

Shared premotor activity in spoken and written communication

Marieke Longcamp, Jean-Michel Hupé, Mathieu J. Ruiz, Nathalie Vayssière, Marc Sato

▶ To cite this version:

Marieke Longcamp, Jean-Michel Hupé, Mathieu J. Ruiz, Nathalie Vayssière, Marc Sato. Shared premotor activity in spoken and written communication. Brain and Language, 2019, 199, pp.104694. 10.1016/j.bandl.2019.104694. hal-02382269

HAL Id: hal-02382269

https://hal.science/hal-02382269

Submitted on 28 Nov 2019

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

SHARED PREMOTOR ACTIVITY IN SPOKEN AND WRITTEN COMMUNICATION

Marieke Longcamp^{1,CA}, Jean-Michel Hupé², Mathieu Ruiz², Nathalie Vayssière^{2,3}, Marc Sato⁴

- 1- CNRS, Aix Marseille Univ, LNC, Marseille, France
- 2- CNRS, Université de Toulouse Paul Sabatier, CerCo, Toulouse, France
- 3- Toulouse Mind and Brain Institute, France
- 4- CNRS, Aix-Marseille Univ, LPL, Aix-en-Provence, France

 $^{^{\}mathsf{CA}}$ Correspondence can be addressed to Marieke Longcamp at marieke.longcamp@univ-amu.fr.

ABSTRACT

The aim of the present study was to uncover a possible common neural organizing principle in spoken and written communication, through the coupling of perceptual and motor representations. In order to identify possible shared neural substrates for processing the basic units of spoken and written language, a sparse sampling fMRI acquisition protocol was performed on the same subjects in two experimental sessions with similar sets of letters being read and written and of phonemes being heard and orally produced. We found evidence of common premotor regions activated in spoken and written language, both in perception and in production. The location of those brain regions was confined to the left lateral and medial frontal cortices, at locations corresponding to the premotor cortex, inferior frontal cortex and supplementary motor area. Interestingly, the speaking and writing tasks also appeared to be controlled by largely overlapping networks, possibly indicating some domain general cognitive processing. Finally, the spatial distribution of individual activation peaks further showed more dorsal and more left-lateralized premotor activations in written than in spoken language.

Keywords: writing, reading, speech perception, speech production, perceptual-motor coupling, ventral premotor cortex, letters, phonemes.

INTRODUCTION

Spoken language is one of the defining characteristics of humans that spontaneously develops without formal teaching in the first years of life. Its neural organization is the product of millenaries of evolution, with premises of its sensorimotor organization investigated in non-human primates (Aboitiz and Garcia, 1997; MacNeilage, 1998; Jürgens, 2002; Scott and Johnsrude, 2003; Rauscheker and Scott, 2009; Aboitiz, 2012; Rilling, 2014). Through dedicated pathways, this specialized neural machinery is exquisitely tuned to allow discrimination and categorization of highly complex sounds, and production of those same sounds through precise coordination of the speech articulators, leading to nearly perfectly accurate perceptual and motor skills (Hickok and Poeppel, 2000; Scott and Johnsrude, 2003; Hickok and Poeppel, 2004; Guenther, 2006; Hickok and Poeppel, 2007; Skipper et al., 2007; Rauschecker and Scott, 2009; Hickok, Houde and Rong, 2011; Houde and Nagarajan, 2011; Tourville and Guenther, 2011; Guenther and Vladusich, 2012; Rauschecker, 2011). Neurobiological models argue that speech motor control and auditory speech processing partly operate through a cortical dorsal stream that mediates a mapping between auditory, somatosensory and articulatory-motor speech representations. During speech production, modulation of neural responses observed within the auditory and somatosensory cortices are thought to reflect feedback control mechanisms in which sensory consequences of the speech-motor act are evaluated with actual sensory inputs in order to evaluate accurate production (Guenther, 2006; Hickok, Houde and Rong, 2011; Houde and Nagarajan, 2011; Tourville and Guenther, 2011; Guenther and Vladusich, 2012). Conversely, motor activity observed during speech perception has been proposed to partly constrain phonetic interpretation of the sensory inputs through the internal generation of candidate articulatory categorizations (Hickok and Poeppel, 2000; Scott and Johnsrude, 2003; Hickok and Poeppel, 2004; Hickok and Poeppel, 2007; Skipper et al., 2007; Rauschecker and Scott, 2009; Rauschecker, 2011).

Contrary to spoken language, mastering written language requires several years of intense training, and is thought to induce plasticity in brain regions and brain networks initially devoted to other functions (Dehaene and Cohen, 2007; Dehane et al., 2010). Processing graphemes for reading or writing is well known to engage a hierarchy of occipital and ventral temporal brain regions that code increasingly complex visual features. Ultimately, some regions acquire a certain degree of functional specificity to basic units of written language (Jobard, Crivello and Tzourio-Mazoyer, 2003; Planton et al., 2013). This is the case of the highly investigated fusiform gyrus (also called ventral occipito-temporal area), identified in word-reading tasks (Cohen et al., 2000), in single letters perception (Polk et al., 2002) and in writing (Dufor and Rapp, 2013). For some researchers, this region hosts "abstract letter identities", that is amodal representations of single letters that can be mobilized in various contexts (Rothlein and Rapp, 2014). In the motor system as well, both neuropsychological descriptions

of brain damaged patients, brain imaging studies and meta analyses, support the view that the functioning of restricted regions of the left dorsal premotor and left superior parietal cortex, whose localization is remarkably similar across studies, is mandatory for the production of graphemes through handwriting (Planton, Jucla, Roux, and Démonet, 2013)).

Although spoken and written languages engage very different perceptual and motor processes, several lines of evidence however suggest that they are partly intertwined. Letters are not only visual objects or writing movements: they are also strongly associated to sounds, especially through their names. Letters name is considered a component of the neural representation of letters (Rothlein and Rapp, 2014). Behaviorally, phonological information can efficiently prime letter recognition (Arguin and Bub, 1995; Bowers, Vigliocco and Haan, 1998; Ziegler et al., 2000) and modulate the brain's response to visually presented letters (Dietz et al., 2005; Xue et al., 2006; Madec et al., 2016). Reciprocally, when contrasting literate with illiterate adults, literacy was found to modulate activity in the planum temporale in response to spoken inputs (Dehaene et al., 2010), and more generally, in the networks involved in speech processing (Castro-Caldas et al., 1998).

Based on these studies, the working hypothesis of the present functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) study relies on the theoretical proposal that written and spoken modalities are partly intertwined. In order to identify possible shared neural substrates for processing the basic units of spoken and written language, , a sparse sampling fMRI acquisition protocol was performed on the same group of literate adults, in two experimental sessions with similar sets of letters being read and written and of phonemes being heard and orally produced. Importantly, the two sessions were organized exactly in the same way, with the same experimental design, similar items (the phonemes /p/, /b/, /t/, and /d/ in the listening and speaking tasks, and the letters p, b, t and d in the reading and writing tasks) and the same imaging parameters (sparse sampling). Compared to the baseline, the average BOLD activity in the listening, speaking, reading and writing tasks was first calculated. Several conjunction analyses were then performed on these contrasts in order to determine common neural activity across tasks (listening∩speaking, reading∩writing, listening∩reading, speaking∩writing, listening∩speaking∩reading∩writing). Interestingly, previous studies provided evidence for auditory activity during reading (Jancke and Shah, 2004; van Atteveldt, Roebroeck and Goebel, 2009; Perrone-Bertolotti et al., 2012). Regions of interest (ROIs) analyses were carried out in order to further determine possible cross-modal activity in primary and associative auditory and visual brain areas (i.e., auditory activity for written language and visual activity for spoken language).

In this framework, one strong hypothesis is that of a possible common organizing principle for processing units of written and spoken language, through the coupling of perceptual and motor

representations during perception. In both cases, this organizing principle emerges spontaneously in the course of learning. When learning speech sounds, a perceptuo-motor coupling sets up in human infants, based on a combination of auditory and somatosensory information with motor commands, through babbling and imitation (Tourville and Guenther, 2011; Guenther and Vladusich, 2012; Schwartz et al., 2012). In written language, repeated writing of the individual letters is assumed to stabilize the visuospatial representations of single letters (Longcamp, Zerbato-Poudou and Velay, 2005a) and to provide the child with variable instances that subsequently help assigning a given identity to an encountered shape with more flexibility (Li and James, 2016; James 2010). Based on these early perceptuo-motor associations, sensorimotor interactions are also thought to play a key role in adults. A On the one hand, a matching between motor and sensory representations is indirectly supported by an impressive number of neurophysiological studies showing activity in the motor system during both speech perception and visual processing of single letters (e.g., Fadiga et al., 2002; Longcamp et al., 2003; Watkins, Strafella and Paus, 2003; Papathanasiou et al., 2004; Wilson et al., 2004; James and Gauthier, 2006; Pulvermüller et al., 2006; Skipper et al., 2007; Tremblay and Small, 2011; Nakamura et al., 2012; Nakatsuka et al., 2012; Schomers et al., 2015; for reviews, see Longcamp, Hlushchuk and Hari, 2011; Skipper, Devlin and Lametti, 2017). On the other hand, several lines of evidence suggest that motor reactivation during perception is not an epiphenomenon, or ancillary to understanding (Hickok and Poeppel, 2007), but has a functional relevance. In speech, this is attested by the findings that activation of motor and premotor cortices during speech perception is stronger when the speech signal is noisy (Osnes, Hugdahl and Specht, 2011; Du et al., 2014), that sensorimotor activity within the cortical dorsal stream correlates with auditory phonemic categorization (Alho et al., 2012; Chevillet et al., 2013; Alho et al., 2014), and by transcranial magnetic stimulation (TMS) studies showing that premotor regions partly mediate phonemic discrimination in noise (Meister et al., 2007; d'Ausilio et al., 2009) and speech segmentation under normal listening conditions (Sato et al., 2009; Möttönen and Watkins, 2012; Murakami et al., 2015). In written language, this is attested by neuropsychological (Anderson et al., 1990), behavioral (James and Gauthier, 2009) and TMS (Pattamadilok et al., 2016) studies showing that reading is disturbed when cortical motor regions are made unavailable. Based on this body of research, and in addition to identifying the shared neural substrates of written and spoken language, the present study also aimed at comparing the coupling of perceptual and motor representations in spoken versus written language. Since previous studies suggested a dorsal vs. ventral distribution of precentral activity during writing and speaking (e.g., Longcamp et al., 2014; Grabski et al., 2012a), the spatial distribution of individual activation peaks common between perception and production in motor regions was determined to compare the extent and position of motor brain activation shared between perception and production of the units of spoken versus written language, while qualitatively accounting for possible inter-individual variability.

METHODS

Participants

Twenty-six healthy, literate adults (14 females and 12 males, with a mean age of 26 years (±4 SD), ranging from 18 to 34 years) participated in the study after giving their informed consent. All participants were recruited via e-mails sent to Toulouse University. They were right-handed according to standard handedness inventory (Oldfield, 1971; mean score of 95/100), were native French speakers, except one French participant who was native Arabic speaker but Arabic-French bilingual and perfectly fluent in French (three other participants also declared they were French-English or French-Spanish bilinguals), with a mean age of education of 15 (±2 SD) years from the elementary school. They all had normal or corrected-to-normal vision and no self-reported history of auditory, motor, speaking, hearing, reading, writing and language disorders. Participants were screened for medical problems and contraindications to MRI, and they were compensated for the time spent in the study. The protocol was approved by the Ethical Committee of Toulouse (ID RCB: 2013-A01740-45) and was carried out in accordance with the ethical standards of the 1964 Declaration of Helsinki. Data sets from three participants were excluded from the analyses, one because of technical problems during MRI acquisition, and the two others because of problems in the experimental procedure. Overall, data sets from 23 participants were therefore analyzed in the whole-brain group and motor clustering analyses. In the ROI analysis, one subject was removed because of missing activity according to our ROI criteria (see below).

Stimuli

In order to investigate and to compare the functional neuroanatomy of listening, speaking, reading and writing, the four p, b, t and d consonants in the reading and writing tasks and corresponding syllables in the listening and speaking tasks were selected. The stimuli were selected in order to provide a gradient of phonological parameters, they differed according to their place of articulation (labial vs. coronal) and/or voicing (voiced vs. unvoiced). Note that in addition to representing the names of the corresponding letters, all four syllables (and the corresponding letters) had meaning in French depending on northern/southern accent (/be/: "baie"/"bay", /de/: "dé"/"dice", /pe/: "pet"/"fart", /te/: "thé"/"tea"). However, given the instructions, the tasks and the limited set of stimuli, the impact of possible lexical processes were minimal. As for the distinction between letters and syllables, consonants in French cannot be produced outside a monosyllabic context (e.g., the letter /t/ is produced /te/).

Acoustic stimuli. Multiple utterances of /pe/, /be/, /te/, /de/ syllables, pronounced in French as p, b, t, d consonants, were individually recorded by six native French speakers in a soundproof room (three

female and males speakers; sampling rate of 44.1 kHz with 16-bit quantization recording). None of the speakers participated in the fMRI study. Five clearly articulated tokens were edited and selected per syllable and per speaker. Using Praat software (Boersma and Weenink, 2013), each syllable was manually cut, at zero crossing points, from the consonantal onset for unvoiced /pe/ and /te/ syllables or from the voicing onset for voiced /be/ and /de/ syllables to the vocalic offset. With this procedure, one hundred-twenty distinct syllables were therefore selected for the listening and speaking tasks, with the stimuli matched for global acoustic duration (mean value \pm SD: 237ms \pm 6) and normalized for intensity (mean value \pm SD: 79dB \pm 0).

Visual stimuli. Multiple occurrences of p, b, t, d consonant letters were individually produced by three native French writers with a thin black felt pen on smooth white cardstock, at a size approximately 3 to 4 times the normal writing size. None of the writers participated in the fMRI study. The cardstock was then scanned, providing high definition images from which five representative exemplars of each letter were chosen, extracted and processed using an image manipulation software. In addition, three word processing fonts with or without serif were chosen. Letters p, b, t, d were isolated for each font and manipulated (slightly tilted, shrinked or size of up- or downstrokes modified) in order to create five distinct exemplars of each. The resulting letters were processed the same way as the handwritten letters, and the same gray level was applied to the strokes. With this procedure, one hundred-twenty distinct consonant letters images (5 exemplars x 4 letters x 6 fonts) in grayscale were therefore selected for the reading and writing tasks (see Figure S1 in Supplemental Data for examples).

Procedure

Each participant performed two distinct fMRI sessions, done with the same acquisition parameters, and related to either one listening and one speaking tasks, or to one reading and one writing tasks (see Figure 1). One important aspect of the present study is that consonants were presented or produced in isolation in a single trial during a silent interval between subsequent volume scans (see Data Acquisition). This sparse sampling procedure minimized the effects of scanner noise during speech perception and production as well as movement artifacts due to speech production. Each scanning session lasted approximately one hour and their order was counterbalanced across participants.

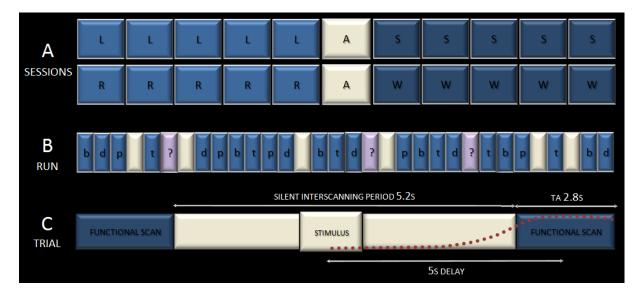


Figure 1. Experimental design. A) All participants performed two distinct one-hour sparse sampling scanning sessions, done with the same acquisition parameters, and related to either one listening (L) and one speaking (S) tasks or to one reading (R) and one writing (W) tasks. Each scanning session consisted of ten runs, each lasting approximately five minutes, and one anatomical scan (A). B) Each run consisted of twenty-four trials in which participants were asked to listen to, speak, read or write either p, b, t or d consonant and six baseline trials. In addition, three catch trials were added in the listening and speaking tasks. C) For each trial, the time interval between the perceived or produced consonant and the midpoint of the following functional scan acquisition was of 5s (the predicted hemodynamic response function is indicated in red; TA: Time of Acquisition).

The listening-speaking fMRI session consisted of ten functional runs and one anatomical scan. The sequence of stimuli was the same in the listening and speaking tasks, except that three catch trials were added pseudorandomly to the listening task in order to ensure a constant degree of attention (see below). In both tasks, the trials (the same consonant never occurring twice in succession), were pseudorandomly presented in each run. Participants were asked to keep their eyes open in all functional runs. A fixation cross was displayed at the middle of the screen in all trials. To minimize possible covert motor simulation, the listening task was performed in the first five functional runs. Each of these runs consisted of thirty-three trials and each trial was 8s in length. In twenty-four trials, participants were asked to passively listen to p, b, t or d consonant. In the catch trials, the symbol "?" replaced the fixation cross, and participants listened to a single consonant and had to manually decide with their left hand if it was identical or not to the consonant presented in the previous trial (one-back task). Finally, a baseline condition, without any movement or sensory stimulation, occurred in six trials. Participant's left manual responses in the catch trials were recorded through a two-button fiber-optic button response pad (2*2 Forp button). After an anatomical scan, the five last runs involved the speaking task, using exactly the same acquisition parameters. The experimental procedure and sequence was the same, except that participants had to repeat the perceived consonant. Each of these runs consisted of thirty trials and each trial was 8s in length. In twenty-four trials, participants were asked to overtly produce p, b, t, or d consonant, with an auditory target indicating the consonant to be produced. As in the listening task, a baseline condition, without any movement or auditory stimulation, was also added. In the listening-speaking fMRI session, participants wore MRI-compatible headphones with noise-reducing passive material through which auditory stimuli were delivered (MR-Confon audio system, www.mr-confon.de) and their speech productions were monitored using an MRI-compatible microphone (CONFON Dual-Channel-MIC-DCHS 02, MR Confon, Magdeburg, Germany).

