With Childhood Hemispherectomy, One Hemisphere Can Support—

But is Suboptimal for—Word and Face Recognition

Michael C. Granovetter[1,2,3], Leah Ettensohn[1,2,4], & Marlene Behrmann[1,2]

[1]Department of Psychology, Carnegie Mellon University
[2]Neuroscience Institute, Carnegie Mellon University
[3]School of Medicine, University of Pittsburgh
[4]Laboratory of Brain and Cognition, National Institute of Mental Health

Corresponding author: Michael C. Granovetter granovetter@cmu.edu

Number of words (abstract): 150

Number of words (main text): 6853

Number of figures: 5

Number of tables: 3

Number of supplementary figures: 3

Abstract

The left and right cerebral hemispheres are important for word and face recognition,

respectively—a specialization that emerges over human development. But children who have

undergone a hemispherectomy develop with only one hemisphere. The question is whether this

preserved hemisphere, be it left or right, can support both word and face recognition. Here, a

large sample of patients with childhood hemispherectomy and age-matched controls performed

word- and face-matching tasks. Controls viewed stimuli either in one visual field (restricting

initial processing to one hemisphere) or, like the patients, in central vision. Across word and

face tasks, patients performed comparably to controls using primarily one hemisphere, but more

poorly than controls viewing stimuli centrally with both hemispheres engaged. Additionally,

patients showed deficits in low-level visual processing that may explain their word/face

recognition deficits relative to controls. Altogether, the findings suggest that either hemisphere

alone can support word and face recognition, albeit sub-optimally.

Introduction

The visual perception of complex patterns, such as words and faces, is governed by the ventral visual pathway (Barttfeld et al., 2018; Grill-Spector and Malach, 2004; Grill-Spector and Weiner, 2014). Here, word and face recognition is largely, albeit not solely, the product of computations in the left and right hemispheres (LH and RH), respectively (Behrmann and Plaut, 2020, 2015). This hemispheric superiority profile is well-supported by behavioral (Dundas et al., 2013), electrophysiological (Dundas et al., 2014; Maurer et al., 2008; Rossion et al., 2003), and neuroimaging (Dehaene et al., 2002; Hasson et al., 2002; Puce et al., 1996) investigations. Neuropsychological studies in adults further suggest that each hemisphere is necessary for one of the two processes: whereas adults with focal lesions in left ventral occipitotemporal cortex (VOTC) show specific, significant impairments in word reading (Behrmann et al., 1990; Cohen et al., 2003; Damasio and Damasio, 1983), those with focal lesions in right VOTC show specific, significant impairments in face recognition (Albonico and Barton, 2019; De Renzi, 1986; Landis et al., 1986). That these striking impairments arise from focal lesions lends credence to the claim of hemispheric superiorities for word and face recognition, at least in the adult human brain (Robotham and Starrfelt, 2017).

Unlike these adult lesion patients, however, *children* who undergo resection of an entire cerebral hemisphere, or hemispherectomy (also hemispherotomy; see Kim et al. (2018) for distinction), for pharmacoresistant epilepsy treatment can show remarkable maintenance and/or recovery of cognitive functions post-surgery (Moletto et al., 2018; Pulsifer et al., 2004; van Empelen et al., 2004). It is established that hemispheric superiorities for word and face recognition emerge over development and with experience (Dehaene et al., 2010; Scherf et al., 2007). It is less clear, however, whether there is sufficient plasticity such that development with a single hemisphere can normatively support both word and face recognition. A further question to be answered is whether this plasticity is equivalent for the left and right hemispheres, or whether the integrity of both word and face recognition is contingent on *which* of the two

hemispheres is ultimately preserved. The answers to these questions have the potential to shed

light on proposed foundational qualities of the computational profiles of each of the

hemispheres.

In addition to the hemispheric superiorities for complex visual patterns, there are

hemispheric superiorities for low-level visual information. Several behavioral and neuroimaging

studies have confirmed that the left hemisphere (LH) is better tuned for high spatial frequency

(HSF) information, which is well suited for detecting fine edges and abrupt luminance changes.

In contrast, the right hemisphere (RH) is better tuned for low spatial frequency (LSF) information

with fewer transitions between an image's darker and lighter patches such that global shape

may still be derived (Hellige et al., 2010; Kauffmann et al., 2014; Sergent and Hellige, 1986).

Indeed, on behavioral experiments, adults show respective LH and RH advantages for

classifying HSF and LSF stimuli (Kitterle et al., 1992; Kitterle and Selig, 1991; Peyrin et al.,

2003). Consistently, on functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI), the LH and RH show

greater selectivity for HSF and LSF gratings, respectively (Peyrin et al., 2004). Further

confirmation comes from studies with patients with LH or RH lesions who show respective

deficits in processing HSF or LSF input (dos Santos et al., 2013). The differential tuning of the

LH and RH for HSF and LSF stimulus identification, respectively, is well aligned with

hemispheric superiorities for words and faces: words consist of greater power in the HSF

interval, whereas faces are characterized by a broad band of HSFs and LSFs. In fact, on fMRI,

word- and face-selective voxels evince respective selectivity for HSF and LSF gratings

(Woodhead et al., 2011), and a posterior LH lesion results in both reduced HSF sensitivity and

impaired reading (alexia; Roberts et al., 2013). One possible mechanism whereby a single

hemisphere can support both word and face recognition may be atypical sensitivity to select SF

ranges. Either preserved hemisphere, be it the LH or RH (or perhaps only one of these), may,

for example, have an atypically broad SF profile and, in this way, accommodate both word and

face recognition.

Thus, the primary objectives of the current study were to determine: 1) whether pediatric

patients who develop with only one hemisphere exhibit comparable word and face recognition to

age-matched typically developing controls, 2) whether performance is contingent on which

hemisphere is preserved, and 3) whether patients' SF tuning profile of the preserved

hemisphere differs from the corresponding hemisphere of controls. That is, despite hemispheric

biases that emerge in typical development (Behrmann and Plaut, 2020, 2015), can one

hemisphere (either left or right) normatively support both word and face recognition, and is this

contingent on the individual's SF tuning profile?

