with planning for the pre-SMA and with motor performance for the SMA.

Various case studies of speech emission in patients with SMA lesions have been described in the literature (Jonas, 1981, 1987; Ziegler et al., 1997; Pai, 1999). Following a transient period of total mutism, patients generally suffer from a reduced propositional (self-initiated) speech with non-propositional speech (automatic speech; e.g. counting, repeating words) nearly intact. Such a deficit is often termed *transcortical motor aphasia*. Other problems include involuntary vocalizations, repetitions, paraphasias, echolalia, lack of prosodic variation, stuttering-like behavior, and variable speech rate, with only rare occurrences of distorted articulations. Micro-stimulation in humans (Penfield and Welch, 1951; Fried et al., 1991) has yielded vocalization, repetitions of words or syllables, speech arrest, slowing of speech, or hesitancy. Jonas (1987) and Ziegler et al. (1997) arrived at similar conclusions regarding the role of the SMA in speech production, suggesting that it aids in sequencing and initiating speech sounds, but probably not in determining their content. This conclusion is consistent with the *Frame-Content Theory* of speech production (MacNeilage, 1998), which assigns motor control of the “frame” to the medial areas and determination of “content” to the lateral areas. These proposals do not, however, delineate separate roles for the pre-SMA and SMA, despite evidence for distinct roles in sequential motor control.

In this study portions of the SMA, pre-SMA, and cingulate motor areas were activated in all speaking conditions (Figure 2, Table 1). The “SMA-proper” activity was primarily located very near the VCA line (consistent with somatotopic representation of the face; Fried et al. 1991; Picard and Strick 1996). The main effect of go primarily involved the SMA-proper (Figure 3). Consistent with electrophysiological studies, we hypothesize that this portion of the medial wall is responsible, in part, for properly-timed *initiation* of an overt production. This may occur through known projections to the motor cortex, basal ganglia, or anterior insula/frontal opercular regions (Jürgens, 1984; Luppino et al., 1993). In region-level analyses, the SMA only showed a main ef-

fect for *go* and not for *seq* or *syl*. This further supports the proposal that the SMA-proper is related more to initiation of speech production than to planning.

The pre-SMA showed an effect for *go*, but also showed strong effects for *seq* and *syl* as well as an interaction between the two factors. Shima and Tanji (2000) showed that the pre-SMA contains cells that code for an entire sequence to be produced. If the separation of syllabic frames and phonemic content (e.g. MacNeilage, 1998; Shattuck-Hufnagel, 1983) is realized in the brain, then a possible role for the anterior pre-SMA is to represent syllable or word-sized frames, and to coordinate serial position / timing signals with the motor apparatus via the SMA. The pre-SMA was one of a small set of regions (relative to those showing effects of *seq*) that demonstrated a main effect of *syl*; this indicates that it was more active when the structure of individual syllables in the speech plan was complex regardless of the complexity of the overall sequence. This would be expected if complex syllable frames necessitate larger representations than simple frames. These results are also consistent with the suggestion of Krainik et al. (2003), that there is a “rostrocaudal shift,” whereby the SMA is associated with vocal sound production and the pre-SMA with “complex verbal demands.”

Cerebellum

Across all stimulus types, overt production of speech sequences activated the superior cerebellar hemispheres (Lobule VI, Crus I) bilaterally, and the right inferior cerebellar cortex (Lobule VIII). Speech deficits due to cerebellar stroke usually occur with damage to the superior cerebellar artery (Ackermann et al., 1992). This type of infarct can lead to ataxic dysarthria, a motor disorder characterized by inaccurate articulation, prosodic excess, and phonatory-prosodic insufficiency (Darley et al., 1975). Cerebellar damage also results in increased duration of sentences, words, syllables, and phonemes (Kent et al., 1997; Ackermann and Hertrich, 1994). It is also implicated in the control of motor sequences (Inhoff et al., 1989), possibly in translating a discrete programmed sequence into fluent motor action (Braitenberg et al., 1997; Ackermann et al., 2004). Damage to the cerebellum may additionally lead to deficits in short-term verbal rehearsal and planning for speech production (Silveri et al., 1998).

Portions of superior Lobule VI were more active bilaterally during production than during preparation (Figure 3). Grodd et al. (2001) localized activation during lip pursing and vertical tongue movements to nearby parts of lobule VI. Activation in right inferior Lobule VIII was also significantly greater at the voxel-level but not at the combined voxel-cluster level. We believe that the superior regions are particularly involved in ongoing control of the articulators through crossed thalamo-cortical projections to the motor cortex and/or direct connections with the periphery. This is consistent with the notion that superior cerebellar artery stroke causes dysarthria. Additional syllable complexity caused greater activity in the right superior cerebellar cortex (Lobule VI; see Figure 5), posterior to the differences observed for the main effect of *go*. Riecker et al. (2000b) also

found activation of right hemisphere Lobule VI for repetitions of the syllable “stra” but not for “ta,” suggesting that articulation of consonant clusters engages this region. Wildgruber et al. (2001) also suggested a special role for this cerebellar region for speaking in “time-critical conditions.” The cerebellum is implicated in adaptively timed motor responses (e.g. Perrett et al., 1993); we believe that adaptive timing mechanisms centered in the superior cerebellum are used for feedforward control and anticipatory coarticulation in speech production (e.g. Guenther et al., 2006). We can not rule out the possibility that superior cerebellar activations were related to auditory perception of one’s own voice; similar areas have been reported to be related to speech and auditory perception (Callan et al., 2004; Petacchi et al., 2005).