The reading-writing fMRI session also consisted of ten functional runs and one anatomical scan. Except the visual nature of stimuli, in the reading task and the writing tasks, the experimental procedure and acquisition parameters were exactly identical to those used in the listening-reading fMRI session. Each visual stimulus was displayed on the center of the screen for 1000 ms on a black background. In the writing task, the response was monitored using an MRI compatible graphic tablet (Digitizing tablet DT01, Mag Design and Engineering, California, USA). Participants wrote with their dominant right hand with their elbow resting on a cushion. They were instructed to use their wrist and fingers to produce the single letters, to start writing once they had identified the letter, and to rest their hand on the edge of the tablet between trials. The onset and offset of the pen-tip were recorded for each trial.

From the above-mentioned procedure, it is worthwhile noting that the overt speaking task induced auditory feedback, while no visual feedback of their writing trace was available because the digitizer had a correct temporal but a low spatial accuracy. Also note that the speaking and writing tasks included a perceptual stage related to the acoustic or visual target presentation.

Altogether, each fMRI session therefore consisted of 315 functional scans (perception task: 5 runs x (((4 stimuli + 1 baseline) x 6 trials) + 3 catch trials); production task: 5 runs x ((4 stimuli + 1 baseline) x 6 trials). In addition, three 'dummy' scans at the beginning of each run were added to allow for equilibration of the MRI signal and were removed from the analyses.

MRI Data Acquisition

Magnetic resonance images were acquired with a 3T whole-body MR scanner (Philips Achieva, UMR 1214 ToNIC, INSERM, Toulouse). Participants were laid in the scanner with head movements minimized with a SENS-head 32 channel and foam cushions. The display of the visual and auditory stimuli, and the recordings of the button presses in the catch trials and of the pen tip onset and offset in the writing task were controlled using Presentation software (Neurobehavioral Systems, Albany, USA). Visual instructions and visual stimuli were and displayed on a screen situated behind the scanner via a mirror placed above the subject's eyes.

In both sessions, functional images were obtained using a T2*-weighted, echo-planar imaging (EPI) sequence with whole-brain coverage (TR = 8s, acquisition time = 2.8s, TE = 30ms, flip angle = 90°). Each functional scan comprised fifty-three axial slices parallel to the anteroposterior commissural plane acquired in non-interleaved order (80 x 80 matrix; field of view: 240 mm; $3x3mm^2$ in plane resolution with a slice thickness of 3mm without gap). A high-resolution T1-weighted whole-brain structural image was acquired for each participant after the last functional run (sagittal volume of $256x256x170mm^3$ with a 1 mm isotropic resolution, inversion delay: 900ms, sense 2.2, slices 170, TR/TE = 8.3/3.8 in ms, flip angle =8).

In the listening-speaking session, a sparse sampling acquisition paradigm was used in order to avoid movement artifacts due to speech and writing production and to minimize scanner noise during both speech perception and production (e.g., Birn et al., 1999; Hall et al., 1999; Gracco, Tremblay and Pike, 2005). Functional scanning therefore occurred only during a fraction of the TR, alternating with silent interscanning periods, where participants listened to or produced a single consonant. Since the rising hemodynamic response is estimated to occur with a 4-6s delay in case of speech perception and production (Grabski et al., 2012a, 2012b, 2013), the time interval between the acoustic consonantal onset and the midpoint of the following functional scan acquisition was set at 5s. In order to compare the four tasks, the same acquisition parameters were used in the reading-writing fMRI session, with the time interval between the visual consonant letter and the midpoint of the following functional scan acquisition being of 5s.

Data Analyses

Data were analyzed using the SPM8 software package (Wellcome Department of Imaging Neuroscience, Institute of Neurology, London, UK) running on Matlab (Mathworks, Natick, MA, USA). Activated brain regions were first labeled using the probabilistic cytoarchitectonic atlas Anatomy toolbox (Eickhoff et al., 2005) and, if a brain region was not assigned or not specified in the Anatomy toolbox, using the Talairach Daemon software (Lancaster et al., 2000). For tables, the maximum activation peak provided by the Anatomy toolbox within each distinct anatomical region of each cluster of activity was reported (note that the maximum number of peaks per cluster provided by Anatomy and SPM is thirteen; in case of very large clusters, brain regions not reported are described in the text). For visualization, activation maps were superimposed on a standard brain template using the MRICRON software (http://www.sph.sc.edu/comd/rorden/ mricron/).

Behavioral scores. Participant responses in catch trials in the listening and reading tasks were analyzed offline. Mean percentage of correct responses was of 91% (\pm 2%) in the listening task and of 95% (\pm 2%) in the reading task.

Acoustic recordings. All vocal responses in the speaking task were analyzed using Praat software (Boersma and Weenink, 2013). A semi-automatic procedure was first devised for segmenting participants' recorded syllables. For each participant, the procedure involved the segmentation of each syllable based on an intensity and duration algorithm detection. Based on minimal duration and low intensity energy parameters, the algorithm automatically identified pauses between each syllable and set the syllable's boundaries on that basis. All boundaries were then hand-corrected, based on waveform and spectrogram information. Wrong productions were then identified with on average 93% of correct productions (±5% SD). Because of technical problems during acoustic recordings, one male participant was removed from this analysis.

Digitizer recordings. The onset and offset of the pen tip were analyzed for each trial. The data from 3 participants could not be recorded accurately. The data for the remaining 20 participants indicated that participants gave a response in the vast majority of the trials (23 non-responses out of the 2400 trials analyzed). The timing of the response was in a normal range for all participants (mean response time = 0.998; sd = 0.16 s and mean response duration = 1.198; sd = 0.368).

Data preprocessing. In each fMRI session, data pre-processing steps for each participant included rigid realignment of functional images within each run and on a trial-by-trial basis by estimating the six movement parameters of a rigid-body transformation, coregistration of the structural image to the mean functional image, segmentation and normalization of the structural image to common subject space using the group-wise DARTEL registration method implemented in SPM8, warping of all realigned functional images using deformation flow fields generated from the normalization step, transformation into the MNI space and spatial smoothing using a 8 mm full-width at half maximum Gaussian kernel.

Individual analyses. For each fMRI session and each participant, BOLD activity was analyzed using the General Linear Model, including for each run four regressors of interest (one for each consonant), as well as one regressor of no interest related to the catch trials and the six realignment parameters as nuisance regressors in order to control for head movements, with the baseline trials forming an implicit baseline. The BOLD response for each event was modeled using a single-bin finite impulse response (FIR) basis function spanning the time of acquisition (2.8s). Before estimation, a high-pass filtering with a cutoff period of 128 s was applied. Beta weights associated with the modeled FIR responses were then computed to fit the observed BOLD signal time course in each voxel for each condition. Individual statistical maps were calculated for each condition with the related baseline and subsequently used for group statistics.

Whole-Brain group analyses. In order to draw population-based inferences, a second-level random effect group analysis was carried-out. A full factorial design was used, with the language type (2 levels:

oral, written), the language mode (2 levels: perception, production) and the stimulus (4 levels: p, b, t, d) as within-subject factors and the subjects treated as a random factor (Glascher and Gitelman, 2008). First, given the 2x2x4 factorial design (language type x language mode x stimulus), BOLD activity changes for each experimental factor was calculated independently of the others: i.e., possible activity changes between the listening and speaking tasks compared to the reading and writing tasks (main effect of language type, bidirectional F-contrast), in the listening and reading tasks compared to the speaking and writing tasks (main effect of language mode, bidirectional F-contrast) and between the four stimuli (main effect of stimulus, bidirectional F-contrast). All interactions between the three experimental factors were also computed (language type x language mode, language type x stimulus, language mode x stimulus, language type x language mode x stimulus, bidirectional F-contrasts). For concision, since these results appeared in line with the literature, they are presented in Supplemental Data (see Figure S3 and Table S3). Second, four t-contrasts were calculated to determine the average BOLD activity in the listening, speaking, reading and writing tasks, compared to their respective baseline. Several conjunction analyses were then performed on these contrasts in order to determine common neural activity across tasks (listening ospeaking, reading owriting, listening oreading, speaking∩writing, listening∩speaking∩reading∩writing). In addition, for each task, four t-contrasts were calculated to determine possible differences in BOLD activity between voiced vs. unvoiced stimuli as well as between labial vs. coronal stimuli (See Figure S4 and Table S6 in Supplemental Data for results).

All contrasts were calculated with a Family-Wise-Error (FWE, Worsley et al., 1992) corrected level of p < .05 at the voxel level with a cluster extent of at least 20 voxels. This conservative thresholding procedure was used because the activations in each task were compared to the activation in the baseline. To avoid interpretation biases, we also provide a representation of the results of the conjunctions according to the method used by Allen, Erhardt and Calhoun et al. (2012) in Supplemental Data (see Figure S2).

ROI Analysis – Heteromodal or cross-modal activity in perceptual regions. ROI analyses were carried out in order to further determine whether perceptual brain regions specific to a given language-type (oral, written) induced BOLD changes in the other type (heteromodal or cross-modal activity). To this end, individual ROIs in primary and associative auditory regions were defined on the basis of normalized individual data. For the oral type, we defined ROIs in the left and right primary auditory cortices, and in the left and right planum temporale. For the written type, we defined regions in the primary visual cortex, and in the left and right fusiform gyri. For each participant and each sensory brain area, we determined the maximum activation peak at the closest vicinity of a predefined reference peak. For the auditory mode, the reference peaks were defined as the maximum activation

peaks observed in the group analysis during speech perception in BA41 (Posterior Auditory Cortex, combined cytoarchitectonic maps of areas Te 1.0, Te 1.1 and Te 1.2; see Morosan et al., 2001, Radmacher et al., 2001, coordinates for the group -48 -18 4 and 51 -11 1 resp. for left and right hemispheres) and in BA42 and BA22 (planum temporale, coordinates for the group -64 -20 5 and 66 -13 2 resp. for left and right hemispheres) according to the SPM anatomy toolbox (Eickhoff et al., 2005). For the visual mode, we searched the local maxima at the closest vicinity of the point 0 -90 -10 (calcarine sulcus, primary visual cortex) and in the left and right fusiform gyri. For the fusiform gyri, given the spatial extent of the anatomical region and the fact that visual perception usually leads to several ventral activation clusters, we restricted the search to the local maxima near the coordinates of the visual word form area (as defined by Jobard et al., 2003 at -44 -58 -15) and of the counterpart of this region in the right hemisphere (44 -58 -15). Individual ROIs in each sensory areas were then defined by a 6 mm-radius sphere centered on the selected maximum activation peak". One subject, for whom we were not able to define any ROI in the visual modality (primary visual cortex and fusiform gyri) was discarded from the analysis. The time-series were then extracted and averaged between all voxels within a given ROI for each subject, and converted to both zscore and percent change (after detrending) within each run. Both normalization measures give similar results, with less variation between ROIs with zscore normalization. We show the percent change results because they are easier to interpret. For each subject, we first computed the median of the percentage of BOLD signal across all runs in the absence and in the presence of a stimulus (for the hearing and reading tasks, catch trials were ignored; there was no catch trial in the speaking and writing tasks). Then we computed and displayed the difference of medians for each individual. We also display the group mean and the confidence intervals across subjects (95% CI for the increase due to the presence of a stimulus). Those measures are considered an indication of the reliability of the activation of a given ROI compared to a situation where no stimulus is present: we considered that we observed significant BOLD changes when the CIs did not include zero, because the CIs represent the possible range of the population mean. In that case, we report the range of population mean (effect size) compatible with our data. For visualization purposes, we also displayed the difference of medians for each individual, as they are more reliable measures at the individual level.

Individual spatial analyses of frontal activations - motor clustering. Since inter-subject variability in brain anatomy limits the spatial accuracy of group maps, individual analyses were carried out to qualitatively determine the spatial distribution and organization of common motor activations observed during listening and speaking (listening ospeaking) as well as during as reading and writing (reading owriting). For both left and right hemispheres, four specific search spaces related to the pars triangularis (BA45, IFG-PT) and pars opercularis (BA44, IFG-PO) of the inferior frontal gyrus and to the

premotor (BA6, PMC) and primary motor (BA4, M1, combined cytoarchitectonic maps of areas 4a and 4p) cortices were first created using the Anatomy toolbox (Eickhoff et al., 2005). Note that the pars triangularis of the inferior frontal gyrus is not a motor area but it is classically involved in spoken and written tasks. For each participant, analyses restricted to the search spaces were then performed on individual GLMs using the Anatomy toolbox on the two contrasts 'listening \cap speaking' and 'reading \cap writing', with small volume correction applied on each search space at a threshold of P < 0.001 uncorrected for multiple comparisons with an extend threshold of k \geq 20 voxels. MNI coordinates of the center of gravity (COG) of each cluster of activity within each search space were determined in both hemispheres.

RESULTS

Neural Correlates of Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing (Figure 2 and Table S1)

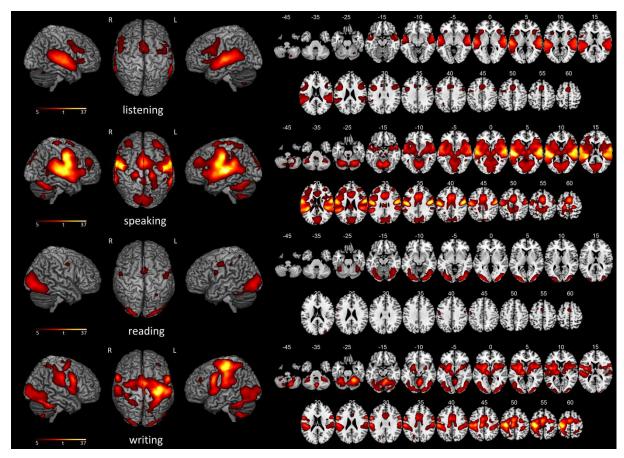


Figure 2. Brain activity in the listening, speaking, reading and writing tasks compared to the baseline (unidirectional t-contrasts, p < .05 FWE corrected at the voxel level, cluster extent threshold of 20 voxels, see Table S1 in Supplemental Data for details).

Listening. Compared to the baseline condition, the listening task induced large bilateral auditory activations, ranging from the primary and secondary auditory cortices in the transverse temporal gyrus (TTG), to the superior part of the temporal gyrus/sulcus (STG/STS) and temporopolar area rostrally, and to the planum temporale in posterior STG/STS and temporo-parietal junction caudally. Auditory activation extended medially to the insular cortex, dorsally to the ventral part of the supramarginal gyrus and parietal operculum, and ventrally to the posterior middle temporal gyrus (MTG). Bilateral frontal activations were also observed in the pars opercularis and pars triangularis of the inferior frontal gyrus (IFG), extending to the adjacent middle frontal gyrus and ventral premotor cortex. Further activity was observed in the supplementary motor area and adjacent middle cingulate cortex, the left intraparietal sulcus and adjacent superior parietal lobule, the cerebellum (lobules VI, VII and VIII) and the thalamus.

Speaking. Compared to the baseline condition, the speaking task induced large bilateral activations of the primary sensorimotor and premotor cortices, the pars opercularis and pars triangularis of IFG, extending rostrally to the adjacent middle frontal gyrus and dorsolateral prefrontal cortex. Large bilateral auditory activations were also observed in TTG, STG/STS and MTG. Additional activity was found in the supplementary motor area, extending to the anterior, middle and posterior cingulate cortices, the inferior and superior parietal lobule, the rolandic and parietal operculum, the thalamus, the anterior insular cortex, the basal ganglia, and the cerebellum (lobules V, VI, VII, VIII, X) extending to ventral regions of the primary and secondary visual cortex.

Reading. Compared to the baseline condition, the reading task induced large bilateral visual activations, ranging from the primary and secondary visual cortices to the fusiform gyrus. Additional clusters of activity were observed in the left ventral premotor cortex, extending to the pars opercularis of the left IFG, a more dorsal region of the ventral premotor cortex and adjacent primary motor cortex, the supplementary motor area, the dorsal part of the left supramarginal gyrus and the left superior parietal lobule.

Writing. Compared to the baseline condition, the writing task induced large bilateral activations of the primary sensorimotor and ventral/dorsal premotor cortices, extending rostrally to the pars opercularis of left IFG and caudally to the supramarginal gyrus, intraparietal sulcus and superior parietal lobule. In accordance with the writing task and right-handedness of the participants, the dorsal premotor and adjacent motor activations appeared predominant in the left hemisphere. Large bilateral visual activations were also observed in primary, secondary and associative visual areas, the fusiform gyrus extending to dorsal parts of the cerebellum (lobules VI). Additional activity was found in the supplementary motor area, extending to the anterior and middle cingulate cortices, the left dorsolateral prefrontal cortex, the rolandic and parietal operculum, the thalamus, the anterior insular cortex, the basal ganglia and the cerebellum (lobules V, VI, VII, VIII).

In sum, activations observed in each individual task appear fully consistent with previous brain-imaging studies, with large auditory activity in the listening and speaking tasks, visual activity in the reading and writing tasks, as well as specific brain areas classically involved in motor preparation, execution and coordination in the speaking and writing tasks.

Conjunctions Analyses (Figures 3, 4 & S2 and Tables 1 & S2¹)

-

¹ In order to provide the readers with a sense of the extent of the effects, and to limit interpretation biases, we also provide a representation of the results of the conjunctions according to the method used by Allen, Erhardt and Calhoun et al. (2012) in Figure S2 in Supplemental Data.