Results

Hemispherectomy patients (here and throughout, the term includes hemispherotomy

patients) performed word/face discrimination and SF identification tasks (see Materials and

Methods and Figures 1 and 3 for details) with stimuli presented foveally in central vision. To

examine the competence of a patient's single hemisphere, their performance was compared to

that of the "*one-hemisphere controls*" who viewed stimuli on separate trials in the LVF or RVF in

order to restrict initial processing to one hemisphere (Bourne, 2006). As patients viewed stimuli

centrally while one-hemisphere controls viewed stimuli in the half-fields, to equate viewing

conditions to the patients, a second group, the *"central controls"* viewed stimuli under conditions

identical to those of the patients. Whilst equating fixation conditions here and ensuring more

similar foveal acuity for the patients and controls, this manipulation resulted in a difference in

hemispheres available for processing (one for patients, two for central controls). This

"confound," however, turns out to be a feature rather than a bug in that it permits a direct

comparison between the capabilities of a single hemisphere (in patients) and central controls for

whom visual information is encoded by both hemispheres. It should be noted that one-

hemisphere controls were not directly compared to central controls because the two groups

differed on two variables: the stimuli's foveal representation and the number of hemispheres

primarily utilized for the tasks.

Twenty-six hemispherectomy patients, 17 with left-sided resections and 9 with right-

sided resections; 93 one-hemisphere controls; and 34 central controls participated in at least

one of the experimental tasks (word recognition, face recognition, SF identification). For a

detailed patient summary, sample sizes of each group for each task, and description of age-

matching, see Materials and Methods. Accuracy (the proportion of correct trials) was used as

the primary dependent variable, as reaction time (RT) may be confounded by significant motor

impairments (including with hand movements) among the patients (Kim et al., 2018; van

Empelen et al., 2004). In fact, RT has been shown to be longer in cases with larger lesions

(Heitzer et al., 2019). For reference, RT data are plotted in Fig. S1 and S2.

In the following group analyses, an α criterion of 0.05 was designated as the significance

threshold. Additionally, an effect size (Cohen's *d*) of less than 0.35, between 0.35 and 0.65, and

greater than 0.65 should be interpreted as small, moderate, and large, respectively

(Sawilowsky, 2009). Last, to confirm null hypotheses (or lack thereof) Bayes Factors (BFs) were

computed as the ratio of the prior predictive probabilities of the null model excluding the effect of

interest and interactions of that effect with other predictors, to the full alternative model. A BF

between 0.33 and 1, 0.1 and 0.33, 0.03 and 0.1, 0.01 and 0.03, or less than 0.01 should be

interpreted as anecdotal, moderate, strong, very strong, or extreme evidence for the *alternative*

model, respectively. On the other hand, a BF between 1 and 3, 3 and 10, 10 and 30, 30 and

100, or greater than 100 should be interpreted as anecdotal, moderate, strong, very strong, or

extreme evidence for the *null* model, respectively (Lee and Wagenmakers, 2013;

Wagenmakers, 2007). See Materials and Methods for further details on statistical computations.

<u>Word and Face Discrimination</u>

Participants viewed sequential pairs of stimuli (words and faces, in separate blocks) and

indicated via one of two key presses whether stimuli in a pair were the same or different (Fig. 1).

All patients and central controls viewed all stimuli at central fixation (Fig. 1A). In contrast, for

one-hemisphere controls, the second stimulus in a pair was presented in the LVF or RVF

(randomly, approximately half of trials for each field; Fig. 1B) with brief exposure duration to

preclude saccades. Thus, word and face discrimination performance accuracy could be

compared between patients with only a single hemisphere vs. each one-hemisphere controls

and central controls using both hemispheres.

137
Figure 1. Participants viewed sequential pairs of words (top) and faces (bottom) in separate blocks. Participants were
asked to indicate, via a key press, whether stimuli in a pair were the same or different. Stimuli are not drawn to scale.
A: Patients and "central controls" viewed all stimuli at central fixation. **B**: "One-hemisphere controls" viewed the
second stimulus in one of two visual hemifields on a given trial to initially restrict processing to a single hemisphere
(Bourne, 2006).

For each group comparison (patients vs. one-hemisphere controls and patients vs.

central controls), a linear mixed effects model was fit to the data (plotted in Fig. 2). Group

(patients vs. controls), primary hemisphere used (left vs. right; patients' preserved hemisphere

or controls' hemisphere associated with a hemifield), stimulus category (words vs. faces), and

all interactions between these variables were modeled as predictors of accuracy. Note that

hemisphere used was not modeled as a predictor for the patients vs. central controls

comparison as, in this instance, hemisphere used (one vs. two) is equivalent to group. Age was

also included in the models as a covariate predictor, as evidence suggests that hemispheric

biases for word and face recognition change over development (Behrmann and Plaut, 2020;

Dehaene-Lambertz et al., 2018; Dundas et al., 2014). Participant was the sole random effect

term in each model, with a different intercept for each participant. The predictions for the group

comparisons are laid out below.

155
Figure 2. Violin plots show the distribution of accuracy values on the word and face recognition tasks for each group
(patients and controls) by hemisphere used (left vs. right for patients and "one-hemisphere" controls viewing stimuli in
the hemifields; both hemispheres for "central controls" viewing stimuli centrally) and stimulus category (words vs.
faces). Overlaid point plots show the individual values for each participant. To visualize any effect of age, points are
separated by terciles of the age distribution, shown in different shades of blue (controls) and red (patients). Points are
randomly jittered to minimize overlapping data. yr = years.