Both the superior and inferior cerebellum showed responses related to *seq* (Figure 4). The inferior focus was right-lateralized, did not show a main effect for *syl*, and did not show a *seq* × *syl* interaction effect. The superior portions, also moderately right-lateralized, extended more laterally than the focus related to syllable complexity, which corresponds to the general notion that more lateral portions of the cerebellum are involved in higher-order processes compared to more medial regions (e.g. Leiner et al., 1993). In the right hemisphere, lateral superior regions also showed a *seq* × *syl* interaction. The right hemisphere cerebellar bias paralleled the left hemisphere fronto-cortical bias observed for sequence complexity (Figure 4). Both the superior lateral and inferior cerebellar regions demonstrating complexity effects are in close proximity to regions studied by Desmond and colleagues (Desmond et al., 1997; Chen and Desmond, 2005; Kirschen et al., 2005). Desmond et al. (1997) showed that both a superior lateral portion (corresponding to Lobule VI/Crus I as in the present study), and an inferior portion of the cerebellum (right lateralized Lobule VIIB, just lateral to our observations) showed load-dependent activations in a working memory task, but only the superior portions showed load-dependent effects in a motoric rehearsal task that lacked working memory storage requirements. Chen and Desmond (2005) extended these results to suggest that Lobule VI/Crus I works in concert with frontal regions for mental rehearsal, and that Lobule VIIB works in concert with the parietal lobe (BA40) as a phonological memory store. This division of labor is reasonable in the context of our current experiment which involved a phonological storage component that might engage the same network that Chen and Desmond (2005) suggest. We did not observe any syllable complexity effects or interactions in the inferior region, which may indicate that this system works with abstract chunks without regard for their complexity.

Basal ganglia and thalamus

Frontal cortical areas form the input to multiple cortico-striato-thalamo-cortical loops (Alexander et al., 1986; Alexander and Crutcher, 1990; Middleton and Strick, 2000). It has been proposed that the architecture of the basal ganglia make these loops suitable for selectively enabling one output from a set of competing alternatives (Mink and Thach, 1993; Mink, 1996; Kropotov and Etlinger,

1999; Brown et al., 2004). During action sequence performance the selection of a single component movement (or syllable) from a parallel sequence plan requires this type of mechanism. Pickett et al. (1998) reported the case of a woman with bilateral damage to the putamen and head of the caudate nucleus. She suffered from an articulatory sequencing deficit, with a particular inability to rapidly switch from one articulatory target to the next, consistent with a basal ganglia role for selecting movements in a sequence.

In the present study overt production increased activation of the putamen bilaterally. This coincided with additional motor cortical activation and likely represents a portion of the motor executive loop. Additional sequence complexity led to an increased activation in the anterior thalamus and/or the caudate nucleus. These areas also showed a *seq* × *syl* interaction, indicating that the phonological makeup of the items in the sequence modulated this additional activation. The anterior thalamus, however, showed no main effect of *syl*, suggesting that it was not the complexity of individual items that engaged this region, but rather the complexity of the overall speech plan. Crosson (1992) previously made note of the similarities between electrical stimulation effects in the caudate nucleus and anterior thalamic nuclei. Schaltenbrand (1975) reported that stimulation of the anterior nuclei of the thalamus sometimes caused compulsory speech that could not be inhibited. Stimulation of the dominant head of the caudate has also evoked word production (Van Buren, 1963), and Crosson (1992) describes the similarities in the language evoked from stimulation of the two areas as “striking.” This suggests that the areas serve similar functions, and that they are involved in the release of a speech / language plan. A comparison of the effects of *seq* for each syllable type (available in online supplementary materials) indicated a possible different focus of activation based on syllable type that warrants further study.

Conclusions

Our basic hypothesis was that both added *sequence complexity* and *syllable complexity* would further engage the speech production system and recruit areas beyond the primary sensorimotor cortices known to be involved in non-speech motor sequencing. The results confirmed this hypothesis, showing areas of the left hemisphere including the inferior frontal sulcus and the posterior parietal cortex, as well as bilateral regions in the anterior insula and frontal operculum, the basal ganglia, thalamus, and cerebellum to be further engaged by additional stimulus complexity. A strong interaction was found between the two types of complexity studied, and the areas showing this interaction largely overlapped with areas showing a main effect of *seq*. This suggested that sub-syllabic information was important in many areas involved with representing a forthcoming speech sequence. A much more limited set of areas showed the main effect of *syl*; these areas are hypothesized to be especially concerned with the structural complexity of individual syllables in the sequence. This study provides a wealth of data regarding sequential organization in speech production, though further experiments are necessary to test functional hypotheses and guide con-

struction of a more comprehensive model of speech production.

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