Listening Ospeaking. Overlapping activity in the listening and speaking tasks was observed in the bilateral auditory cortices, ranging from the primary and secondary auditory cortices in the transverse temporal gyrus (TTG), to the superior part of the temporal gyrus/sulcus (STG/STS) and temporopolar area rostrally, and to the planum temporale in posterior STG/STS and temporo-parietal junction caudally. Auditory activation extended medially to the insular cortex, dorsally to the ventral part of the supramarginal gyrus and parietal operculum, and ventrally to the posterior middle temporal gyrus (MTG). Bilateral frontal activations were also observed in the pars opercularis and pars triangularis of the inferior frontal gyrus (IFG), extending to the adjacent middle frontal gyrus and ventral premotor cortex. Further activity was observed in the supplementary motor area and adjacent middle cingulate cortex, the cerebellum (lobules VI, VII and VIII) and the thalamus.

Reading Owriting. Conjunction of the reading and writing task induced large bilateral visual activations, ranging from the primary and secondary visual cortices to the fusiform gyrus. Additional clusters of activity were observed in the left ventral premotor cortex, extending to the pars opercularis of the left IFG, a more dorsal region of the ventral premotor cortex and adjacent primary motor cortex, the supplementary motor area, the dorsal part of the left supramarginal gyrus and the left superior parietal lobule.

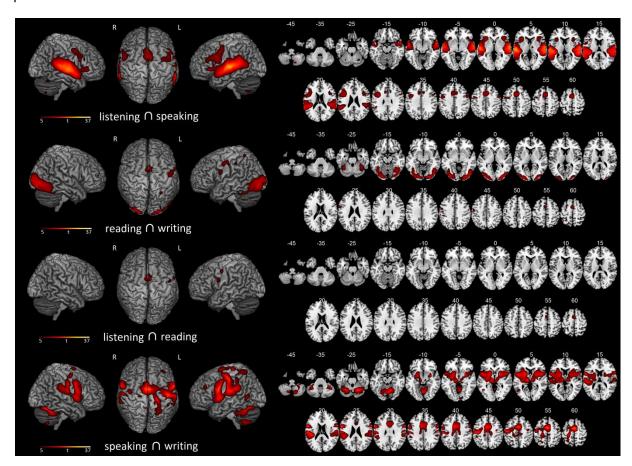


Figure 3. Overlapping brain activity across the listening and speaking tasks, the reading and writing tasks, the listening and reading tasks and the speaking and writing tasks (unidirectional t-contrasts, p < .05 FWE corrected at the voxel level, cluster

extent threshold of 20 voxels (see Table S2 in Supplemental Data for details). Note that on the 3D views from the top, the left of the brain is on the right of the images, while the left of the brain is on the left of the image on the axial sections.

Listening • Reading. Overlapping activity in the listening and reading tasks was observed in the supplementary motor area and in two ventral premotor clusters in the left hemisphere, the most ventral one (z=21) extending to the dorso-caudal part of the pars opercularis of IFG, the other being located 2cm dorsally (z=40) at the boundary of the ventral and dorsal premotor cortices.

Speaking \to Writing. Large overlapping activity in the speaking and writing tasks was observed in the lateral dorsal and ventral premotor cortices, extending rostrally to the pars opercularis of IFG and medially to the insular cortex, basal ganglia and thalamus. In addition, some activation of the dorsal primary motor cortex was found in the left hemisphere. Common parietal activities were found in the supramarginal gyrus, extending rostrally to the parietal operculum and rostro-dorsally to the primary somatosensory cortex (areas 1 and 3 in the left hemisphere and area 3 in the right hemisphere), and in the left superior parietal lobule. Additional auditory activity was observed in the left hemisphere in TTG and pSTG. Other common activations were observed in the supplementary motor area, extending to the middle cingulate cortex, the bilateral dorsal (lobules V-VI) and ventral (lobules VII-VIII) parts of the cerebellum, at the boundary between the ventro-caudal part of the left angular gyrus and the posterior part of the middle temporal gyrus, the left dorsolateral prefrontal cortex, and the right primary and secondary visual areas.

Listening O Speaking O Reading O Writing. Overlapping activity in the four tasks were identical to that observed in the conjunction analysis between the listening and reading tasks (see above). As previously noted, these activations were observed in the supplementary motor area and in two ventral premotor clusters in the left hemisphere, the most ventral one extending in to the most dorso-caudal part of the pars opercularis of IFG, the other being located 2cm dorsally.

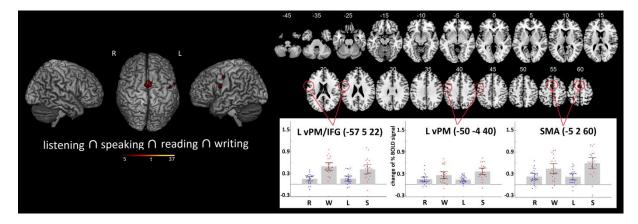


Figure 4. Overlapping brain activity across the listening, speaking, reading and writing tasks (conjunction analysis, unidirectional t-contrast, p < .05 FWE corrected at the voxel level, cluster extent threshold of 20 voxels, see Table S2 in Supplemental Data for details). The BOLD percent signal changes for the 4 tasks compared to rest in the supplementary motor

area (SMA), left ventral premotor cortex vPM) and left ventral premotor/inferior frontal gyrus (vPM/IFG) are indicated. The error bars represent confidence intervals across subjects (95% CI).

Clusters & Regions	ВА	MNI coordinates			Т
		Х	Υ	Z	
Cluster 1 (477 voxels)					
Supplementary motor area	6	-5	2	60	6.88
Cluster 2 (62 voxels)					
inferior frontal gyrus - pars opercularis	44	-57	5	22	5.97
premotor cortex	6	-62	2	21	5.56
Cluster 3 (30 voxels)					
premotor cortex	6	-50	-4	40	5.77

Table 1. Maximum activation peak summary of brain regions showing overlapping activity across the listening, speaking, reading and writing tasks (conjunction analysis, unidirectional t-contrasts, p < .05 FWE corrected at the voxel level, cluster extent threshold of 20 voxels).

ROI Analysis - Cross-modal Activity (Figure 5, and Table S4)

The individual coordinates for the seven ROIs analyzed are given in Table S4. The writing task, but not the reading task, led to BOLD changes in the left primary auditory cortex and in the left planum temporale (the effect size estimated by the 95% CI was 0.1 to 0.2% change). The listening and speaking tasks led to changes in the primary visual cortex (0.05 to 0.2% for listening and 0.1 to 0.3% for speaking).

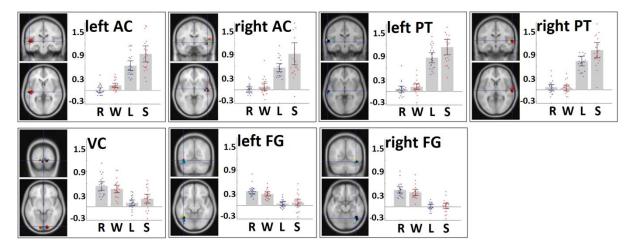


Figure 5. Percent signal change per task as a function of the ROI. The values represent the difference of the medians in the absence and in the presence of the stimulus, for each individual (points) and averaged for the whole group (bars). The error bars represent the 95% confidence intervals of the difference between the medians in the presence and in the absence of the stimulus. The coronal and axial slices represent the position of the individual ROIs (each color corresponds to the ROI of one participant, see Table S4 for individual coordinates). For the auditory mode, the reference coordinates were defined in BA41 (Primary Auditory Cortex, coordinates -48 -18 4 and 51 -11 1 resp. for left and right hemispheres) and in BA42 and BA22 (planum temporale, coordinates -64 -20 5 and 66 -13 2 resp. for left and right hemispheres). For the visual mode, the reference coordinates were at 0 -90 -10 (calcarine sulcus, primary visual cortex) and in the fusiform gyri, at the coordinates of the visual word form area (left hemisphere, -44 -58 -15) and of the counterpart of this region in the right hemisphere (44

-58 -15). The ROIs were defined as the volume resulting from the combination of the individual cluster whose local maximum was the closest from the reference coordinates, and a 6 mm-radius sphere centered on the coordinates of this local maximum.

Individual spatial analyses of frontal activations - Motor Clustering (Figure 6 and Table S5)

Individual variability for the listening∩speaking compared to the reading∩writing conjunctions is revealed by individual motor clustering analyses (see Figure 6).

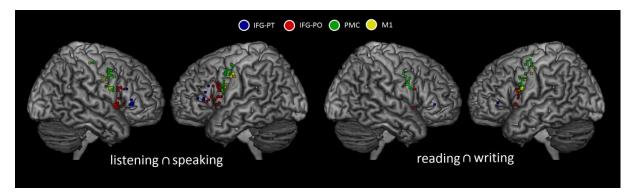


Figure 6. Individual centers of gravity (COG) related to common motor activity in the listening∩speaking and in the reading∩writing conjunctions within the pars triangularis (BA45, IFG-PT) and pars opercularis (BA44, IFG-PO) of the inferior frontal gyrus and to the premotor (BA6, PMC) and primary motor (BA4, M1) cortices. See Table S5 in Supplemental Data for details.

Overall, in the left and right hemispheres and in the listening ospeaking and reading owriting conjunctions, the total number of centers of gravity of the motor activation peaks differed between the four ROIs (χ 2 = 32.76, p < .00001) and were mostly confined in the premotor cortex (n=57) and in the pars opercularis of IFG (n=42), with a lower number of activation peaks observed in the primary motor cortex (n=23) and in the pars triangularis of IFG (n=14). In addition, a higher number of activation peaks was observed in the listening ospeaking conjunction compared to the reading owriting conjunction (listening∩speaking: n=93, reading∩writing: n=43; χ2 = 18.38, p < .00002). This partly results from the fact that, while bilateral activity was observed in the listening ∩ speaking conjunction (left hemisphere: n=51, right hemisphere: n=42; χ 2 = 0.87, p = .35), motor activity appeared predominantly in the left hemisphere in the reading ∩ writing conjunction (left hemisphere: n=42, right hemisphere: n=11; χ 2 = 18.13, p < .00003). Importantly, the location of activation peaks in the left hemisphere was confined in the ventral part of the premotor cortex for the listening ∩ speaking conjunction, while several activation peaks were located in the dorsal premotor cortex in the reading ∩ writing conjunction. For other comparisons, small numbers preclude making strong conclusions. We simply note that in the pars opercularis of IFG, the number of activation peaks was higher in the listening ∩ speaking conjunction than in the reading ∩ writing conjunction, especially in the right hemisphere (listening∩speaking, left hemisphere: n=18, reading∩writing, left hemisphere: n=8; listening ∩ speaking, right hemisphere: n=14, reading ∩ writing, left hemisphere: n=2). A similar tendency was observed in the right primary motor cortices (listening ∩ speaking, left hemisphere: n=10, reading ∩ writing, left hemisphere: n=7; listening ∩ speaking, right hemisphere: n=6, reading ∩ writing, right hemisphere: n=0). Finally, activity in the right pars triangularis almost only appeared during the listening ∩ speaking conjunction (listening ∩ speaking, left hemisphere: n=5, reading ∩ writing, left hemisphere: n=1; listening ∩ speaking, right hemisphere: n=7, reading ∩ writing, right hemisphere: n=1).

DISCUSSION

This study aimed at testing the existence of common neural substrates and common mechanisms of perceptual-motor coupling when processing the basic units of spoken and written language. Several important results can be emphasized.

Shared neural substrates in the left and medial frontal cortex

First, we found evidence of neural substrates shared between spoken and written language. The brain regions where the overlap between the four conditions was maximal were found in the left lateral and medial frontal cortices, at locations corresponding to the inferior frontal gyrus, the ventral premotor cortex and the SMA.

The implication of the left inferior frontal and ventral premotor regions in speech motor control, and more specifically in the planning of articulatory and speech movements, is well acknowledged (Bohland and guenther, 2006; Guenther, 2006; Sôrös et al., 2006; Riecker et al., 2005; Tourville and Guenther, 2011; Guenther and Vladusich, 2012; Grabski et al., 2012a, 2012b, 2013). It has also been suggested that these regions represent a "speech sound map" that provides a link between the motor program and sensory representation of a speech sound (Guenther, 2006; Guenther and Vladusich, 2012). Their involvement has also consistently been demonstrated in the course of speech perception and appears in line with neurobiological models (Hickok and Poeppel, 2000; Scott and Johnsrude, 2003; Hickok and Poeppel, 2004; Hickok and Poeppel, 2007; Skipper et al., 2007; Rauschecker and Scott, 2009; Rauschecker, 2011). These models postulate that speech processing is partly mediated by a simulation process from the inferior frontal gyrus and ventral premotor cortex that partly constrain phonetic interpretation of the sensory inputs through the internal generation of candidate articulatory categorizations. Further, the same two lateral ventral premotor/inferior frontal regions have already been shown to participate in single letter perception (Flowers et al., 2004; Joseph et al., 2006) and production (Planton et al., 2013), and to be conjointly activated by the two tasks (Longcamp et al., 2003; James and Gauthier, 2006). From these studies, it is therefore tempting to interpret the activations common to the four tasks as an indication of articulatory motor reactivation in listening, reading and writing, possibly through inner speech, subvocal rehearsal or verbal motor imagery (Sato et al., 2015) or more automatic perceptual-motor 'resonance' (Fadiga et al., 2002), even if the tasks do not explicitly require access to the letters' names (note that although possible vocal outputs were not recorded in the perception tasks, it is unlikely that participants overtly produced the perceived letter/consonant since they were only instructed to passively listen to or read each presented stimulus). From that view, the fact that premotor activity was found to be equal in the speaking and writing tasks, and to also be equal but lower in the listening and reading tasks (see Figure 4), might suggest similar articulatory planning processing in the two first motor tasks, together with reduced motor reactivation in the two perceptual tasks. Note that, if this interpretation is correct, the degree of association between the letters and sounds specific to a given language might affect the results (see Madec et al., 2016). French is a non-transparent language where a letter can correspond to several sounds. In fact, in a study where convergence between speech and reading was tested with fMRI in 4 languages of variable opacity (Rueckl et al., 2015), it was shown that the two modalities converge in a set of regions including the premotor regions found in the present study. This convergence remained the same for the 4 languages, although the degree of activation of the premotor regions varied slightly as a function of the transparency. For the authors, this convergence occurs because the organization of the speech network universally constrains the written language network.

Alternatively, if common premotor activations are actually related to articulatory planning and/or reactivation for single letters, one might nonetheless expect the signal level stronger for the spoken than written type. Given the observed heteromodal activity in these regions, they might therefore not be primarily speech related but rather subserve more general functions. For some authors, those regions lying anterior to the central sulcus belong to a sensorimotor brain system that subserves more domain-general cognitive and attentional functions, and is engaged when a task is demanding in terms of cognitive resources (Duncan and Owen, 2000; Brass et al., 2005; Fedorenko, Duncan and Kanwisher, 2013). This interpretation may hold because general cognitive processes such as response selection were at play in both the speaking and writing tasks, and due to the presence of catch trials to a less extent in the listening and reading tasks. Although this hypothesis cannot be discarded here, response selection processes appeared to be limited in the speaking and writing tasks since the same (simple) stimuli were used repeatedly and were externally triggered. This hypothesis is also hardly compatible with previous findings of specific involvement of similar ventral precentral regions in reading where letters were compared to control stimuli well-matched in terms of their difficulty (Anderson et al., 1990; Longcamp et al., 2003; James and Gauthier, 2006).

Another possible interpretation comes from the possibility that premotor cortices possess superordinate properties (Schubotz and von Cramon, 2001; Schubotz, von Cramon and Lohmann, 2003; Schubotz et al., 2010). In Shubotz and colleagues' studies, the premotor activations were found to systematically represent information in different domains (time, space, objects) in various non-

motor visual (Schubotz and von Cramon, 2001) and auditory (Schubotz, von Cramon and Lohmann, 2003) tasks, according to a ventral-to-dorsal organization. The lowest ventral / inferior frontal regions would represent timing information (in relation to the planning and execution of articulatory and arm/manual sequences during speaking and writing), the intermediate ventral regions would represent information on object properties, and the most dorsal regions would represent information on object's location. It is possible that object- and time-related properties are relevant in the present four tasks, and triggered activation in the parts of the premotor cortex that possess the corresponding superordinate properties.

The SMA is involved in both speech perception and production (Hertrich, Dietrich and Ackermann, 2016; Lima, Krishnan and Scott, 2016), and in reading and writing (Price, 2010; Planton et al., 2013; Longcamp et al., 2014), and appears to be connected to the lateral inferior frontal gyrus through the Frontal Aslant Tract (Dick et al., 2019). During speaking, it is usually thought to participate in the initiation of speech motor programs, internally specified action selection, inhibition and in higher superordinate planning functions (Alario et al., 2006; Tremblay and Gracco; 2006; Peeva et al., 2010; Tourville and Guenther, 2011). There is however no clear consensus about the exact functional contribution of this region to language (for a review, see Hertrich, Dietrich and Ackermann, 2016). Further, its recruitment during auditory speech processing, even during listening, also suggests its contribution to auditory imagery and higher order sensorimotor control and predictive functions (for a review, see Lima, Krishnan and Scott, 2016). In the course of writing, SMA is rather thought to compute general features of the movement, in particular its sequential structure (Roland et al., 1980; Tanji and Shima, 1994). In writing, the SMA's contribution is however considered non-specific, because it is no longer present when handwriting tasks are compared to matched graphomotor control tasks (e.g., drawing non-linguistic stimuli such as circles, abstract symbols or pseudo-letters; Planton et al., 2013).