Patients vs. One-Hemisphere Controls

If hemispheric biases for stimulus categories differed by group (for example, if patients

with only a RH were to perform poorly on face or on word recognition relative to controls), a

significant three-way interaction of group x hemisphere used x stimulus category on accuracy

would be expected. As this three-way interaction is most important, it is discussed first followed

by lower-order interactions, and then main effects. Critically, there was no such significant

interaction ($t_{(223)}$ = 0.54, p = 0.59, d = 0.04, BF = $1.53*10^1$; see Fig. 2). At the same time, there

was a significant two-way interaction effect of hemisphere used x stimulus category on accuracy

($t_{(223)}$ = 4.52, p < 0.01, d = 0.30, BF = $8.57*10^{-3}$), suggesting that the well-established

hemispheric superiorities for words and faces (Behrmann and Plaut, 2020, 2015) held

equivalently over group. In fact, the two-way interaction effects of group x hemisphere used

($t_{(220)}$ = 0.34, p = 0.73, d = 0.02, BF = $2.71*10^2$) and group x stimulus category ($t_{(223)}$ = 0.86, p =

0.39, d = 0.06, BF = $2.10*10^2$) on accuracy were not significant. Strikingly and most importantly,

patients and controls performed comparably to one another across tasks: there was no

significant main effect of group on accuracy ($t_{(197)}$ = 0.75, p = 0.45, d = 0.05, BF = $5.77*10^4$).

Moreover, there was, as might be expected, a significantly positive main effect of age on

accuracy ($t_{(95)}$ = 4.42, p < 0.01, d = 0.45, BF = $2.39*10^{-3}$).

Further analyses were conducted as, in the analysis above, hemisphere used is a within-

subjects measure for controls (because they view stimuli separately in either hemifield) but a

between-subjects measure for patients (because each patient has only one hemisphere).

Furthermore, it is necessary to examine the effect of stimulus category separately for each

hemisphere given the significant hemisphere used x stimulus category interaction. Thus, linear

mixed effects models were fit separately for each hemisphere to determine the predictive effects

of group, stimulus category, and their interaction on accuracy. Age and participant were

modeled as a covariate and random effect, respectively, as before. Consistent with the findings

above, the groups performed comparably to one another across tasks: there was no significant

main effect of group on accuracy when using either the LH ($t_{(123)}$ = 0.83, p = 0.41, d = 0.07, BF =

$9.30*10^1$) or RH ($t_{(147)}$ = 0.46, p = 0.64, d = 0.04, BF = $1.49*10^2$). Additionally, there was no

significant group x stimulus category interaction effect on accuracy for either the LH ($t_{(74)}$ = 0.86,

$p = 0.39$, $d = 0.10$, BF = 8.44) or RH ($t_{(83)}$ = 0.23, $p = 0.82$, $d = 0.03$, BF = $1.25*10^1$). Notably, as

expected, there were significant main effects of stimulus category on accuracy for each the LH

and RH, with greater accuracy for the LH on words than faces ($t_{(74)}$ = 3.95, $p < 0.01$, $d = 0.46$,

BF = $1.14*10^{-1}$), and for the RH, on faces than words ($t_{(83)}$ = 2.17, $p = 0.03$, $d = 0.24$, BF = 7.03).

These findings are consistent with the well-established LH and RH superiority for words and

faces, respectively (Behrmann and Plaut, 2020, 2015). Last, as before, there was a significantly

positive main effect of age on accuracy for each the LH ($t_{(74)}$ = 3.09, $p < 0.01$, $d = 0.36$, BF =

$1.38*10^{-1}$) and RH ($t_{(83)}$ = 4.13, $p < 0.01$, $d = 0.45$, BF = $5.44*10^{-3}$), consistent with the age-

related effect across development, as noted above.

Thus far, there is a clear absence of a group difference, independent of hemisphere

used and stimulus category. Nevertheless, to obtain further substantiation that the patients'

performance did not differ from that of the controls, the profiles of individual patients relative to

one-hemisphere controls were examined further. Each patient's accuracy was compared to the

distribution of accuracy of controls (while adjusting for age as a covariate), a common practice

for detecting deficits of neuropsychology cases (see Materials and Methods for details;

Crawford et al., 2011; Crawford and Garthwaite, 2012; Crawford and Howell, 1998). No patient,

regardless of the side of resection, showed a deficit on either task compared to controls

primarily using each their LH and RH (first two rows of Table 1), further confirmation that the two

groups showed comparable performance to one another on the word and face recognition

tasks.

Table 1. Individual patient accuracy on the word and face recognition tasks compared to distributions of controls using primarily the LH, RH, or both hemispheres. Each cell shows the percentage of patients in each group who showed an accuracy deficit compared to a given control distribution. Rows indicate the control distribution of comparison, and columns indicate the patient group and stimulus category.

	Patients with LH		Patients with RH	
	Words	Faces	Words	Faces
Controls Using Primarily LH	0%	0%	0%	0%
Controls Using Primarily RH	0%	0%	0%	0%
Controls Using Both Hemispheres	37.50%	42.86%	41.18%	25.00%

Altogether, these results provide evidence that patients with only a single hemisphere performed as well on both word and face recognition as controls using primarily a single hemisphere. Intriguingly, this was independent of the hemisphere resected. Importantly, independent of group, there appeared to be LH and RH advantages for word and face accuracy, respectively, as would be expected based on known hemispheric superiorities for the two visual categories (Behrmann and Plaut, 2020, 2015). Last, that no individual patients exhibited deficits on either task relative to controls, provides further confirmation of the similarities in word and face recognition between the groups.

Patients vs. Central Controls Using Both Hemispheres

In contrast to the patient vs. one-hemisphere control comparison, which showed comparable between-group accuracy across tasks, central controls outperformed patients on both word and face recognition: there was a significant main effect of group on accuracy ($t_{(101)}$ = 4.27, $p < 0.01$, $d = 0.42$, BF = $5.27*10^{-5}$; see Fig. 2 for the central control data under "both hemispheres") that was not qualified by stimulus category. That is, there was no significant interaction effect of group x stimulus category on accuracy ($t_{(56)}$ =1.08 , $p = 0.29$, $d = 0.14$, BF = 5.94), suggesting patients' relatively lower accuracy compared to controls' was independent of the task. Additionally, there was no significant main effect of stimulus category on accuracy ($t_{(56)}$

= 0.44, p = 0.66, d = 0.06, BF = $5.85*10^1$). Last, as might be expected, there was a significantly

positive main effect of age on accuracy ($t_{(56)}$ = 4.41, p < 0.01, d = 0.59, BF = $2.50*10^{-3}$).