Finally, it is worthwhile noting that, due to the 1-back procedure involved in the catch trials, the perception tasks may have involved limited verbal working memory, executive and comparison/decision processes in other trials. Since no catch trials and related processes were required in the production tasks, the observed overlap BOLD activity in the inferior frontal gyrus, the ventral premotor cortex and the SMA is however unlikely due to these processes. It should also be noted that the activations in the writing task could be influenced by the absence of visual feedback, although writing in expert adults is generally considered completely proactive (Van Galen, 1991)

Motor-perceptual resonance in written and spoken language

Interestingly, the motor nature of the precentral activations in both listening and speaking and in reading and writing is further confirmed at the individual level by motor clustering analyses and the conjoint activation of both the premotor and the primary motor cortex in the majority of the participants (see Figure 6). Strikingly, the extent of the observed common premotor activation was qualitatively more important during listening and speaking than during reading and writing. Aside from methodological differences, this difference might relate to ontogenetic factors, with motor-perceptual coupling in speech occurring earlier in development and therefore being subsequently stronger. It might also relate to phylogenetic factors, because speech relies more strongly on "pre-wired" brain circuits being the result of evolution (Aboitiz and Garcia, 1997; MacNeilage, 1998; Jürgens, 2002; Scott and Johnsrude, 2003; Rauscheker and Scott, 2009; Aboitiz, 2012; Rilling, 2014), while written language is built upon the "recycling" of brain regions initially devoted to other functions (Dehaene and Cohen, 2007; Dehane et al., 2010). It could also stem from greater reliance on motor representations when processing auditory speech, possibly because the discrimination of phonemes is more demanding (due to important timing constraints; Du et al., 2014). Finally, this difference might be a by-product of more variable inter-individual patterns for written than for spoken language. In general, the pattern of precentral activations is highly variable between individuals, in terms of activation strength, extent and position. However, while the position of individual activations along the z-axis varies from very ventral to very dorsal locations in the case of letters perception, it is more homogeneously located in a single ventral premotor/inferior frontal cluster in the case of phonemes perception.

The lateralization and distribution of precentral activations is also qualitatively different in the spoken and written types. First, whereas the precentral activations in the spoken type are bilateral, they remain distributed in the left hemisphere in the written type for a majority of participants. This is visible on the distribution of the individual activation peaks. The lateralization of precentral activations during the perception of single letters has indeed been shown to depend on the manual laterality of the participants (Longcamp et al., 2005b) and fits well with the use of manual motor simulation or "resonance". The spatial distribution of the individual precentral peaks was more dorsal and caudal, following the precentral gyrus in the written type, whereas in the spoken type the individual clusters tended to extend rostrally and ventrally onto the inferior frontal gyrus. This is compatible with the typically described distribution of precentral activations in the production of writing movements (Sugihara et al., 2006; Duforand Rapp, 2013; Longcamp et al., 2014; Pattamadilok et al., 2016; Planton et al., 2017) and articulation (Terumitsu et al., 2006; Brown et al., 2008;Grabski et al., 2012a), and with the acknowledged implication of the inferior frontal gyrus in the processing of spoken language (Price, 2010). The distinct distribution and lateralization of the precentral activations common to perception and production in the two language types is therefore a good indication of motor reactivation during

perception occurring according to a somatotopic organization (activations following the somatotopy of the involved effectors has been demonstrated in other domains of action-perception coupling; see Buccino et al., 2001; Jastorff et al., 2010).

Cross-modal sensory activations

The ROI analysis showed that the early sensory areas were activated by the other modality, because the confidence intervals were located above zero. The left primary auditory cortex responded relatively weakly but significantly in the writing task but not in the reading task. The response of the left planum temporale was even weaker but also significant in the writing task. In the primary visual cortex, the response was also significant for the two speech tasks, but the response of the left fusiform gyrus at the level of the visual word form area did not differ from zero. This pattern of results was unexpected, as the early sensory areas were initially included in the ROI analysis as controls of the associative areas that compute language-specific representations. It is inconsistent with the results of previous investigations of conjoint auditory and visual letters perception (Raij, Uutela and Hari, 2000; van Atteveldt et al., 2004), most likely because those studies did not compare unimodal letter processing to a resting baseline.

It is now well acknowledged that sensory input of one modality can lead to significant responses to modulations of the activity in sensory areas of another modality. This has been shown in a wide range of sensory modalities where one modality is usually tightly coupled with another: vision and audition (Calvert et al., 1997), touch and vision (Zangaladze et al., 1999; Sathian and Zangaladze, 2002), vision and vestibular sense (Indovina et al., 2005). In the case of speech, there is a very strong coupling of auditory vocal processing with visual processing of the speaker's articulatory movements (Calvert et al., 1997; Campbell, 2008; von Kriegstein, 2012), that could explain the present results. In visual letter processing, the coupling between script and speech has also been studied (Jancke and Shah, 2004; van Atteveldt, Roebroeck and Goebel, 2009; Perrone-Bertolotti et al., 2012), but the reason why the auditory cortex responds to writing but not to reading letters is difficult to explain in this context. In an ecological situation, writing is nonetheless usually associated with auditory friction and scrapping sounds (Danna and Velay, 2015), so that the auditory cortex is possibly automatically preactivated even in the absence of auditory feedback. Contrary to Raij et al. (2000) and van Attelveldt et al. (2004), we found no reliable heteromodal activation of the superior temporal gyrus/superior temporal sulcus when unimodal visual letters and speech sounds were presented. In addition, although in some cases (most likely when the task demands access to the letter name), the level of activation of the fusiform gyrus is modulated by inputs from upstream regions coding for phonological processing (Dietz et al.,

2005; Xue et al., 2006; Madec et al., 2016), our results confirm that speech itself is not sufficient to lead to significant activation of the fusiform gyrus at the level of the visual word form area.

Extended overlap between the two production tasks

The last main result is that speaking and writing are controlled by largely overlapping networks, as attested by the overlap observed in the production tasks (see Figures 3 and S3). This indicates that while some activations remain specific to a given language type, other regions are probably engaged in domain general cognitive processing (Duncan and Owen, 2000; Brass et al., 2005; Fedorenko et al., 2013). Neural networks encompassing frontal regions involved in cognitive control have been shown to be engaged during spoken language production (Bourguignon, 2014; Geranmayeh et al., 2014). Those networks are likely to be active also during writing. In addition, massive involvement of overlapping bilateral basal ganglia and cerebellum in the two production tasks is consistent with the existence of effector-independent representations of motor sequences in cortico-subcortical circuits (Hikosaka et al., 2002). It is however worthwhile noting that the left dorsal premotor cortex, at the level of the superior frontal gyrus, remained strongly implicated in the control of handwriting movements, and much less so in the other three tasks, supporting previous studies who used various types of control tasks (Roux et al., 2009; Sugihara et al., 2006; Longcamp et al., 2014). Similarly, the right ventral premotor cortex displays a much stronger activation in the speaking task than in the other three tasks, with this region being identified as crucial for the integration of somatosensory feedback during speech production (Golfinopoulos et al., 2011; Guenther and Vladusich, 2012).

CONCLUSIONS

To conclude, our study shows that across perception and production modes, three left frontal brain regions are shared between spoken and written language. In addition, motor-perceptual resonance appears to be a general mechanism in communication, which occurs in both spoken and written language with an extent, lateralization and spatial distribution that differ between the two language types. It is more variable between individuals in written than in spoken language, possibly due to variable learning strategies relying either more on manual or more on verbal coding. Until recently, spoken communication was clearly dominant in human language, but recent digital tools increase the amount of written communication dramatically (Kiefer and Velay, 2016). Our results thus call for the opening of new integrative approaches focusing on the relationships between the two facets of human communication, in particular on how they are coded in common and distinct subregions of the frontal cortex.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work was supported by grants from the French Ministry of Research ANR-11-BSH2-0010 MULTIMEX to all authors and to grants ANR-16-CONV-0002 (ILCB), ANR-11-LABX-0036 (BLRI) and the Excellence Initiative of Aix-Marseille University (A*MIDEX) to M.L. The authors thank the INSERM U1214 MRI technical platform for the MRI acquisitions.

REFERENCES

- Aboitiz, F., & Garcia, V. (1997). The evolutionary origin of the language areas in the human brain. A neuroanatomical perspective.Brain Research Reviews, 25, 381–396.
- Aboitiz, F. (2012). Gestures, vocalizations, and memory in language origins. Front. Evol. Neurosci., 4, 2.
- Alario, F.X., Chinay, H., Lehericy, S., & Cohen, L. (2006). The role of the supplementary motor area (SMA) in word production. Brain Research, 1076(1), 129-43.
- Alho. J., Lin, F.H., Sato, M., Tiitinen, H., Sams, M., & Jääskeläinen, I.P. (2014). Enhanced neural synchrony between left auditory and premotor cortex is associated with successful phonetic categorization. Frontiers in Psychology, 5, 394.
- Allen, E.A., Erhardt, E.B., & Calhoun, V.D. (2012). Data visualization in the neurosciences: overcoming the curse of dimensionality. Neuron, 74(4), 603-608.
- Anderson, S.W., Damasio, A.R., & Damasio, H. (1990). Troubled letters but not numbers: domain specific cognitive impairments following focal damage in frontal cortex. Brain, 113, 749–766.
- Arguin, M., & Bub, D. (1995). Priming and response selection processes in letter classification and identification tasks. Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Perception and Performance, 21(5), 1199–1219.
- Birn, R.M., Bandettini, P.A., Cox, R.W., & Shaker, R. (1999). Event-related fMRI of tasks involving brief motion, Human Brain Mapping, 7(2), 106-114.
- Boersma, P., & Weenink, D. (2013). Praat: doing phonetics by computer. Computer Program, Version 5.3.42. Available at: http://www.praat.org/.
- Bohland, J.W., & Guenther, F.H. (2006). An fMRI investigation of syllable sequence production. NeuroImage, 32(2), 821–841.
- Bourguignon, N.J. (2014). A rostro-caudal axis for language in the frontal lobe: The role of executive control in speech production. Neuroscience & Biobehavioral Reviews, 47, 431–444.
- Bowers, J.S., Vigliocco, G., & Haan, R. (1998). Orthographic, phonological, and articulatory contributions to masked letter and word priming. Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Perception and Performance, 24(6), 1705–1719.
- Brass, M., Derrfuss, J., Forstmann, B., & Cramon, D. (2005). The role of the inferior frontal junction area in cognitive control. Trends in Cognitive Sciences, 9(7), 314–316.
- Brown, S., Ngan, E., & Liotti, M. (2008). A larynx area in the human motor cortex. Cerebral Cortex, 18, 837–845.

- Buccino, G., Binkofski, F., Fink, G. R., Fadiga, L., Fogassi, L., Gallese, V., & Rizzolatti, G. (2001). Action observation activates premotor and parietal areas in a somatotopic manner: an fMRI study. European Journal of Neurosciences, 13, 400–404.
- Calvert, G.A., Bullmore, E.T., Brammer, M.J., Campbell, R., Williams, S.R.C., McGuire, P.K., David, A.S. (1997). Activation of auditory cortex during silent lipreading. Science, 276, 593–595.
- Campbell, R. (2008). The processing of audio-visual speech: empirical and neural bases. Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences, 363(1493), 1001–1010.
- Castro-Caldas, A., Petersson, K.M., Reis, A., Stone-Elander, S., & Ingvar, M. (1998). The illiterate brain. Learning to read and write during childhood influences the functional organization of the adult brain. Brain: A Journal of Neurology, 121(Pt 6), 1053–1063.
- Chevillet, M.A., Jiang, X., Rauschecker, J.P., & Riesenhuber, M. (2013). Automatic phoneme category selectivity in the dorsal auditory stream. J. Neurosci., 33, 5208-5215.
- Cohen, L., Dehaene, S., Naccache, L., Lehericy, S., Dehaene-Lambertz, S., Henaff, M.A., & Michel, F. (2000). The visual word form area: Spatial and temporal characterization of an initial stage of reading in normal subjects and posterior split-brain patients. Brain, 123, 291–307.
- Danna, J., & Velay, J.-L. (2015). Basic and supplementary sensory feedback in handwriting. Frontiers in Psychology, 6, 169.
- d'Ausilio, A., Pulvermüller, F., Salmas, P., Bufalari, I., Begliomini, C., & Fadiga, L. (2009). The motor somatotopy of speech perception. Current Biology, 19(5), 381–385.
- Dehaene, S., & Cohen, L. (2007). Cultural recycling of cortical maps. Neuron, 56(2), 384–398.
- Dehaene, S., Pegado, F., Braga, L.W., Ventura, P., Filho, G. N., Jobert, A., & Cohen, L. (2010). How Learning to read changes the cortical networks for vision and language. Science, 330(6009), 1359–1364.
- Dick, A.S., Garic, D., Graziano, P., & Tremblay, P. (2019). The frontal aslant tract (FAT) and its role in speech, language and executive function. Cortex, 111: 148-163.
- Diehl, R. L., Lotto, A. J., & Holt, L. L. (2004). Speech perception. Annual Review of Psychology, 55, 149–179.
- Dietz, N.A.E., Jones, K.M., Gareau, L., Zeffiro, T.A., & Eden, G.F. (2005). Phonological decoding involves left posterior fusiform gyrus. Human Brain Mapping, 26(2), 81–93.
- Du, Y., Buchsbaum, B.R., Grady, C.L., & Alain, C. (2014). Noise differentially impacts phoneme representations in the auditory and speech motor systems. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 111(19), 7126–7131.

- Dufor, O., & Rapp, B. (2013). Letter representations in writing: an fMRI adaptation approach. Frontiers in Psychology, 4.
- Duncan, J., & Owen, A.M. (2000). Common regions of the human frontal lobe recruited by diverse cognitive demands. Trends in Neurosciences, 23(10), 475–483.
- Eickhoff, S.B., Stephan, K.E., Mohlberg, H., Grefkes, C., Fink, G.R., Amunts, K., & Zilles, K. (2005). A new SPM toolbox for combining probabilistic cytoarchitectonic maps and functional imaging data. NeuroImage, 25, 1325-1335
- Fadiga, L., Craighero, L., Buccino, G., & Rizzolatti, G. (2002). Speech listening specifically modulates the excitability of tongue muscles: a TMS study. The European Journal of Neuroscience, 15(2), 399–402.
- Fedorenko, E., Duncan, J., & Kanwisher, N. (2013). Broad domain generality in focal regions of frontal and parietal cortex. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 110(41), 16616–16621.
- Flowers, D.L., Jones, K., Noble, K., VanMeter, J., Zeffiro, T.A., Wood, F.B., & Eden, G.F. (2004). Attention to single letters activates left extrastriate cortex. NeuroImage, 21(3), 829–839.
- Geranmayeh, F., Wise, R.J.S., Mehta, A., & Leech, R. (2014). Overlapping Networks Engaged during Spoken Language Production and Its Cognitive Control. Journal of Neuroscience, 34(26), 8728–8740.
- Glascher, J., & Gitelman, D. (2008) Contrast weights in flexible factorial design with multiple groups of subjects. Unpublished tutorial. (available at http://www.sbirc.ed.ac.uk/cyril/download/Contrast_Weighting_Glascher_Gitelman_2008.pdf [assessed 17.06.2019]).
- Golfinopoulos, E., Tourville, J.A., Bohland, J.W., Ghosh, S.S., Nieto-Castanon, A., & Guenther, F.H. (2011). fMRI investigation of unexpected somatosensory feedback perturbation during speech. NeuroImage, 55(3), 1324–1338.
- Grabski, K., Lamalle, L., Vilain, C., Schwartz, J-.L., Vallée, N., Troprès, I., Baciu, M., Le Bas, J.F., & Sato, M. (2012a). Functional MRI assessment of orofacial articulators: neural correlates of lip, jaw, larynx and tongue movements. Human Brain Mapping, 33(10), 2306-2321.
- Grabski, K., Lamalle, L., & Sato, M. (2012b). Somatosensory-motor adaptation of orofacial actions in posterior parietal and ventral premotor cortices. Plos One, 7(11), e49117.
- Grabski, K., Schwartz, J-.L., Lamalle, L., Vilain, C., Vallée, N., Baciu, M., Le Bas, J.F., & Sato, M. (2013).

 Shared and distinct neural correlates of vowel perception and production. Journal of Neurolinguistics, 26(3), 384-408.

- Gracco, V.L., Tremblay, P., & Pike, G.B. (2005). Imaging speech production using fMRI. NeuroImage, 26, 294-301.
- Guenther, F.H. (2006). Cortical interactions underlying the production of speech sounds. Journal of Communication Disorders, 39,350–365.
- Guenther, F.H., & Vladusich, T. (2012). A neural theory of speech acquisition and production. Journal of Neurolinguistics, 25(5), 408–422.
- Hall, D.A., Haggard, M.P., Akeroyd, M.A., Palmer, A.R., Summerfield, A.Q., Elliott, M.R., Gurney, E.M., & Bowtell, R.W. (1999). Sparse temporal sampling in auditory fMRI. Hum Brain Mapping, 7(3), 213-23.
- Hertrich, I., Dietrich, S., & Ackermann, H. (2016). The role of the supplementary motor area for speech and language processing. Neuroscience & Biobehavioral Reviews, 68, 602–610.
- Hickok, G., & Poeppel, D. (2000). Towards a functional neuroanatomy of speech perception. Trends in Cognitive Science, 4(4), 131–138.
- Hickok, G., & Poeppel, D. (2004). Dorsal and ventral streams: a framework for understanding aspects of the functional anatomyof language. Cognition, 92, 67–99.
- Hickok, G., & Poeppel, D. (2007). The cortical organization of speech processing. Nature Reviews Neuroscience, 8(5), 393–402.
- Hickok, G., Houde, J.F., & Rong, F. (2011). Sensorimotor integration in speech processing: computational basis and neural organization. Neuron, 69(3), 407–422.
- Hikosaka, O., Nakamura, K., Sakai, K., & Nakahara, H. (2002). Central mechanisms of motor skill learning. Current Opinion in Neurobiology, 12(2), 217–222.
- Houde, J.F., Nagarajan, S.S., Sekihara, K., & Merzenich, M.M. (2002). Modulation of the auditory cortex during speech: an MEGstudy. Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience, 14, 1125–1138.
- Indovina, I., Maffei, V., Bosco, G., Zago, M., Macaluso, E., & Lacquaniti, F. (2005). Representation of visual gravitational motion in the human vestibular cortex. Science, 308(5720), 416–419.
- James, K.H., & Gauthier, I. (2006). Letter processing automatically recruits a sensory-motor brain network. Neuropsychologia, 44, 2937–2949.
- James, K.H., & Gauthier, I. (2009). When writing impairs reading: letter perception's susceptibility to motor interference. Journal of Experimental Psychology. General, 138(3), 416–431.
- James, K.H. (2010). Sensori-motor experience leads to changes in visual processing in the developing brain. Developmental Science, 13(2), 279–288.

- Jancke, L., & Shah, N.J. (2004). "Hearing" syllables by "seeing" visual stimuli. European Journal of Neuroscience, 19(9), 2603–2608.
- Jastorff, J., Begliomini, C., Fabbri-Destro, M., Rizzolatti, G., & Orban, G.A. (2010). Coding observed motor acts: different organizational principles in the parietal and premotor cortex of humans. Journal of Neurophysiology, 104(1), 128–140.
- Jobard, G., Crivello, F., & Tzourio-Mazoyer, N. (2003). Evaluation of the dual route theory of reading: a metanalysis of 35 neuroimaging studies. NeuroImage, 20(2), 693–712.
- Joseph, J.E., Cerullo, M.A., Farley, A.B., Steinmetz, N.A., & Mier, C.R. (2006). fMRI correlates of cortical specialization and generalization for letter processing. NeuroImage, 32(2), 806–820.
- Jürgens, U. (2002). Neural pathways underlying vocal control. Neuroscience & Biobehavioral Reviews, 26(2), 235–258.
- Kiefer, M., & Velay, J.-L. (2016). Writing in the digital age. Trends in Neuroscience and Education, 5(3), 77–81.
- Lancaster, J.L., Woldorff, M.G., Parsons, L.M., Liotti, M., Freitas, C.S., Rainey, L., Kochunov, P.V., Nickerson, D., Mikiten, S.A., & Fox, P.T. (2000). Automated Talairach atlas labels for functional brain mapping. Human Brain Mapping, 10(3), 120-31.
- Li, J.X., & James, K.H. (2016). Handwriting generates variable visual output to facilitate symbol learning. Journal of Experimental Psychology: General, 145(3), 298–313.
- Liberman, A.M., Cooper, F.S., Shankweiler, D.P., & Studdert-Kennedy, M. (1967). Perception of the speech code. Psychological Review, 74, 431–461.
- Liberman, A.M., & Mattingly, I.G. (1985). The motor theory of speech perception revised. Cognition, 21, 1–36.
- Liberman, A.M., & Whalen, D.H. (2000). On the relation of speech to language. Trends in Cognitive Science, 3(7), 254–264.
- Lima, C.F., Krishnan, S., & Scott, S.K. (2016). Roles of supplementary motor areas in auditory processing and auditory imagery. Trends in Neuroscience, 39(8), 527-542.
- Longcamp, M., Anton, J.L., Roth, M., & Velay, J.L. (2003). Visual presentation of single letters activates a premotor area involved in writing. NeuroImage, 19(4), 1492–1500.
- Longcamp, Marieke, Zerbato-Poudou, M.-T., & Velay, J.-L. (2005a). The influence of writing practice on letter recognition in preschool children: a comparison between handwriting and typing. Acta Psychologica, 119(1), 67–79.

- Longcamp, M., Anton, J.L., Roth, M., & Velay, J.L. (2005b). Premotor activations in response to visually presented single letters depend on the hand used to write: a study in left-handers. Neuropsychologia,43(12), 1801-9.
- Longcamp, M., Boucard, C., Gilhodes, J.C., & Velay, J.L. (2006). Remembering the orientation of newly learned characters depends on the associated writing knowledge: a comparison between handwriting and typing. Hum.Mov Sci., 25, 646–656.
- Longcamp, M., Hlushchuk, Y., & Hari, R. (2011). What differs in visual recognition of handwritten vs. printed letters? An fMRI study. Human Brain Mapping, 32(8), 1250-1259.
- Longcamp, M., Lagarrigue, A., Nazarian, B., Roth, M., Anton, J.-L., Alario, F.-X., & Velay, J.-L. (2014). Functional specificity in the motor system: Evidence from coupled fMRI and kinematic recordings during letter and digit writing. Human Brain Mapping, 35(12), 6077–6087.
- Lotto, A.J., Hickok, G.S., & Holt, L.L. (2009). Reflections on mirror neurons and speech perception. Trends in Cognitive Sciences, 13(3), 110–114.
- MacNeilage, P.F. (1998). The frame/content theory of evolution of speech production. Behavioral Brain Science, 21(4), 499-451.
- Madec, S., Le Goff, K., Anton, J.-L., Longcamp, M., Velay, J.-L., Nazarian, B., & Rey, A. (2016). Brain correlates of phonological recoding of visual symbols. NeuroImage, 132, 359–372.
- Meister, I.G., Wilson, S.M., Deblieck, C., Wu, A.D., & Iacoboni, M. (2007). The essential role of premotor cortex in speech perception. Current Biology, 17(19), 1692–1696.
- Morosan, P.,Rademacher, J., Schleicher, A.,Amunts, K., Schormann, T., &Zilles,K. (2001). Human primary auditory cortex: cytoarchitectonic subdivisions and mapping into a spatial reference system. NeuroImage, 13, 684–701.
- Möttönen, R., & Watkins, K. E. (2012). Using TMS to study the role of the articulatory motor system in speech perception. Aphasiology, 26(9), 1103–1118.
- Murakami, T., Kell, C.A., Restle, J., Ugawa, Y., & Ziemann, U. (2015). Left dorsal speech stream components and their contribution to phonological processing. Journal of Neuroscience, 35(4), 1411–1422.
- Nakamura, K., Kuo, W.-J., Pegado, F., Cohen, L., Tzeng, O. J. L., & Dehaene, S. (2012). Universal brain systems for recognizing word shapes and handwriting gestures during reading. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America, 109(50), 20762–20767.

- Nakatsuka, M., Thabit, M. N., Koganemaru, S., Nojima, I., Fukuyama, H., & Mima, T. (2012). Writing's shadow: corticospinal activation during letter observation. Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience, 24(5), 1138–1148.
- Oldfield, R.C. (1971). The assessment and analysis of handedness: The Edinburgh inventory. Neuropsychologia, 9, 97-114.
- Osnes, B., Hugdahl, K., & Specht, K. (2011). Effective connectivity analysis demonstrates involvement of premotor cortex during speech perception. NeuroImage, 54(3), 2437–2445.
- Papathanasiou, I., Filipović, S.R., Whurr, R., Rothwell, J.C., & Jahanshahi, M. (2004). Changes in corticospinal motor excitability induced by non-motor linguistic tasks. Experimental Brain Research, 154(2), 218–225.
- Pattamadilok, C., Ponz, A., Planton, S., & Bonnard, M. (2016). Contribution of writing to reading: Dissociation between cognitive and motor process in the left dorsal premotor cortex. Human Brain Mapping, 37(4), 1531–1543.
- Peeva, M.G., Guenther, F.H., Tourville, J.A., Nieto-Castanon, A., Anton, J.-L., Nazarian, B., & Alario, F.-X. (2010). Distinct representations of phonemes, syllables, and supra-syllabic sequences in the speech production network. NeuroImage, 50(2), 626–638.
- Pegado, F., Nakamura, K., Cohen, L., & Dehaene, S. (2011). Breaking the symmetry: mirror discrimination for single letters but not for pictures in the Visual Word Form Area. NeuroImage, 55(2), 742–749.
- Perrone-Bertolotti, M., Kujala, J., Vidal, J. R., Hamame, C. M., Ossandon, T., Bertrand, O., & Lachaux, J.-P. (2012). How Silent Is Silent Reading? Intracerebral Evidence for Top-Down Activation of Temporal Voice Areas during Reading. Journal of Neuroscience, 32(49), 17554–17562.
- Planton, S., Jucla, M., Roux, F.-E., & Démonet, J.-F. (2013). The "handwriting brain": A meta-analysis of neuroimaging studies of motor versus orthographic processes. Cortex, 49(10), 2772-2287.
- Planton, S., Longcamp, M., Péran, P., Démonet, J.-F., & Jucla, M. (2017). How specialized are writing-specific brain regions? An fMRI study of writing, drawing and oral spelling. Cortex, 88, 66–80.
- Price, C.J. (2010). The anatomy of language: a review of 100 fMRI studies published in 2009. Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences, 1191, 62–88.
- Pulvermüller, F., Huss, M., Kherif, F., Moscoso del Prado Martin, F., Hauk, O., & Shtyrov, Y. (2006). Motor cortex maps articulatory features of speech sounds. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America, 103(20), 7865–7870.

- Rademacher, J., Morosan, P., Schormann, T., Schleicher, A., Werner, C., Freund, H.J., & Zilles, K. (2001).

 Probabilistic mapping and volume measurement of human primary auditory cortex.

 NeuroImage, 13, 669–683.
- Raij, T., Uutela, K., & Hari, R. (2000). Audiovisual integration of letters in the human brain. Neuron, 28, 617–625.
- Rauschecker, J.P., & Scott, S.K. (2009). Maps and streams in the auditory cortex: nonhuman primates illuminate human speech processing. Nature Neuroscience, 12(6), 718–724.
- Rauschecker, J.P. (2011). An expanded role for the dorsal auditory pathway in sensorimotor control and integration. HearingResearch, 271, 16–25.
- Riecker, A., Mathiak, K., Wildgruber, D., Erb, M., Hertrich, I., Grodd, W., et al. (2005). fMRI reveals two distinct cerebral networkssubserving speech motor control. Neurology, 64(4), 700–706.
- Rilling, J.K. (2014). Comparative primate neurobiology and the evolution of brain language systems.

 Current Opinion in Neurobiology, 28, 10–14.
- Roland, P.E., Larsen, B., Lassen, N., & Skinhoj, E. (1980). Supplementary motor area and other cortical areas in organization of voluntary movements in man. Journal of Neurophysiology, 43(1), 118–136.
- Rothlein, D., & Rapp, B. (2014). The similarity structure of distributed neural responses reveals the multiple representations of letters. NeuroImage, 89, 331–344.
- Roux, F.-E., Dufor, O., Giussani, C., Wamain, Y., Draper, L., Longcamp, M., & Démonet, J.-F. (2009). The graphemic/motor frontal area Exner's area revisited. Annals of Neurology, 66(4), 537–545.
- Rueckl JG, Paz-Alonso PM, Molfese PJ, Kuo WJ, Bick A, Frost SJ, Hancock R, Wu DH, Mencl WE, Duñabeitia JA, Lee JR, Oliver M, Zevin JD, Hoeft F, Carreiras M, Tzeng OJ, Pugh KR, Frost R. (2015). Universal brain signature of proficient reading: Evidence from four contrasting languages. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A, 112(50):15510-5.
- Sathian, K., & Zangaladze, A. (2002). Feeling with the mind's eye: contribution of visual cortex to tactile perception. Behavioural Brain Research, 135(1-2), 127–132.
- Sato, M., Tremblay, P., & Gracco, V. L. (2009). A mediating role of the premotor cortex in phoneme segmentation. Brain and Language, 111(1), 1–7.
- Sato, M., Vilain, C., Lamalle, L., & Grabski, K. (2015). Adaptive coding of orofacial and speech actions in motor and somatosensory spaces with and without overt motor behavior. Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience, 27(2), 334–351.

- Schomers, M.R., Kirilina, E., Weigand, A., Bajbouj, M. & Pulvermüller, F. (2015). Causal influence of articulatory motor cortex on comprehending single spoken words: TMS evidence. 25(10), 3894-902.
- Schubotz, R.I., & von Cramon, D.Y. (2001). Functional organisation of the lateral premotor cortex: fMRI reveals different regions activated by anticipation of object properties, location and speed. Cognitive Brain Research, 11, 97–112.
- Schubotz, R.I., von Cramon, D.Y., & Lohmann, G. (2003). Auditory what, where, and when: a sensory somatotopy in lateral premotor cortex. NeuroImage, 20(1), 173–185.
- Schubotz, R.I, Anwander, A., Knösche, T.R., von Cramon, D.Y., & Tittgemeyer, M. (2010). Anatomical and functional parcellation of the human lateral premotor cortex. NeuroImage, 50(2), 396–408.
- Schwartz, J.-L., Basirat, A., Ménard, L., & Sato, M. (2012). The Perception-for-Action-Control Theory (PACT): A perceptuo-motor theory of speech perception. Journal of Neurolinguistics, 25(5), 336–354.
- Scott, S.K., & Johnsrude, I.S. (2003). The neuroanatomical and functional organization of speech perception. Trends in Neurosciences, 26(2), 100–107.
- Skipper, J.I., Van Wassenhove, V., Nusbaum, H.C., & Small, S.L. (2007). Hearing lips and seeing voices: how cortical areassupporting speech production mediate audiovisual speech perception. Cerebral Cortex, 17(10), 2387–2399.
- Skipper, J.I., Devlin, J.T., & Lametti, D.R. (2017). The hearing ear is always found close to the speaking tongue: Review of the role of the motor system in speech perception. Brain and Language, 164, 77-105.
- Sörös, P., Sokoloff, L.G., Bose, A., McIntosh, A.R., Graham, S.J., & Stuss, D.T. (2006). Clustered functional MRI of overt speechproduction. Neuroimage, 32(1), 376–387.
- Sugihara, G., Kaminaga, T., & Sugishita, M. (2006). Interindividual uniformity and variety of the "Writing center": a functional MRI study. NeuroImage, 32(4), 1837–1849.
- Tanji, J., & Shima, K. (1994). Role for supplementary motor area cells in planning several movements ahead. Nature, 371, 413–416.
- Terumitsu, M., Fujii, Y., Suzuki, K., Kwee, I.L., & Nakada, T. (2006). Human primary motor cortex shows hemispheric specialization for speech. Neuroreport, 17(11), 1091–1095.
- Tourville, J.A., & Guenther, F.H. (2011). The DIVA model: A neural theory of speech acquisition and production. Language and Cognitive Processes, 26(7), 952–981.

- Tremblay, S., Shiller, D.M., & Ostry, D.J. (2003). Somatosensory basis of speech production. Nature, 423(6942), 866–869.
- Tremblay, P., & Gracco, V.L. (2006). Contribution of the frontal lobe to externally and internally specified verbal responses: fMRI evidence. NeuroImage, 33(3), 947-957.
- Tremblay, P., & Small, S.L. (2011). On the context-dependent nature of the contribution of the ventral premotor cortex to speechperception. NeuroImage, 57, 1561–1571.
- van Atteveldt, N., Formisano, E., Goebel, R., & Blomert, L. (2004). Integration of letters and speech sounds in the human brain. Neuron, 43(2), 271–282.
- van Atteveldt, N., Roebroeck, A., & Goebel, R. (2009). Interaction of speech and script in human auditory cortex: Insights from neuro-imaging and effective connectivity. Hearing Research, 258(1-2), 152–164.
- van Galen, G. P. (1991a). Handwriting: Issues for a psychomotor theory. Hum Mov Sci, 10(2), 165–191.
- von Kriegstein, K. (2012). A multisensory perspective on human auditory communication. In M.M. Murray & M.T. Wallace (Eds.), The Neural Bases of Multisensory Processes. Boca Raton (FL): CRC Press/Taylor & Francis.
- Watkins, K.E., Strafella, A.P., & Paus, T. (2003). Seeing and hearing speech excites the motor system involved in speech production. Neuropsychologia, 41(3), 989–994.
- Wilson, S.M., Saygun, A., Sereno, M.I., & Iacoboni, M. (2004). Listenning to speech activates motor areas involved in speech production. Nature Neuroscience, 7, 701–702.
- Worsley, K.J., Evans, A.C, Marrett, S., Neelin, P. (1992). A three-dimensional statistical analysis for CBF activation studies in human brain. Journal of Cerebral Blood Flow and Metabomlism, 12(6), 900-918.
- Xue, G., Chen, C., Jin, Z., & Dong, Q. (2006). Language experience shapes fusiform activation when processing a logographic artificial language: An fMRI training study. NeuroImage, 31(3), 1315–1326.
- Zangaladze, A., Epstein, C.M., Grafton, S.T., & Sathian, K. (1999). Involvement of visual cortex in tactile discrimination of orientation. Nature, 401(6753), 587–590.
- Ziegler, J.C., Ferrand, L., Jacobs, A. M., Rey, A., & Grainger, J. (2000). Visual and phonological codes in letter and word recognition: Evidence from incremental priming. The Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology Section A, 53(3), 671–692.

SUPPLEMENTAL DATA - FIGURES

FIGURE S1. Examples of visual stimuli, one exemplar of the letter b in each of the 6 fonts used in the reading and writing tasks.