To evaluate whether patients' accuracies differed from central controls' as a function of

the side of resection, separate linear mixed effects models were fit for patients with only a LH

and those with only a RH. Group, stimulus category, and their interaction were modeled as

predictors of accuracy, with age and participant modeled again as a covariate and random

effect, respectively. Consistent with the findings above, independent of the side of resection,

patients had significantly lower accuracy than controls across both tasks: there was a significant

main effect of group on accuracy when using either the LH ($t_{(54)}$ = 4.10, p < 0.01, d = 0.56, BF =

$3.85*10^{-2}$) or RH ($t_{(93)}$ = 3.91, p < 0.01, d = 0.41, BF = $1.19*10^{-5}$), again not qualified by stimulus

category. That is, there was no significant group x stimulus category interaction effect on

accuracy when using either the LH ($t_{(39)}$ = 0.45, p = 0.65, d = 0.07, BF = 7.98) or RH ($t_{(48)}$ = 1.55,

p = 0.13, d = 0.22, BF = 3.04). There also was no significant main effect of stimulus category on

accuracy when using either the LH ($t_{(39)}$ = 0.81, p = 0.42, d = 0.13, BF = $3.73*10^1$) or RH ($t_{(48)}$ =

0.43, p = 0.67, d = 0.06, BF = $2.50*10^1$), as before. Last, as above, there was a significantly

positive main effect of age on accuracy when using either the LH ($t_{(39)}$ = 3.47, p < 0.01, d = 0.56,

BF = $4.65*10^{-2}$) or RH ($t_{(48)}$ = 4.01, p < 0.01, d = 0.58, BF = $9.68*10^{-3}$).

To again examine the individual patients' profiles, each patient's accuracy was

compared to the distribution of accuracy of central controls. Proportions of patients with deficits

(ranging from 25 to 43%) relative to central controls are reported in the last row of Table 1 and

are largely consistent with the inferential analyses, with many patients falling outside the

distribution of central controls.

Altogether, these results suggest that, independent of the side of resection, and even

with central fixation equated, patients with a single hemisphere showed significantly lower

accuracy on word and face recognition compared to controls using both hemispheres. This

group difference is in clear contrast with the comparison of patients to controls using primarily

one hemisphere, where there were no between-group differences on either task.

<u>Spatial Frequency Identification</u>

Some researchers attribute the hemispheric biases for word and face recognition in the

typically developing brain to differential SF tuning of the two hemispheres (Brederoo et al.,

2020; Hsiao and Lam, 2013; Woodhead et al., 2011). This raises the question of whether SF

tuning differs in patients who develop both word and face recognition within a single

hemisphere. To assess this, Gabor patches (sinusoidal gratings) of either 6 cycles per degree

(cpd; HSF) or 1.5 cpd (LSF; randomly, approximately half of trials for each) were presented to

participants who reported whether gratings were perceived as "narrow" (HSF) or "wide" (LSF).

This approach (rather than establishing thresholds) was deemed to be feasible for younger

children and has proved successful for children in previous work (Ossowski & Behrmann, 2015).

As before, patients viewed stimuli at central fixation (Fig. 3A). One-hemisphere controls viewed

stimuli either in the LVF or RVF (randomly, approximately half of trials for each; Fig. 3B), while

central controls viewed stimuli at fixation (as in Fig. 3A).

Figure 3. Participants viewed sequential presentations of Gabor patches (sinusoidal gratings). Participants were
asked to indicate, via a key press, whether a patch had narrow or wide stripes/lines. Stimuli are not drawn to scale. **A**:
Patients and "central controls" viewed all stimuli at central fixation. **B**: "One-hemisphere controls" viewed all stimuli in
one of two visual hemifields on a given trial to initially restrict processing to a single hemisphere (Bourne, 2006).

As with the word and face discrimination tasks, for each group comparison (patients vs.

one-hemisphere controls and patients vs. central controls), a linear mixed effects model was fit

to the data (plotted in Fig. 4). Group (patients vs. controls), primary hemisphere used (left vs.

right), stimulus category (HSF vs. LSF), and all interactions between these variables were

modeled as predictors of accuracy. As hemisphere used is equivalent to group for the patients

vs. central controls comparison, no separate factor of hemisphere was included. As before, age

and participant were modeled as a covariate and random effect, respectively.

289
Figure 4. Violin plots show the distribution of accuracy values on the SF identification task for each group (patients
and controls) by hemisphere used (left vs. right for patients and "one-hemisphere controls" viewing stimuli in the
hemifields; both hemispheres for "central controls" viewing stimuli centrally) and stimulus category (HSF vs. LSF).
Overlaid point plots show the individual values for each participant. To visualize any effect of age, points are
separated by terciles of the age distribution, shown in different shades of blue (controls) and red (patients). Points are
randomly jittered to minimize overlapping data. yr = years.

Patients vs. One-Hemisphere Controls

As above, the results from the three-way interaction are reported first. There was a

significant three-way interaction effect of group x hemisphere used x stimulus category on

accuracy ($t_{(103)}$ = 2.02, p = 0.05, d = 0.20, BF = 1.70). To explore this interaction, separate linear

mixed effects models were fit for each hemisphere, with group, stimulus category, and their

interaction modeled as predictors of accuracy, and with age and participant again modeled as a

covariate and random effect, respectively. Ultimately, there was no group x stimulus category

interaction effect on accuracy for either the LH ($t_{(36)}$ = 1.55, p = 0.13, d = 0.26, BF = 2.67) or RH

($t_{(44)}$ = 1.17, p = 0.25, d = 0.18, BF = 4.81). However, importantly, patients had lower accuracy

than controls: there was a significant main effect of group when using either the LH ($t_{(61)}$ = 6.12,

p < 0.01, d = 0.79, BF = 1.35*10^{-7}) or RH ($t_{(61)}$ = 6.91, p < 0.01, d = 0.89, BF = 2.88*10^{-6}; see

Fig. 4) that was not qualified by stimulus category. In fact, there was no significant main effect of

stimulus category on accuracy when using either the LH ($t_{(36)}$ = 1.59, p = 0.12, d = 0.27, BF =

1.49*10^1) or RH ($t_{(44)}$ = 0.17, p = 0.86, d = 0.03, BF = 3.55*10^1). Last, there was no significant

main effect of age on accuracy when using either the LH ($t_{(36)}$ = 0.57, p = 0.58, d = 0.09, BF =

7.24) or RH ($t_{(44)}$ = 0.06, p = 0.96, d = 0.01, BF = 9.37). Altogether, the main takeaway is that

patients showed lower accuracy on the task compared to controls, independent of both

hemisphere used and stimulus category.