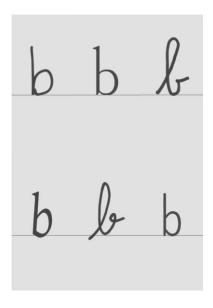


FIGURE S2. Overlapping brain activity across the listening, speaking, reading and writing tasks (conjunction analyses). A) Glass-brain views with the FWE-corrected threshold (top) and below, overlay of the unidirectional t-contrasts (p < .001 uncorrected for multiple comparisons) for the conjunction between listening and speaking (left), between reading and writing (middle), and between the 4 tasks (right). The color scale indicates the t-value, from a value corresponding to an uncorrected p < .001 to values above the p < .05 FWE-corrected threshold. The red numbered boxes indicate the position of the regions analyzed in (b-). B) Summary of the BOLD percent signal changes for the 4 tasks compared to rest in the supplementary motor area (SMA, 1), left ventral premotor cortex (L vPM, 2), left ventral premotor/inferior frontal gyrus (L vPM/IFG, 3), right ventral premotor cortex (R vPM, 4), left anterior fusiform gyrus (L ant FuG, 5) and left dorsal premotor cortex (L dPM, 6). The BOLD signal in each run was first detrended and converted to percent change. For each subject, we first computed the median of the percentage of BOLD signal across all runs in the absence and in the presence of a stimulus (for the listening and reading tasks, catch trials were ignored; there was no catch trial in the speaking and writing tasks). Then we computed the difference of medians (blue dots for the perception mode and red dots for the production mode). Individual runs were checked and corrected for the presence of outliers (total of 10 runs out of 440 in total). The error bars represent confidence intervals across subjects (95% CI for the increase due to the presence of a stimulus). Regions 1-3 are significantly

activated in the conjunction between the 4 tasks at a FWE-corrected threshold; regions 4-6 only survive a threshold of p < .001, uncorrected for multiple comparisons.

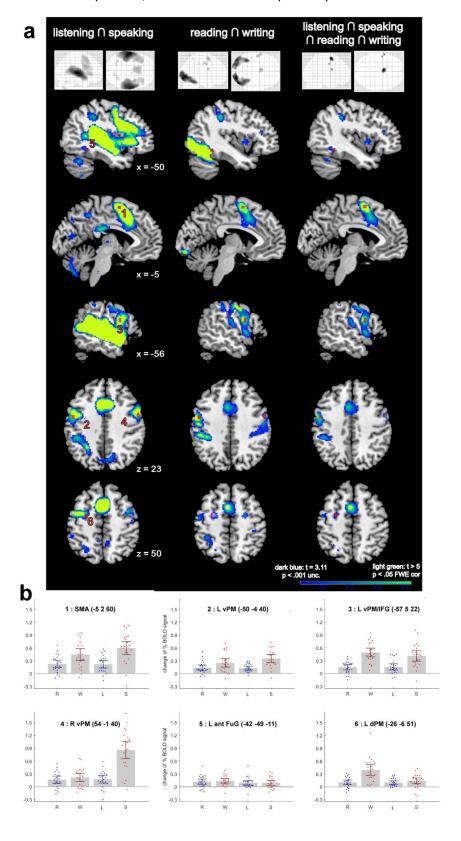


FIGURE S3 - MAIN EFFECTS & INTERACTIONS

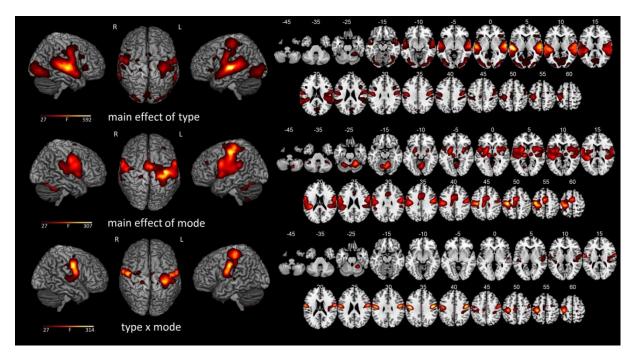


Figure S3A. Top: activity differences between the oral and written types (main effect of language type, i.e., averaged activity in the listening and speaking tasks compared to averaged activity in the reading and writing tasks, irrespective of the stimuli). Middle: activity differences between the perception and production modes (main effect of language mode, i.e., averaged activity in the listening and reading tasks compared to averaged activity in the reading and writing tasks, irrespective of stimuli). Bottom: activity changes between the oral and written types that varied according to the perception and production modes (language type x language mode interaction). Bidirectional F-contrasts, p < .05 FWE corrected at the voxel level, cluster extent threshold of 20 voxels, see Table S3 in Supplemental Data for details. Main Effect of Language Type. Irrespective of the stimuli, activity differences between the oral and written types (i.e., averaged activity in the listening and speaking tasks compared to averaged activity in the reading and writing tasks), demonstrated specific activity in bilateral auditory cortices (TT, STG, MTG and temporopolar area) for the oral type only, extending dorsally to the temporoparietal junction, the ventral part of the supramarginal gyrus and the parietal operculum, and medially to the insular cortex. Additional clusters of activity only observed for the oral type were found in the ventral premotor and primary sensorimotor cortex bilaterally, the most dorso-caudal part of the left pars opercularis of IFG and adjacent middle frontal gyrus, the pars orbitalis of IFG extending to the right pars triangularis, the dorsolateral prefrontal cortex and adjacent middle frontal gyrus, a small cluster located in the dorsal part of the right premotor and primary motor cortices, and in the medial part of the primary and secondary visual cortices extending dorsally to the cuneus In addition, stronger activity in the oral compared to written types was found in a cluster located in the anterior part of the supplementary motor area. Conversely, activity only observed for the written type was found in a left cluster located in the dorsal premotor and sensorimotor cortices, in two clusters in visual areas, as well as in the fusiform gyrus and adjacent dorsal region of the cerebellum (lobule VI), and in other clusters in the right dorsal premotor cortex, the ventral part of the cerebellum (lobule VIII), and a posterior part of the supplementary motor area. Stronger activity in the written compared to oral types was also found in regions in the left insular cortex and supramarginal gyri. Main Effect of Language Mode. Irrespective of the stimuli, activity differences between the perception and production modes (i.e., averaged activity in the listening and reading tasks compared to averaged activity in the reading and writing tasks), were found to be stronger or only present in the production mode in the bilateral primary motor and premotor cortices, especially in the left hemisphere with an additional dorsal activation. These stronger activations in the production mode extended dorsally to the supplementary motor area and adjacent middle and anterior cingulate cortex, medially to the insular cortex, basal ganglia and thalamus, rostrally to the pars opercularis of IFG, caudally to the parietal operculum and suparmarginal gyrus, and ventrally to TTG and STG. Additional clusters demonstrating stronger activity in the production mode were found in the left middle frontal gyrus, the right dorsal premotor cortex, in dorsal and ventral parts of the cerebellum (lobules V, VI, VIII and IX), and in medial regions of the primary visual cortex. No regions showed stronger activity in the perception compared to the production mode. Language Type x Language Mode Interaction. Irrespective of the stimuli, activity changes between the oral and written types that varied according to the perception and production modes were found in several clusters. First, stronger activity in the writing task compared to all other tasks was found in the left dorsal part of the primary motor cortex, extending rostrally to the adjacent dorsal premotor cortex and caudally to the primary somatosensory cortex and supramarginal gyrus. Another cluster in the right hemisphere showed similar pattern of activity but was restricted to the primary somatosensory cortex and adjacent supramarginal gyrus and intraparietal sulcus. It is worthwhile noting that regarding these premotor and motor activities, low neural activity was observed in the listening and reading tasks and it was even lower than the baseline ("deactivation") in the speaking task in the right hemisphere. Other clusters showing stronger activity in the writing task were found in the right dorsal premotor cortex, the cerebellum (lobules V, VI, VIII and IX), the posterior part of the supplementary motor area, the left insular cortex and the left parietal operculum. Conversely, stronger activity in the speaking task was observed bilaterally in the ventral part of the primary motor cortex, extending rostrally to the adjacent left ventral premotor cortex, caudally to the primary somatosensory cortex, and ventrally to the right parietal operculum, and the auditory cortex (TTG and STG). Regarding these premotor and motor activities, low neural activity was observed in the listening and reading tasks and it was even lower than the baseline ("deactivation") in the writing task in both hemispheres. Other clusters showing stronger activity in the speaking task were found in two small regions located in the left and right dorsal part of the premotor and/or primary motor cortices.

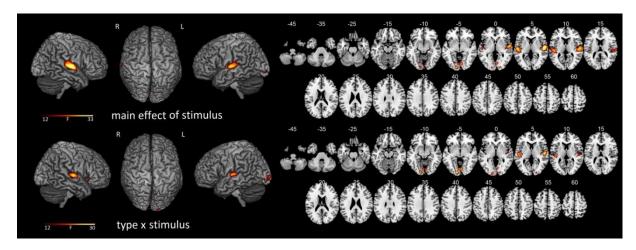
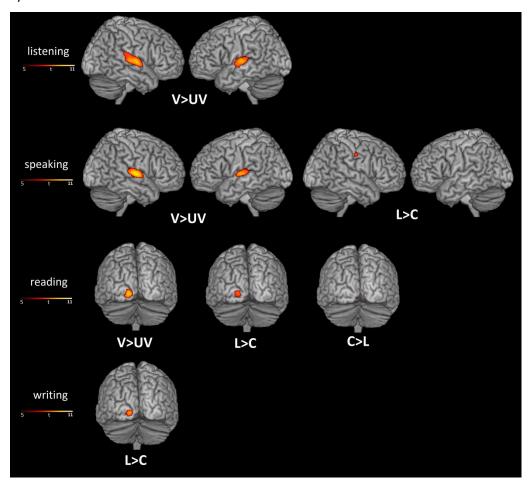


Figure S3B. Top: activity differences between p, b, t and d stimuli, irrespective of the four tasks (main effect of stimulus). Bottom: activity differences between p, b, t and d stimuli that varied according to the oral and written types (language type x stimulus interaction). Bidirectional F-contrasts, p < .05 FWE corrected at the voxel level, cluster extent threshold of 20 voxels, see Table S3 in Supplemental Data for details. Main Effect of Stimulus. Irrespective of the four tasks, differences between the four stimuli revealed stronger activity for b and d compared to p and t in large bilateral auditory clusters, centered in TTG and extending to the adjacent STG and parietal operculum. Activity differences were also found in the primary, secondary and associative visual cortex. More specifically, stronger activity for b, d, t compared to p stimuli was found in two visual clusters located in the medial part of primary and secondary visual cortices and in the left associative visual cortex (V4). In contrast, stronger activity for b, d, p compared to t was observed in two more lateral visual clusters in the left and right primary and secondary visual cortices. Language Type x Stimulus Interaction. Irrespective of the perception and production modes, stronger activity for b and d compared to p and t previously mentioned in the auditory cortices and parietal operculum were specifically related to the listening and speaking tasks, without activity whatever the stimulus in the reading and writing tasks. Similarly, stronger activity for b, d, p compared to t in lateral primary and secondary visual areas, as previously described, were related to the reading and writing tasks, with lower and equal activity across stimuli in the listening and speaking tasks. In addition, the stronger activity for b, d, t compared to p stimuli found in the medial part of primary and secondary visual cortices was also related to the reading and writing tasks, but with higher and equal activity across stimuli in the listening and speaking tasks. Finally, stronger activity for p compared to b, d and t was observed in the right pars orbitalis and insular cortex during listening and reading. Language Mode x Stimulus Interaction. No significant interaction was observed. Language Type x Language Mode x Stimulus Interaction. No significant interaction was observed.

FIGURE S4. Bold activity differences between stimuli (V: Voiced, UV: Unvoiced, L: Labial, C: Coronal) in the listening, speaking, reading and writing tasks compared to the baseline (unidirectional t-

contrasts, p < .05 FWE corrected at the voxel level, cluster extent threshold of 20 voxels, see Table S6 in Supplemental Data for details). Significant differences were observed in the listening and speaking tasks for voiced vs. unvoiced stimuli. The stronger BOLD activity observed in bilateral auditory brain areas (primary and associative auditory cortices and temporoparietal junction) for voiced stimuli is easily explained by their longer acoustic duration. In addition, stronger BOLD activity was observed during speaking, but not listening, for labial compared to coronal stimuli in the right sensorimotor cortex. This result appears in line with the well known somatotopic organization for lip and tongue articulatory effectors (Grabski et al., 2012a, 2012b). As for the reading and writing tasks, BOLD activity differences were observed in visual brain areas (primary and associative visual cortices) between voiced and unvoiced, as well as between labial and coronal stimuli. These results are likely explained by visual differences between stimuli.



SUPPLEMENTAL DATA - TABLES

TABLE S1. NEURAL CORRELATES OF LISTENING, SPEAKING, READING AND WRITING

Table S1A. Maximum activation peak summary of brain regions showing significant activity in the listening task compared to the baseline (unidirectional t-contrasts, p < .05 FWE corrected at the voxel level, cluster extent threshold of 20 voxels).

Clusters & Regions	BA		coordi		Т
Charter 1 (10525 accords)		X	Y	Z	
Cluster 1 (19535 voxels)	41	-59	-18	4	22 E0
transverse temporal gyrus	41	-59 -63	-18 -25	4	23.59
transverse temporal gyrus	22	-63 -59		7	20.06
superior temporal gyrus	22		-34 0	9	17.45 14.75
middle temporal gyrus	9	-54		-9 20	
middle frontal gyrus	9	-38	8	28	9.71
Cluster 2 (13940 voxels)					
superior temporal gyrus	22	63	-12	1	21.71
middle temporal gyrus	21	63	-7	-2	20.96
transverse temporal gyrus	42	62	-22	6	19.71
transverse temporal gyrus	41	57	-21	4	19.60
temporopolar area	38	57	6	-11	15.46
superior temporal gyrus	22	63	-12	1	21.71
superior temporar gyrus	22	03	-12	_	21./1
Cluster 3 (3552 voxels)					
supplementary motor area	6	-3	9	55	9.08
middle cingulate cortex	32	8	15	48	8.95
imadic emgalate cortex	32	Ü	13	40	0.55
Cluster 4 (2138 voxels)					
dorsolateral prefrontal cortex	46	41	15	25	9.35
premotor cortex	6	54	3	43	6.89
inferior frontal gyrus - pars triangularis	45	53	30	25	5.63
menor mentar 87. as pare than garante		00			0.00
Cluster 5 (1244 voxels)					
inferior frontal gyrus - pars orbitalis	47	38	30	0	8.11
insula	13	35	18	9	6.75
claustrum		30	18	10	6.36
Cluster 6 (167 voxels)					
cerebellum - lobule VII		14	-73	-44	6.43
cerebellum - lobule VIII		29	-66	-53	5.69
Cluster 7 (140 voxels)					
cerebellum - lobule VIII		-24	-66	-48	5.73
cerebellum - lobule VII		-30	-63	-50	5.42
inferior semi-lunar lobule		-14	-70	-42	5.21
Chuston 9 (120 years)					
Cluster 8 (129 voxels) cerebellum - lobule VI		20	60	27	F 00
		30	-60	-27	5.89
cerebellum - lobule VII		38	-61	-29	5.13
Cluster 9 (94 voxels)					
intraparietal sulcus	7/40	-29	-55	40	5.62
superior parietal lobule	7/40	-26	-52	40	5.18
Superior parietarionale	,	-20	-32	40	3.10
Cluster 10 (32 voxels)					
thalamus		11	-10	4	5.57
				•	
Cluster 11 (31 voxels)					
cerebellum - lobule VI		-29	-61	-27	5.39

Table S1B. Maximum activation peak summary of brain regions showing significant activity in the speaking task compared to the baseline (unidirectional t-contrasts, p < .05 FWE corrected at the voxel level, cluster extent threshold of 20 voxels).

Clusters & Region	ВА	MNI	MNI coordinates		
		Х	Υ	Z	
Cluster 1 (152264 voxels)					
transverse temporal gyrus	41	-59	-18	7	36.89
primary motor cortex	4	-45	-15	36	34.32
primary motor cortex	4	47	-9	36	34.28
transverse temporal gyrus	41	51	-21	6	33.75
parietal operculum	40/43	60	-7	9	31.94
Cluster 2 (56 voxels) cerebellar tonsil		6	-34	-45	6.06
Cluster 3 (38 voxels)		-18	-40	-47	5.50
cerebellar tonsil		-12	-36	-45	5.45

Table S1C. Maximum activation peak summary of brain regions showing significant activity in the reading task compared to the baseline (unidirectional t-contrasts, p < .05 FWE corrected at the voxel level, cluster extent threshold of 20 voxels).

Clusters & Regions	ВА	MNI	coordii	nates	Т
		Х	Υ	Z	
Cluster 1 (7621 voxels)					
associative visual cortex	19	44	-79	-3	14.34
secondary visual cortex	18	36	-85	-3	13.55
associative visual cortex (V3)	19	26	-87	-8	12.61
associative visual cortex (V4)	19	33	-85	-9	12.45
Cluster 2 (6907 voxels)					
associative visual cortex (V4)	19	-38	-84	-6	13.54
associative visual cortex	19	-24	-91	4	11.84
fusiform gyrus	37	-38	-48	-20	10.73
associative visual cortex	18	-12	-100	4	7.81
Cluster 3 (487 voxels)					
supplementary motor area	6	-5	2	60	6.88
Cluster 4 (307 voxels)					
primary motor cortex	4	-50	-10	40	6.56
Cluster 5 (124 voxels)					
premotor cortex	6	-62	2	22	6.12
inferior frontal gyrus - pars opercularis	44	-57	5	22	5.97
Cluster 6 (66 voxels)					
premotor cortex	6	51	-3	40	5.80
ol . 7/07					
Cluster 7 (35 voxels)					
supramarginal gyrus	40	-47	-33	40	5.44
Cluster 8 (20 voxels)					
superior parietal lobule	7	-30	-52	61	5.53

Table S1D. Maximum activation peak summary of brain regions showing significant activity in the writing task compared to the baseline (unidirectional t-contrasts, p < .05 FWE corrected at the voxel level, cluster extent threshold of 20 voxels).

Clusters & Regions	BA	MNI	coordi	nates	Т
ciusteis a regions	D A	X	Y	Z	•
Cluster 1 (58392 voxels)					
primary motor cortex	4	-33	-27	55	33.88
premotor cortex	6	-9	-22	46	23.60
premotor cortex	6	-57	6	27	22.69
insula	13	-38	-3	12	22.53
primary somatosensory cortex	2	-54	-22	40	22.22
primary somatosensory cortex	3	-48	-22	46	21.48
parietal operculum	40/43	-45	-25	21	19.65
Cluster 2 (31761 voxels)					
cerebellum - lobule VI		23	-51	-24	27.15
cerebellum - lobule VIII		15	-61	-51	21.45
cerebellum - lobule V		5	-61	-15	20.72
Cluster 3 (6678 voxels)					
primary somatosensory cortex	2	56	-16	33	16.05
primary somatosensory cortex	3	33	-33	45	14.95
supramarginal gyrus	40	59	-13	21	11.70
parietal operculum	40/43	42	-28	21	9.20
Cluster 4 (126 voxels)					
cerebellar tonsil		-9	-36	-45	5.48
Cluster 5 (123 voxels)					
dorsolateral prefrontal cortex	10	-38	36	27	6.52

TABLE S2 - CONJUNCTIONS ANALYSES

Table S2A. Maximum activation peak summary of brain regions showing overlapping activity across the listening and speaking tasks (conjunction analysis, unidirectional t-contrasts, p < .05 FWE corrected at the voxel level, cluster extent threshold of 20 voxels).

Clusters & Regions	ВА	MNI	coordi	nates	Т
		Χ	Υ	Z	
Cluster 1 (19103 voxels)					
transverse temporal gyrus	41	-59	-18	4	23.59
transverse temporal gyrus	42	-63	-25	7	20.06
superior temporal gyrus	22	-59	-34	9	17.45
middle temporal gyrus	21	-54	0	-9	14.75
middle frontal gyrus	9	-38	8	28	9.71
Cluster 2 (13217 voxels)					
superior temporal gyrus	22	63	-12	1	21.71
middle temporal gyrus	21	63	-7	-2	20.96
transverse temporal gyrus	42	62	-22	6	19.71
transverse temporal gyrus	41	57	-21	4	19.60
temporopolar area	38	57	6	-11	15.46
Cluster 3 (3546 voxels)					
supplementary motor area	6	-3	9	55	9.08
middle cingulate cortex	32	8	15	48	8.95
Cluster 4 (1244 voxels)					
inferior frontal gyrus - pars orbitalis	47	38	30	0	8.11
insula	13	35	18	9	6.75
claustrum		30	18	10	6.36
Cluster 5 (429 voxels)					
dorsolateral prefrontal cortex	46	44	14	24	6.70
middle frontal gyrus	9	36	9	24	5.55
inferior frontal gyrus - pars opercularis	44	51	15	28	5.08
Cluster 6 (415 voxels)					
premotor cortex	6	54	3	43	6.89

middle frontal gyrus inferior frontal gyrus - pars opercularis inferior frontal gyrus - pars triangularis	9 44 45	48 54 57	6 15 17	37 33 30	5.57 5.52 5.44
Cluster 7 (139 voxels) cerebellum - lobule VII		14	-73	-44	6.43
Cluster 8 (129 voxels) cerebellum - lobule VI cerebellum - lobule VII		30 38	-60 -61	-27 -29	5.89 5.13
Cluster 9 (102 voxels) cerebellum - lobule VIII cerebellum - lobule VII		-24 -32	-66 -64	-48 -53	5.73 5.47
Cluster 10 (32 voxels) thalamus		11	-10	4	5.57
Cluster 11 (31 voxels) cerebellum - lobule VI		-29	-61	-27	5.39

Table S2B. Maximum activation peak summary of brain regions showing overlapping activity across the reading and writing tasks (conjunction analysis, unidirectional t-contrasts, p < .05 FWE corrected at the voxel level, cluster extent threshold of 20 voxels).

Clusters & Regions	ВА	MNI	MNI coordinates		
		Х	Υ	Z	
Cluster 1 (6282 voxels)					
associative visual cortex (V3)	19	27	-87	-11	12.38
associative visual cortex	19	44	-79	-3	12.19
secondary visual cortex	18	29	-88	-3	11.25
fusiform gyrus	37	39	-57	-18	10.10
Cluster 2 (5854 voxels)					
associative visual cortex (V4)	19	-38	-84	-6	10.93
culmen		-36	-51	-21	10.20
secondary visual cortex	18	-24	-93	3	9.72
associative visual cortex	19	-47	-76	-2	9.32
Cluster 3 (477 voxels)					
supplementary motor area	6	-5	2	60	6.88
Cluster 4 (227 voxels)					
primary motor cortex	4	-51	-12	42	6.27
premotor cortex	6	-51	-7	42	6.19
Cluster 5 (121 voxels)					
premotor cortex	6	-62	2	22	6.12
inferior frontal gyrus - pars opercularis	44	-57	5	22	5.97
Cluster 6 (35 voxels)					
supramarginal gyrus	40	-47	-33	40	5.44
Charter 7 (20 seconds)					
Cluster 7 (20 voxels)	_	20			- - - -
superior parietal lobule	7	-30	-52	61	5.53

Table S2C. Maximum activation peak summary of brain regions showing overlapping activity across the listening and reading tasks (conjunction analysis, unidirectional t-contrasts, p < .05 FWE corrected at the voxel level, cluster extent threshold of 20 voxels).

Clusters & Regions	ВА	MNI coordinates			T
		Х	Υ	Z	
Cluster 1 (487 voxels)					
supplementary motor area	6	-5	2	60	6.88

Cluster 2 (63 voxels)					
inferior frontal gyrus - pars opercularis	44	-57	5	22	5.97
premotor cortex	6	-62	2	21	5.56
Cluster 3 (30 voxels) premotor cortex	6	-50	-4	40	5.77

Table S2D. Maximum activation peak summary of brain regions showing overlapping activity across the speaking and writing tasks (conjunction analysis, unidirectional t-contrasts, p < .05 FWE corrected at the voxel level, cluster extent threshold of 20 voxels).

Clusters & Regions	ВА	MNI	coordi	nates	T
		Х	Υ	Z	
Cluster 1 (44654 voxels)					
supplementary motor area	6	-3	-1	58	19.79
inferior frontal gyrus - pars opercularis	44	-57	5	22	19.39
premotor cortex	6	-57	3	25	19.08
parietal operculum	40/43	-44	-27	19	17.93
primary somatosensory cortex	3	-44	-18	46	17.68
primary motor cortex	4	-45	-16	48	17.61
primary somatosensory cortex	1	-50	-18	46	16.50
Cluster 2 (11156 voxels)					
cerebellum - lobule VI		20	-60	-23	18.18
Cluster 3 (2691 voxels)					
primary somatosensory cortex	3	54	-13	31	12.70
supramarginal gyrus	40	59	-13	21	11.70
Cluster 4 (862 voxels)					
cerebellum - lobule VIII		-21	-66	-53	8.56
Cluster 5 (230 voxels)					
angular gyrus	39	-48	-60	3	8.58
associative visual cortex	19	-45	-55	-8	5.07
Cluster 6 (185 voxels)					
premotor cortex	6	36	-10	48	8.70
Cluster 7 (123 voxels)					
dorsolateral prefrontal cortex	10	-38	36	27	6.52
dorsolateral premontal cortex	10	30	30	2,	0.32
Cluster 8 (94 voxels)					
primary visual cortex	17	14	-91	-3	6.11
secondary visual cortex	18	14	-87	-5	5.86
Cluster 9 (39 voxels)					
premotor cortex	6	18	-18	66	6.04

TABLE S3 - CONJUNCTIONS ANALYSES

Table S3A. Maximum activation peak summary of brain regions showing activity differences between the oral and written types and contrast estimates (main effect of language type, i.e., averaged activity in the listening and speaking tasks compared to averaged activity in the reading and writing tasks, irrespective of the simuli; bidirectional F-contrasts, p < .05 FWE corrected at the voxel level, cluster extent threshold of 20 voxels).

Clusters & Regions BA MNI coordinates T Contrast estimates

		Х	Υ	Z	F	Written	Oral
Cluster 1 (17639 vox)							
superior temporal gyrus	22	62	-15	1	520.12	0.00	0.76
transverse temporal gyrus	41	53	-21	4	432.56	0.05	0.79
Cluster 2 (15519 voxels)							
transverse temporal gyrus	41	-59	-18	4	591.79	0.06	1.48
superior temporal gyrus	22	-65	-39	12	265.90	-0.02	0.70
primary motor cortex	4	-45	-13	34	222.75	0.03	1.07
primary somatosensory cortex	1	-63	-4	18	177.38	0.04	0.77
01 . 0./6645							
Cluster 3 (6645 voxels) primary visual cortex	17	-8	-87	1	62.19	-0.24	0.37
secondary visual cortex	18	-8	-70	15	55.81	-0.06	0.46
Chartes 4 (5405 areas le)							
Cluster 4 (5495 voxels) Secondary visual cortex	18	45	-79	-5	183.17	0.45	-0.08
associative visual cortex	19	47	-75	-6	155.47	0.44	-0.09
associative visual cortex (V3)	v3	38	-87	-9	120.95	0.38	-0.12
cerebellum- lobule VI	VJ	26	-46	-26	99.30	0.73	0.15
Cluster 5 (4128 voxels) primary motor cortex	4	-35	-25	54	197.17	0.93	0.07
primary motor cortex	2	-51	-25	40	74.93	0.58	0.07
primary somatosensory cortex	1	-50	-23 -21	55	74.93	0.58	0.11
premotor cortex	6	-30 -27	-21 -9	58	41.88	0.38	0.08
superior parietal lobule	7	-32	-45	58	35.25	0.47	0.11
Cluster 6 (4051 voxels)	_						
associative visual cortex (V4)	v4	-38	-84	-6	127.58	0.47	-0.03
associative visual cortex	19	-45	-79	-3	98.25	0.44	-0.05
secondary visual cortex	18	-24	-93	3	91.89	0.57	-0.03
associative visual cortex (V3)	v3	-18	-88	-14	60.62	0.50	0.07
culmen		-35	-48	-20	51.69	0.46	0.07
Cluster 7 (812 voxels)							
inferior frontal gyrus - pars triangularis	45	53	29	4	53.99	-0.04	0.33
inferior frontal gyrus - pars orbitalis	47	39	27	1	52.47	0.06	0.53
Cluster 9 (901 vevels)							
Cluster 8 (801 voxels)	2	25	21	42	5E 7F	0.46	0.02
primary somatosensory cortex	3	35	-31	42	55.75	0.46	0.03
supramarginal	40	39	-28	42	53.34	0.41	0.01
Cluster 9 (617 voxels)							
middle frontal gyrus	9	39	15	27	62.65	-0.10	0.34
dorsolateral prefrontal cortex	46	44	17	24	53.72	-0.06	0.34
Cluster 10 (616 voxels)							
dorsolateral prefrontal cortex	46	-39	17	25	51.73	0.06	0.49
middle frontal gyrus	9	-39	9	27	48.41	0.12	0.58
Cluster 11 (480 voxels)							
supplementary motor area	6	-8	-24	48	89.10	0.59	0.05
	-	-	-	-		-	
Cluster 12 (389 voxels)	47	25	20	0	47.05	0.10	0.47
inferior frontal gyrus - pars orbitalis	47	-35	26	0	47.85	0.10	0.47
Cluster 13 (355 voxels)							
cerebellum- lobule VIII		18	-57	-54	94.78	0.48	0.00
Cluster 14 (139 voxels)							
premotor cortex	6	24	-6	57	48.69	0.38	0.04
Cluster 15 (109 veyels)							
Cluster 15 (108 voxels) supplementary motor area	6	0	8	61	36.92	0.38	0.85
	J	J	J	01	23.32	0.50	3.33
Cluster 16 (69 voxels)	_	4.0	30	6 2	42.50	0.05	0.22
premotor cortex	6	18	-28	63	42.50	0.05	0.39
primary somatosensory cortex	3	17	-28	57	29.86	0.03	0.23

Figure S3B. Maximum activation peak summary of brain regions showing activity differences between the perception and production modes and contrast estimates (main effect of language mode, i.e., averaged activity in the listening and reading tasks compared to averaged activity in the reading and writing tasks, irrespective of stimuli; bidirectional F-contrasts, p < .05 FWE corrected at the voxel level, cluster extent threshold of 20 voxels).

Clusters & Regions	ВА	MNI	coordi	nates	F	Contrast 6	estimates
crasters a regions	5,1	Х	Υ	Z	•		Production
Cluster 1 (35528 voxels)						•	
primary motor cortex	4	-36	-18	49	307.60	0.08	1.13
premotor cortex	6	-3	-3	55	177.76	0.34	1.36
premotor cortex	6	-59	3	25	170.98	0.22	0.82
parietal operculum	40/43	-36	-31	19	167.85	0.37	1.22
primary somatosensory cortex	3	-45	-18	37	165.33	0.15	0.94
Cluster 2 (13204 voxels)							
primary motor cortex	4	47	-9	36	161.46	0.17	1.05
premotor cortex	6	60	2	24	141.46	0.17	0.85
primary somatosensory cortex	3	60	-1	22	137.72	0.17	0.98
middle frontal gyrus	9	59	3	25	136.19	0.14	0.68
insula	13	45	6	6	112.86	0.10	0.54
Cluster 3 (7715 voxels)							
cerebellum - lobule VI		18	-57	-21	212.73	0.11	0.83
cerebellum - lobule V		6	-60	-15	162.29	0.12	0.91
Cluster 4 (1399 voxels)							
cerebellum - lobule IX		12	-63	-50	99.37	0.09	0.61
cerebellum - lobule VIII		12	-66	-47	93.79	0.14	0.61
cerebellum - lobule VIII		20	-55	-53	84.86	0.05	0.47
Cluster 5 (703 voxels)							
thalamus		12	-16	6	80.49	0.12	0.55
Cluster 6 (180 voxels)							
primary visual cortex	17	-11	-67	6	32.88	0.04	0.51
Cluster 7 (178 voxels)							
anterior cingulate cortex	31	12	-25	48	47.25	0.05	0.31
primary motor cortex	4	8	-30	51	27.80	0.07	0.32
Cluster 8 (125 voxels)							
cerebellum - lobule VIII		-35	-55	-56	40.38	0.07	0.33
Cluster 9 (104 voxels)							
premotor cortex	6	18	-28	61	42.60	0.06	0.37
Cluster 10 (91 voxels)							
middle frontal gyrus	9	-35	38	30	41.50	0.06	0.37
Cluster 11 (68 voxels)							
primary visual cortex	17	24	-69	10	31.12	0.06	0.34
fusiform gyrus	30	27	-64	9	28.88	0.05	0.34

Figure S3C. Maximum activation peak summary of brain regions showing activity changes between the oral and written types that varied according to the perception and production modes and contrast

estimates (language type x language mode interaction). Bidirectional F-contrasts, p < .05 FWE corrected at the voxel level, cluster extent threshold of 20 voxels.

Clusters & Regions	ВА	MNI	coordi	nates	F		Contrast	t estimates	1
		X	Υ	Z		Reading	Writing	Listening	Speaking
Cluster 1 (5266 voxels)						-	•		•
primary motor cortex	4	47	-9	36	294.38	0.22	-0.04	0.12	2.15
primary somatosensory cortex	3	59	-3	22	200.02	0.15	-0.01	0.17	1.96
parietal operculum	40/43	38	-12	18	59.56	0.09	-0.16	0.15	0.67
transverse temporal gyrus	41	51	-10	7	54.78	0.09	0.02	0.87	1.81
transverse temporal gyrus	41	51	-21	6	52.72	0.05	0.10	0.68	1.35
Cluster 2 (3809 voxels)									
primary motor cortex	4	-33	-25	54	245.21	0.03	1.78	0.08	0.07
primary somatosensory cortex	2	-53	-24	39	67.81	0.12	0.98	0.09	0.16
supramarginal gyrus	40	-53	-24	28	28.20	0.05	0.43	0.06	0.14
Cluster 3 (3103 voxels)									
primary motor cortex	4	-45	-13	34	314.13	0.20	-0.14	0.11	2.02
primary somatosensory cortex	3	-60	-6	21	205.53	0.19	-0.09	0.15	1.64
	_		-			0.20		0.20	
Cluster 4 (815 voxels)		2.4	40	2.0	400.04	0.00	4.36	0.07	0.22
cerebellum - lobule VI		21	-48	-26	108.01	0.06	1.26	0.07	0.20
cerebellum - lobule V		6	-49	-11	37.64	0.10	0.88	0.11	0.25
Cluster 5 (621 voxels)									
supplementary motor area	6	-8	-22	49	111.08	0.03	0.99	0.05	0.03
Cluster 6 (610 voxels)									
primary somatosensory cortex	2	36	-31	43	53.52	0.19	0.73	0.15	-0.08
supramarginal gyrus	40	39	-28	42	48.25	0.19	0.64	0.13	-0.11
intraparietal sulcus	7/40	32	-34	40	44.06	0.16	0.64	0.15	-0.09
Cluster 7 (561 voxels)									
transverse temporal gyrus	41	-41	-27	6	50.47	0.00	0.13	0.57	1.28
superior temporal gyrus	22	-62	-24	3	36.16	0.05	-0.03	0.53	0.81
Cluster 8 (539 voxels)									
cerebellum - lobule VIII		15	-58	-54	105.04	0.01	0.90	0.03	-0.03
Cluster 0 (177									
Cluster 9 (177 voxels) premotor cortex	6	24	-4	57	44.43	0.15	0.59	0.12	-0.01
premotor cortex	U	24	_	37	77.73	0.13	0.55	0.12	0.01
Cluster 10 (158 voxels)									
premotor cortex	6	17	-27	61	54.90	0.10	0.03	0.06	0.67
Cluster 11 (69 voxels)									
insula	13	-39	-3	12	46.15	0.11	0.87	0.12	0.31
Cluster 12 (41 voxels)									
parietal operculum	40/43	-47	-24	22	37.82	0.07	0.66	0.17	0.29
Cluster 13 (35 voxels)									
cerebellum - lobule VIII		5	-67	-35	34.79	0.08	0.85	0.08	0.16
Cluster 14 (20 voxels)									
primary motor cortex	4	-18	-30	61	36.23	0.08	0.23	0.06	0.72

Table S3D. Activity differences between p, b, t and stimuli, irrespective of the four tasks and contrast estimates (main effect of stimulus; bidirectional F-contrasts, p < .05 FWE corrected at the voxel level, cluster extent threshold of 20 voxels).