To elucidate the atypical performance profile per individual patient, each patient's

accuracy per condition was compared to the respective distribution of accuracy of controls

(while adjusting for age as a covariate). The proportions of each patient group (LH and RH)

showing deficits compared to each the LH and RH of controls (ranging from 22 to 53%) are

reported in the first two rows of Table 2 and are largely consistent with the inferential analyses

showing general deficits in SF identification across patients.

Table 2. Individual patient accuracy on the SF task compared to distributions of controls using primarily the LH, RH,
or both hemispheres. Each cell shows the percentage of patients in each group who showed an accuracy deficit
compared to a given control distribution. Rows indicate the control distribution of comparison, and columns indicate
the patient group and stimulus category.

	Patients with LH		Patients with RH	
	HSF	LSF	HSF	LSF
Controls Using Primarily LH	22.22%	44.44%	35.29%	52.94%
Controls Using Primarily RH	22.22%	44.44%	41.18%	52.94%
Controls Using Both Hemispheres	22.22%	44.44%	17.65%	52.94%

While accuracy reflects an individual's ability to recognize a stimulus of a given SF, it

does not directly measure relative sensitivity to detecting different SFs. Sensitivity may be a

better proxy for inferring whether a hemisphere is "tuned" for distinguishing stimuli of varying

SFs. Thus, a linear mixed effects model was fit with d' (sensitivity index to HSF vs. LSF; see

Materials and Methods for details on calculation) as the dependent variable; group, hemisphere

used, and their interaction as predictors; age as a covariate; and participant as a random effect.

As with accuracy, there was a significant main effect of group on d': patients showed a

significantly lower sensitivity index to SFs compared to controls ($t_{(60)}$ = 6.52, p < 0.01, d = 0.84,

BF = 5.45*10^{-9}; see Fig. S3) that was not qualified by hemisphere used. That is, there was no

significant interaction effect of group x hemisphere used on d' ($t_{(69)}$ = 0.65, p = 0.52, d = 0.08, BF

= 7.25). Furthermore, as with accuracy, there was no significant main effect of hemisphere used

($t_{(27)}$ = 0.98, p = 0.34, d = 0.19, BF = 4.67*10^{1}) or age ($t_{(55)}$ = 0.03, p = 0.97, d < 0.01, BF = 8.94)

on d'.

Altogether, these results indicate that, independent of the resection side, patients were

impaired on SF identification compared to controls using primarily one hemisphere, suggesting

that a patient's single hemisphere is not obviously tuned for select SFs.

Patients vs. Central Controls Using Both Hemispheres

Patients had lower accuracy on the task not only compared to one-hemisphere controls

(as described above), but also to central controls: there was a significant main effect of group on

accuracy ($t_{(78)}$ = 6.12, p < 0.01, d = 0.69, BF = 8.76*10^{-6}; see Fig. 4 for the central control data

under "both hemispheres") that was not qualified by stimulus category. That is, there was no

significant group x stimulus category interaction effect on accuracy ($t_{(57)}$ = 0.08, p = 0.94, d =

0.01, BF = 10.6). Less importantly, there also was no significant main effect of stimulus category

($t_{(57)}$ = 0.42, p = 0.68, d = 0.06, BF = 9.27*10^{1}) or age ($t_{(57)}$ = 1.48, p = 0.15, d = 0.20, BF = 3.65)

on accuracy.

To test whether patients' accuracies differed from controls' as a function of the side of

resection, separate linear mixed effects models were fit for patients with only a LH and those

with only a RH. Group, stimulus category, and their interaction were modeled as predictors of

accuracy, with age and participant modeled, once again, as a covariate and random effect,

respectively. Independent of the resection side, patients had lower accuracy compared to

controls: there was a significant main effect of group on accuracy for each the LH ($t_{(60)}$ = 4.64, p

< 0.01, d = 0.60, BF = $3.33*10^{-4}$) and RH ($t_{(63)}$ = 5.79, p < 0.01, d = 0.73, BF = $1.34*10^{-4}$) that

was not qualified by stimulus category. That is, there was no significant group x stimulus

category interaction effect on accuracy for either the LH ($t_{(40)}$ = 0.96, p = 0.34, d = 0.15, BF =

5.69) or RH ($t_{(48)}$ = 0.82, p = 0.42, d = 0.12, BF = 7.00). As before, there also was no significant

main effect of stimulus category on accuracy for either the LH ($t_{(40)}$ = 0.43, p = 0.67, d = 0.07, BF

= $5.09*10^{1}$) or RH ($t_{(48)}$ = 0.47, p = 0.64, d = 0.07, BF = $3.42*10^{1}$). Last, while there was a

significantly positive main effect of age on accuracy for the LH ($t_{(40)}$ = 2.31, p = 0.03, d = 0.37,

BF = $7.26*10^{-1}$), there was no such main effect for the RH ($t_{(48)}$ = 1.33, p = 0.19, d = 0.19, BF =

4.10). These results were further validated by comparing each patient's accuracy per condition

to the respective distribution of accuracy of controls (proportion of patients with deficits ranging

from 22 to 53%), as reported in the last row of Table 2.

Last, a general linear model of group and age predicting d' revealed that patients

showed lower sensitivity to SFs compared to central controls. There was a significant main

effect of group on d' ($t_{(54)}$ = 6.76, p < 0.01, d = 0.92, BF = $1.99*10^{-7}$; see Fig. S3), as well as a

significantly positive main effect of age ($t_{(54)}$ = 2.14, p = 0.04, d = 0.29, BF = $7.50*10^{-1}$). Thus,

altogether, patients overall showed atypical SF identification/tuning compared not only to the

controls using primarily one hemisphere, but also to the central controls using both.