Clusters & Regions	ВА	MNI	coordi	nates	F	Cor	ntrast	estima	ates
		Х	Υ	Z		В	D	Р	Т
Cluster 1 (1726 voxels)									
transverse temporal gyrus	41	57	-9	4	32.89	0.82	0.80	0.62	0.61

transverse temporal gyrus	42	63	-21	10	20.73	0.76	0.73	0.61	0.59
Cluster 2 (1084 voxels) transverse temporal gyrus	41	-53	-15	4	27.49	0.72	0.74	0 59	0.58
1 0,	71	33	13	7	27.43	0.72	0.74	0.55	0.50
Cluster 3 (380 voxels) secondary visual cortex	18	6	-78	-5	22.66	0.28	0.15	0.07	0.27
•		-		-					0,
primary visual cortex	17	-3	-78	-3	16.18	0.22	0.25	0.10	0.32
Cluster 4 (267 voxels)									
secondary visual cortex	18	-14	-91	-5	25.53	0.21	0.17	0.23	0.06
primary visual cortex	17	-14	-94	-2	21.65	0.21	0.19	0.23	0.06
Cluster 5 (46 voxels)									
associative visual cortex (V4)	v4	-20	-73	-8	15.55	0.19	0.24	0.09	0.24
Cluster 6 (38 voxels)									
primary visual cortex	17	20	-91	1	14.97	0.22	0.25	0.20	0.12

Table S3E. Activity differences between p, b, t and stimuli that varied according to the oral and written types and contrast estimates (language type x stimulus interaction; W: written type, O: oral type; bidirectional F-contrasts, p < .05 FWE corrected at the voxel level, cluster extent threshold of 20 voxels).

Clusters & Regions	BA		MNI		F			Con	trast e	stima	tes		
		Х	Υ	Z		W-	W-D	W-P	W-T	О-В	O-D	O-T	O-D
Cluster 1 (519 voxels)													
transverse temporal gyrus	41	51	-16	4	25.7	0.0	0.07	0.02	0.05	1.2	1.1	0.9	0.9
superior temporal gyrus	22	60	-6	0	14.5	0.0	0.07	0.02	0.02	0.9	0.9	0.7	0.7
parietal operculum	40/4	62	-7	6	12.3	0.1	0.13	0.08	0.08	1.6	1.5	1.3	1.3
Cluster 2 (479 voxels)													
transverse temporal gyrus	41	-45	-25	7	21.4	0.1	0.11	0.11	0.10	1.6	1.5	1.2	1.3
Cluster 3 (416 voxels)													
secondary visual cortex	18	6	-76	-5	21.5	0.2	-	-	0.22	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
primary visual cortex	17	-5	-78	-6	20.7	0.0	0.14	-	0.23	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2
Cluster 4 (384 voxels)													
secondary visual cortex	18	-12	-91	-6	29.3	0.3	0.20	0.35	0.00	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1
primary visual cortex	17	-14	-100	-2	13.6	0.3	0.43	0.31	0.21	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Cluster 5 (51 voxels)													
primary visual cortex	17	18	-91	1	16.1	0.2	0.36	0.27	0.06	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Cluster 6 (41 voxels)													
inferior frontal gyrus - pars	47	38	23	-5	14.6	0.0	0.04	-	-	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.4
Cluster 7 (22 voxels)													
insula	13	-30	27	1	13.5	0.1	0.14	0.04	0.10	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4

TABLE S4 - ROI ANALYSIS - CROSS-MODAL ACTIVITY

Individual coordinates for the 7 ROIs analyzed. Each line is the coordinates for one individuall, the mean and standard deviation for the group are given at the bottom of the table.

							Le	ft Planu	m	Rig	ht Plani	um									
		Left A1		1	Right A1		Te	emporal	e	T	emporal	le		V1		Lef	t Fusifo	rm	Rigl	ht Fusifo	orm
	-53	-20	0	50	-15	3	-60	-18	3	68	-11	5	-3	-88	-14	-38	-66	-17	42	-61	-14
	-48	-21	0	54	-14	2	-65	-26	2	59	-11	2	-3	-91	-1	-38	-68	-14	47	-67	-11
	-45	-23	8	50	-8	-5	-65	-23	9	66	-14	3	-12	-90	-9	-40	-56	-14	39	-57	-15
	-47	-23	5	51	-12	3	-65	-21	3	66	-17	2	14	-93	-12	-39	-59	-15	44	-65	-14
	-51	-20	5	45	-12	-2	-65	-15	5	59	-15	2	0	-90	-9	-41	-57	-17	39	-59	-18
	-45	-24	5	51	-8	2	-63	-23	6	70	-14	5	8	-92	-5	-44	-62	-18	42	-57	-15
	-47	-17	6	50	-11	-2	-66	-21	5	65	-14	0	-15	-87	-14	-41	-78	-9	36	-78	-14
	-51	-21	2	57	-9	3	-54	-21	2	68	-14	3	-2	-87	-12	-45	-62	-14	47	-59	-15
	-53	-15	0	57	-17	0	-62	-17	3	63	-11	3	-21	-93	-2	-35	-60	-15	44	-56	-17
	-48	-20	6	50	-11	5	-62	-18	9	66	-11	-2	9	-93	-11	-35	-60	-18	44	-62	-17
	-45	-18	2	59	-11	-2	-65	-20	2	66	-15	6	-9	-95	-8	-39	-63	-18	42	-60	-15
	-57	-17	2	50	-15	0	-67	-26	2	66	-14	5	-9	-99	-14	-45	-59	-12	42	-59	-14
	-54	-20	5	54	-3	5	-65	-21	3	65	-17	5	-14	-99	0	-44	-53	-15	44	-57	-14
	-48	-18	5	56	-12	-2	-65	-17	3	57	-17	2	11	-90	-5	-39	-51	-11	36	-45	-20
	-45	-21	0	53	-12	1	-64	-18	8	66	-14	0	-8	-93	-15	-38	-83	-8	42	-77	-14
	-47	-17	2	50	-9	0	-63	-15	3	66	-15	2	-6	-89	-9	-41	-57	-12	42	-62	-9
	-47	-23	6	53	-11	3	-60	-20	6	68	-11	2	11	-90	-12	-42	-62	-15	44	-62	-14
	-47	-21	3	50	-12	-2	-66	-15	3	63	-12	2	-19	-93	-6	-41	-60	-9	44	-57	-18
	-50	-20	6	59	-11	12	-62	-17	5	65	-17	-2	12	-87	-11	-42	-63	-7	44	-57	-15
	-48	-23	6	52	-15	9	-65	-15	6	66	-5	2	10	-95	-12	-44	-60	-9	45	-63	-15
	-45	-18	2	54	-14	0	-63	-21	3	63	-15	2	-11	-94	-8	-38	-56	-12	42	-56	-15
	-53	-20	0	51	-11	-3	-66	-14	0	62	-15	2	14	-93	-9	-42	-65	-9	42	-60	-15
group mean	-48,8	-20,0	3,5	52,5	-11,5	1,4	-63,5	-19,2	4,1	64,7	-13,6	2,3	-2,0	-91,9	-9,0	-40,5	-61,8	-13,1	42,4	-60,7	-14,9
group std	3,4	2,4	2,5	3,5	3,0	4,0	2,9	3,5	2,4	3,2	2,8	2,1	11,4	3,4	4,3	2,9	7,3	3,5	2,9	6,9	2,3

TABLE **\$5** - Individual spatial analyses of frontal activations

Table S5A. Individual ROI analysis related to common motor activity in the listening∩speaking conjunction. MNI coordinates of the centre of gravity (COG) of each cluster of activity within the pars triangularis (BA45, IFG-PT) and pars opercularis (BA44, IFG-PO) of the inferior frontal gyrus and to the premotor (BA6, PMC) and primary motor (BA4, M1) determined for each participant and in both hemispheres according to the 'listening∩speaking' contrast (p < .001 uncorrected, cluster extent threshold of 20 voxels).

Subject	Left	IFG	-PO	Righ	nt IFG	i-PO	Left	: IFG	-PT	Righ	nt IFG	i-PT	Lef	t PN	νС	Rig	tht Pi	νс	Le	eft M	1	Ri	ght N	/1
S1				52	16	24																		
S2	-54	12	23	53	12	-3				44	27	1				49	3	46						
S3	-40	11	29										-48	-5	45	19	-21	56	-52	-1	27			
													-27	-7	54				-47	-8	41	16	-25	55
S4	-50	8	19													57	-1	35				54	-3	34
S5										49	29	2												
S6	-49	18	26	58	19	21	-52	23	25	59	23	21	-51	1	40	54	3	40	-49	-6	37			
	-59	8	11	57	8	1							-60	4	18	63	5	19						
S7				54	9	-1																		
S8																								
S9				57	8	1							-48	-5	44	52	-1	44	-47	-8	41			
													-59	4	31	60	3	24						
													-27	-9	52									
S10	-51	9	4	51	19	1	-50	37	9							57	7	38						
S11																								
S12	-49	25	6	55	9	-2	-52	29	9				-52	-3	44	56	2	39	-50	-6	40			
			-		12	23			-					-						-				
S13	-55	16	8							48	30	8	-52	-2	43	56	0	39	-49	-5	38	53	-2	27
	-58	-	_									-	-57		_		-			_			_	
S14	00	,											٠,	·		60	3	24	-44	-11	38	47	-9	37
																	•		•		00	55	1	23
S15	-48	10	24										-59	4	28	52	2	45	-54	2	24	00	-	
S16	-47	9	22											•		~ _	_		٠.	_				
S17		19	11																					
S18	-51	_	2	54	11	3	-51	30	7	54	29	4	-56	1	42	55	7	37						
310	-46		7	J-7		,	51	50	,	J-7	25	7	50	_	72	55	,	٠,						
S19	-55	9	19										-56	5	26									
313	55	,	13										-47	_	-									
													-4/	4	41									

SD																			3					
Mean	-51	13	15	54	12	7	-51	29	14	51	29	6	-51	0	37	53	1	37	-50	-4	33	47	-6	33
S23																								
S22	-46	11	25	59	9	1							-50	1	43									
S21	-54	9	12	55	13	10				54	31	4	-57	5	21				-54	1	22			
				52	12	19							-60	5	20	49	0	48						
S20	-57	11	11	55	12	0	-50	27	18	50	32	1	-49	-1	47	60	5	24	-53	0	25	55	1	22

Table S5B. Individual ROI analysis related to common motor activity in the reading∩writing conjunction. MNI coordinates of the centre of gravity (COG) of each cluster of activity within the pars triangularis (BA45, IFG-PT) and pars opercularis (BA44, IFG-PO) of the inferior frontal gyrus and to the premotor (BA6, PMC) and primary motor (BA4, M1) determined for each participant and in both hemispheres according to the 'reading∩writing' contrast (p < .001 uncorrected, cluster extent threshold of 20 voxels).

Cleta.at	1 - 64	IFC	БО.	D:	-64 15	·~	1.4	+ 150		D:-	L+ 154	_	1	C+ DA	-	D:-	L D	N 4 C		- £+ D.4	4	D:-b+	
Subject	Left	IFG.	-20	KI	ght IF	·G-	Let	t IFC	<u> </u>	KIS	ht IF	<u>J-</u>		ft PN	<u>1C</u> 5	KIg	nt P	MC	Le	eft M	т	Right	
S1 S2													-	-	5								
S3		_												_	_								
S4	-54	8	13										-	-8	5								
													-	-1	3								
S5																							
S6													-	-	6	5	5	3	-	-	4		
													-	2	2	6	7	2	-	1	2		
													-	-	5								
S7																							
S8	-53	8	18				-52	33	3	48	38	1	-	5	1				-	3	2		
S9																							
	-51	8	10										_	-3	5				_	1	2		
S11	_	_													_								
S12													_	-2	4	5	0	3	_	_	4		
S13														_	•	J	Ū	J			·		
S14	-50	8	19										_	4	2	5	-2	4	_	1	2		
314	30	Ü	13											7	_	5	5	2		-	_		
S15																,	J	_					
S16	-57	10	21											1	3	6	4	2	_	-3	3		
310	-57	10	21										-	-5	5	O	4	2	-	-5	Э		
647													-	-5	Э								
S17					4.0	22								_	_								
S18	-50		1	55	12	22							-	6	3								
	-49	8	22										-	-	5								
S19																							
S20	-52	10	2	54	9	-2										6	2	2					
S21													-	4	2	5	4	3					
S22																							
S23													-	6	2								
Mean	-52	9	13	55	11	10	-52	33	3	48	38	1	-	-2	4	5	3	3	-	-3	3		
SD	3	1	8	1	2	17							16	6	1	3	3	7	5	6	1		

TABLE S6. BOLD ACTIVITY DIFFERENCES BETWEEN STIMULI

Table S6A. Maximum activation peak summary of brain regions showing stronger activity for voiced compared to unvoiced stimuli in the listening task (unidirectional t-contrasts, p < .05 FWE corrected at the voxel level, cluster extent threshold of 20 voxels).

Clusters & Regions	BA	MNI	coordin	nates	Т
		Х	Υ	Z	
Cluster 1 (1896 voxels)					
superior temporal gyrus	22	57	-9	4	8.13

transverse temporal gyrus	41	53	-21	4	8.04
transverse temporal gyrus	42	63	-21	9	7.00
parietal operculum	13/40	47	-27	15	6.11
supramarginal gyrus	40	63	-25	16	5.57
Cluster 2 (1540 voxels) transverse temporal gyrus superior temporal gyrus supramaginal gyrus	41 22 40	-53 -53 -47	-18 -12 -37	4 -3 16	8.36 6.37 5.15

Table S6B. Maximum activation peak summary of brain regions showing stronger activity for voiced compared to unvoiced stimuli in the speaking task (unidirectional t-contrasts, p < .05 FWE corrected at the voxel level, cluster extent threshold of 20 voxels).

Clusters & Regions	ВА	MNI c	oordina	ates	Т
		Х	Υ	Z	
Cluster 1 (1370 voxels)					
superior temporal gyrus	22	53	-15	4	10.36
transverse temporal gyrus	41	57	-16	6	9.71
Cluster 2 (1053 voxels)					
transverse temporal gyrus	41	-47	-27	7	8.96
superior temporal gyrus	22	-53	-15	4	8.44

Table S6C. Maximum activation peak summary of brain regions showing stronger activity for labial compared to coronal stimuli in the speaking task (unidirectional t-contrasts, p < .05 FWE corrected at the voxel level, cluster extent threshold of 20 voxels).

Clusters & Regions	ВА	MNI	coordii	nates	T
		Х	Υ	Z	
Cluster 1 (99 voxels)					
primary motor cortex	4	47	-13	39	5.83
primary somatosensory cortex	3	53	-13	39	5.52

Table S6D. Maximum activation peak summary of brain regions showing stronger activity for voiced compared unvoiced stimuli in the reading task (unidirectional t-contrasts, p < .05 FWE corrected at the voxel level, cluster extent threshold of 20 voxels).

Clusters & Regions	ВА	MNI coordinates			Т
		Х	Υ	Z	
Cluster 1 (92 voxels)					
primary visual cortex	17	-17	-100	-2	6.08
associative visual cortex (V3)	19	-21	-96	-5	5.30

Table S6E. Maximum activation peak summary of brain regions showing stronger activity for labial compared to coronal stimuli in the reading task (unidirectional t-contrasts, p < .05 FWE corrected at the voxel level, cluster extent threshold of 20 voxels).

Clusters & Regions	ВА	MNI coordinates			Т
		Х	Υ	Z	
Cluster 1 (336 voxels)					
associative visual cortex (V3)	19	-12	-91	-6	9.20

Table S6F. Maximum activation peak summary of brain regions showing stronger activity for coronal compared to labial stimuli in the reading task (unidirectional t-contrasts, p < .05 FWE corrected at the voxel level, cluster extent threshold of 20 voxels).

Clusters & Regions	ВА	MNI coordinates			Т
		Х	Υ	Z	
Cluster 1 (208 voxels) primary visual cortex	17	-5	-78	-6	7.66
Cluster 2 (24 voxels) associative visual cortex (V3)	19	-20	-72	-8	5.57

Table S6G. Maximum activation peak summary of brain regions showing stronger activity for labial compared to coronal stimuli in the writing task (unidirectional t-contrasts, p < .05 FWE corrected at the voxel level, cluster extent threshold of 20 voxels).

Clusters & Regions	ВА	MNIc	T		
		Х	Υ	Z	
Cluster 1 (162 voxels)					
associative visual cortex (V3)	19	-14	-90	-6	7.35