<u>Relationship Between Word and Face Recognition and Spatial Frequency Identification</u>

While there were largely no differences in word and face recognition between patients

and one-hemisphere controls, patients were impaired on both stimulus categories compared to

central controls using both hemispheres. Patients also showed deficits in SF processing,

suggesting that their single hemisphere was not tuned for this low-level visual information that

contributes to word and face recognition (Brederoo et al., 2020; Hsiao and Lam, 2013;

Woodhead et al., 2011). To explore the direct relationship between patients' word/face

recognition and SF processing, correlations between patients' accuracies across the word/face

and SF tasks were computed (see Fig. 5). The correlation analysis could not be reliably

performed with the data from controls, as their accuracy was approaching ceiling (the likely

explanation for why there was no hemisphere used x stimulus category interaction above; see

Fig. 4 for data distribution).

388
Figure 5. A: Plots of the correlation of accuracy (proportion of correct trials) on word and high spatial frequency trials
(left panel) and face and low spatial frequency trials (right panel). Each point represents an individual patient. **B**:
Correlation matrices for patients with a left (left panel) or right (right panel) hemisphere, with color indicating the
magnitude of the correlation. LH = left hemisphere; RH = right hemisphere; HSF = high spatial frequency; LSF = low
spatial frequency.

There was no significant correlation between accuracy on word and HSF trials among

patients with only a LH ($r < 0.01$, $t_{(6)} = 0.01$, $p = 1.00$, $d < 0.01$) or RH ($r = 0.48$, $t_{(15)} = 2.09$, $p =$

0.05, $d = 0.54$). There also was no significant correlation between accuracy on face and LSF

trials among patients with only a LH ($r = 0.18$, $t_{(6)} = 0.45$, $p = 0.67$, $d = 0.18$) or RH ($r = 0.27$, $t_{(15)}$

$= 1.07$, $p = 0.30$, $d = 0.28$). Less relevant are the remaining correlations, as a correlation would

not be predicted between either word and LSF trials or face and HSF trials (Ossowski and

Behrmann, 2015). There was no significant correlation between accuracy on word and LSF

trials among patients with only a LH ($r = 0.29$, $t_{(6)} = 0.75$, $p = 0.48$, $d = 0.31$) or RH ($r = 0.29$, $t_{(15)}$

$= 1.16$, $p = 0.27$, $d = 0.30$). Additionally, there was no significant correlation between accuracy

on face and HSF trials among patients with only a LH ($r = 0.24$, $t_{(6)} = 0.60$, $p = 0.57$, $d = 0.24$) or

RH ($r = 0.18$, $t_{(15)} = 0.72$, $p = 0.48$, $d = 0.19$). Thus, overall there was little association between

performance on the word/face and SF tasks, suggesting no obvious association between the SF

tuning of a patient's single hemisphere and that patient's word and face recognition abilities.

Discussion

Canonically, the LH and RH are considered to play important (albeit not exclusive) roles

in word and face recognition, respectively (Behrmann and Plaut, 2020, 2015). The LH and RH

are also tuned for identifying HSF and LSF stimuli, respectively (Hellige et al., 2010; Kauffmann

et al., 2014; Sergent and Hellige, 1986), which is thought to contribute to or perhaps even

underlie hemispheric superiorities for word and face perception (Brederoo et al., 2020; Hsiao

and Lam, 2013; Woodhead et al., 2011). However, these hemispheric profiles emerge over

development (Dehaene et al., 2010; Ossowski and Behrmann, 2015; Scherf et al., 2007),

begetting the question of whether development with only a single hemisphere affects the ability

to recognize words and faces. Moreover, is this developmental process equivalent if the single

hemisphere is the left or the right?

In this study, a large group of hemispherectomy patients who had previously undergone

surgery during childhood for pharmacoresistant epilepsy treatment were tested on tasks of

word/face recognition and SF identification. To these authors' knowledge, there has not been a

detailed investigation of the visual behaviors of such a large group of patients to date. Here,

patients were compared to controls viewing stimuli presented either in a single hemifield

(thereby engaging primarily a single hemisphere) or at central fixation (thereby allowing

deployment of both hemispheres). Three principal findings were revealed across group and

individual case analyses. First, patients exhibited comparable word and face recognition abilities

to those of controls using primarily one hemisphere, independent of the side of resection.

Second, patients had lower accuracy on word and face recognition compared to central controls

viewing stimuli foveally and using both hemispheres. Finally, patients exhibited lower accuracy

and sensitivity on SF identification compared to both one-hemisphere and central controls, and

patients' SF accuracy did not correlate with word or face recognition accuracy. Altogether, the

findings suggest that the single preserved hemisphere in these childhood resection patients can

support both word and face recognition. However, the patients show diminished performance

relative to two intact hemispheres in matched controls. This diminution might partly be attributed

to atypical hemispheric tuning for select SFs.

Development with a single hemisphere can support both word and face recognition

In the current study, patients with only a single hemisphere performed as well as

controls primarily using one hemisphere. This is consistent with prior work showing not only

intact general cognitive functioning in hemispherectomy patients (Moletto et al., 2018; Pulsifer et

al., 2004; van Empelen et al., 2004), but also intact literacy following left hemispherectomy (de

Bode et al., 2015). And notably, for both word and face recognition, participants showed the

expected LH and RH superiorities for words and faces (Behrmann and Plaut, 2020, 2015),

independent of group. Thus, patients with only a LH conceivably have better word recognition

than patients with only a RH. Similarly, patients with only a RH would appear to have better face

recognition than those with only a LH. However, development with a single hemisphere appears

to support the recognition of *both* stimulus categories: patients with only a LH or RH showed no

significant deficits on either task compared to one-hemisphere controls using primarily either

their LH or RH.

The current results are consistent with findings from children with more circumscribed

resections: children with VOTC resections not only evince co-existent neural representations for

words and faces in the unresected hemisphere, but also demonstrate typical visuoperceptual

profiles (Liu et al., 2019, 2018). Furthermore, post-operative changes in functional connectivity

in the intact hemisphere of pediatric VOTC resection patients may reflect both plasticity and

competition for representation of multiple visual categories (Maallo et al., 2020). But in these

relatively focal resection cases, residual ipsilesional tissue also shows some neural responsivity

indicating that post-surgical performance may be a result of changes within the resected

hemisphere (Liu et al., 2019, 2018). The current study of hemispherectomy patients, in contrast,

offers a more explicit and dramatic demonstration of plasticity in the contralesional hemisphere,

given the near to complete absence of ipsilesional cortex. Additionally, although patients here

underwent surgery at various ages (see Materials and Methods), the resected hemisphere may

well have been non-functional pre-surgically due to the nontrivial underlying pathology that

necessitates a hemispherectomy (Kim et al., 2018). Future work should employ neuroimaging in

this patient population to confirm these plastic changes for word and face representation in the

contralesional hemisphere.

The intact word and face recognition in pediatric hemispherectomy patients is most

remarkable considering the notable deficits that *adult* neuropsychology patients experience after

more focal and circumscribed lesions in VOTC. Numerous case reports and studies have made

clear that adults with a left focal (and even, small) lesion are dramatically impaired at word-

reading (Behrmann et al., 1990; Cohen et al., 2003; Damasio and Damasio, 1983). Additionally,

those with a right focal lesion (even as small as 990 mm^3; Konen et al., 2011) are, sometimes

even profoundly, impaired at face recognition (Albonico and Barton, 2019; Gauthier et al.,

1999). Quantifying these acquired impairments, Behrmann and Plaut (2014) reported that adults

with a focal LH lesion took roughly 100 times longer (on two separate experiments) to read

words of increasing lengths than matched non-neurological controls. Consistently,

prosopagnosic adults after a focal RH lesion made roughly ten times more errors than matched

controls on two different experiments of face recognition. These neuropsychological findings are

compatible with experiments in typical individuals who demonstrate LH and RH superiorities for

word and face recognition, respectively (Hasson et al., 2002; Maurer et al., 2008; Rossion et al.,

2003). On the other hand, these hemispheric superiorities appear to emerge over development

and are not fully mature in children (Dehaene et al., 2010; Scherf et al., 2007). In childhood, it is

conjectured that faces are initially represented bilaterally (Hildesheim et al., 2020). Only over

time, as a result of the pressure associated with literacy acquisition, does word representation

come to compete for representation in the LH (Dehaene-Lambertz et al., 2018; Dundas et al.,

2014; Nordt et al., 2020). The current study suggests that, with plasticity in childhood, the

potential for representing words and faces may be sufficiently malleable such that one

hemisphere can, in fact, do double duty.

The question to be answered then is, what is the nature of the plasticity that gives rise to

the relative competence of the single hemisphere? One possible answer is that the function

typically subserved by the resected hemisphere arises de novo in the preserved hemisphere.

An alternative, more parsimonious and more tractable explanation is that the bilateral

representation for words and faces plays the critical role: as argued previously, although there

are hemispheric superiorities for word and face representations in the LH and RH, respectively,

the LH and RH have some competence in word and face processing too, albeit to a lesser

degree (Behrmann and Plaut, 2020, 2015, 2013). For example, despite the stronger respective

neural responsivity to words and faces in the LH and RH, there is nonetheless some

appreciable bilateral activity for both stimulus categories (Appelbaum et al., 2009; Hasson et al.,

2002; Matsuo et al., 2015). Furthermore, while patients with focal left and right lesions largely

show respective impairments in word and face recognition, they can show deficits in both, often

in relation to task difficulty (Asperud et al., 2019; Behrmann and Plaut, 2014; Gerlach et al.,

2014). This weighted asymmetry of the hemispheres for word and face processing lends itself to

the recruitment and optimization of the less robust representations in the preserved hemisphere

once the "preferred" hemisphere (LH for words and RH for faces) is no longer functional.

Development with a single hemisphere then, may capitalize on the dual (weighted) LH and RH

capabilities, with both word and face representations emerging with experience in the evolving,

plastic preserved hemisphere. The remaining question then is what underlying processes

necessitate the contribution of *both* hemispheres to enhance word and face recognition?

Spatial frequency tuning may underlie the two-hemisphere advantage for word and face

recognition

The hemispheric superiorities for words and faces are thought to be related to, and

perhaps benefit from, hemispheric tuning for HSF and LSF visual input, respectively (Brederoo

et al., 2020; Hsiao and Lam, 2013; Woodhead et al., 2011). Despite their relatively intact word

and face recognition capacity, hemispherectomy patients' classification of HSF vs. LSF stimuli is

atypical compared to both control groups. Furthermore, patients' performance on word and face

recognition is not correlated with their ability to identify SFs (although this must be qualified by

the fact that the same analysis could not be justifiably run in the controls who performed largely

at ceiling). Why might patients show intact word and face recognition, but atypical SF tuning?

The answer to this may be related to resection of primary and secondary visual cortex, which

are not chiefly implicated in word and face recognition but do encode SF information (Musel et

al., 2013). Occipital resection almost always results in a permanent post-operative hemianopia

(Kim et al., 2018; Liu and Behrmann, 2017). This suggests that the contralesional occipital lobe,

which is sensitive to SF information (Musel et al., 2013; Peyrin et al., 2004), is not reorganized

in such a way as to compensate for its resected homologue. Thus, perhaps posterior visual

areas do not reorganize to the extent that more anterior visual areas do: this may explain why

patients' word and face recognition is preserved while SF identification is impaired. Future work

could examine SF sensitivity in each focal temporal and focal occipital resection cases to

determine if preservation of occipital cortex is in fact critical for typical SF tuning.

At the same time, while intact hemispheric tuning for specific SF ranges may not be

strictly necessary for word and face recognition, it may confer an advantage. Word and face

recognition rely more on HSF and LSF information, respectively, but both perceptual encoding

schemes are arguably beneficial for recognition of each words and faces (Brederoo et al., 2020;

Hsiao and Lam, 2013). In fact, the extent to which the two hemispheres are lateralized for word

and face recognition is correlated with the extent of differential SF tuning across the two

hemispheres (Brederoo et al., 2020). Moreover, adult patients with LH damage show deficits in

HSF processing that co-exist with deficiencies in recognizing both orthographic and non-

orthographic complex stimuli (Roberts et al., 2013). Meanwhile, adult left-lesion alexia patients

exhibit pronounced deficits even in recognizing line-drawn faces, suggesting that HSF

information is advantageous for face processing (Albonico and Barton, 2017). Thus, utilization

of both HSF and LSF information from the two hemispheres likely synergistically contributes to

word and face recognition.

Conceivably, one might imagine that patients who develop with only a single hemisphere

have a SF tuning function that is either atypically broad (with sensitivity across a large range of

frequencies) or atypically narrow (with inferior sensitivity resulting from a smaller range of

frequencies). Here, patients showed inferior SF sensitivity (measured as d') relative to controls,

suggesting that the tuning function is narrow. This is consistent with the findings on the word

and face recognition tasks: if the tuning function were broad, patients' performance would have

been comparable to central controls using both hemispheres (and differential SF tuning). But

patients only showed comparable word/face recognition accuracy to one-hemisphere controls.

Thus, patients' SF sensitivity may be broad enough to sufficiently *support* word/face recognition,

but the absence of broad SF tuning that two hemispheres typically confer may place limitations

on category recognition.

Conclusion

Childhood hemispherectomy patients showed comparable word and face recognition to

controls using primarily one hemisphere but were impaired relative to controls using both

hemispheres on both word and face recognition. This outcome leads to the conclusion that,

perhaps via mechanisms of plasticity, one hemisphere appears to support, but is suboptimal for,

word and face recognition. The SF tuning of the two hemispheres may explain the advantage of

controls utilizing both hemispheres. Hemispherectomy patients appear to not develop typical or

compensatory SF tuning of the preserved single hemisphere based on deficient SF

identification/sensitivity of HSF and LSF visual input. So, while hemispherectomy patients can

perform word and face recognition sufficiently, their performance compared to controls with two

intact hemispheres may be limited due to atypically narrow SF tuning. This is one of the first

investigations to examine word/face and SF lateralization in pediatric patients with a single

hemisphere. Future work might examine more focal pediatric resection cases to explore what

specific lobes or anatomical regions support word and face recognition and confer two-

hemisphere controls' advantages on these processes. This investigation thus lays the

foundation for neuroimaging and/or electrophysiological studies exploring deployment of one vs.

two hemispheres for visual category recognition.

Materials and Methods

Participants

Twenty-six English-speaking patients with childhood hemispherectomy or

hemispherotomy (see Kim et al., 2018 for distinction; 17 with left resections and 9 with right

resections; median age = 15.0 years; median absolute deviation (MAD) of age = 8.9 years; 12

females, 14 males) were recruited for this study. Handedness could not be established in this

sample given that the hemiparesis (Kim et al., 2018; van Empelen et al., 2004) may have

resulted in a switch away from native handedness. In addition, 127 right-handed and native-

English-speaking controls (median age = 14.0 years; MAD of age = 8.9 years; 67 females, 60

males) participated. Not every participant completed all experimental tasks, and sample sizes

for each task and task condition are denoted below. Patients were recruited with the assistance

of the Brain Recovery Project: Childhood Epilepsy Surgery Foundation

(https://www.brainrecoveryproject.org/). Data assessing word/face processing from 66 typically

developing children and adult controls were previously collected by Dundas et al. (2013), and

data assessing SF processing from 15 adult controls were previously collected by Ossowski and

Behrmann (2015); data from an additional 46 controls (assessing word, face, and/or SF

processing) were collected from the local community and the Carnegie Mellon University (CMU)

participant pool, for the purpose of the current investigation.

There were two control groups: "*one-hemisphere controls*" who viewed stimuli in the

hemifields (thereby restricting initial processing to one hemisphere), and "*central controls*" who

viewed stimuli at central fixation as did the patients (thereby equating viewing conditions). To

confirm that groups were age-matched, for each task (word/face recognition and SF

identification), a logistic regression was fit with group (all patients vs. each control group—one-

hemisphere and central controls—in separate regressions) as the dependent variable and age

as the predictor. For the word and face recognition tasks, age was not predictive of group for

either the patient vs. one-hemisphere control ($z_{(89)}$ = 0.96, p = 0.34, d = 0.10, BF = 6.07) or

patient vs. central control ($z_{(54)}$ = 0.30, p = 0.76, d = 0.04, BF = 7.15) group comparisons. For

the SF task, age was also not predictive of group for either the patient vs. one-hemisphere ($z_{(51)}$

= 1.35, p = 0.18, d = 0.19, BF = 2.78) or patient vs. central control ($z_{(55)}$ = 0.15, p = 0.88, d =

0.02, BF = 7.46) group comparisons. Details regarding the nature of patients' surgeries and

demographic/clinical information were reported by participants or participants' guardians.

Patient profiles are described in Table 3. The sample size was not sufficiently large to test

appropriately for the effects of clinical variables (such as age at surgery or efficacy of seizure

treatment) on the primary dependent measures in this investigation, but it would be informative

to conduct these analyses in future studies with larger sample sizes.

Table 3. Patient information. Some patients had multiple surgeries to complete the hemispherectomy: the
approximate ages at the first and last surgery are reported. W = word, F = face, and SF = spatial frequency tasks.

Age	Gender	Surgery Side	~Age at First Surgery (years)	~Age at Last Surgery (years)*	Post-Surgical Seizures	Tasks Performed
6	Female	Right	3	-	No	W, F, SF
8	Male	Left	1	-	No	W, F, SF
8	Female	Right	0	-	Yes	SF
8	Female	Left	0	5	Yes	W, SF
8	Female	Left	0	1	No	W, F, SF
8	Female	Left	0	1	No	W, F, SF
9	Female	Right	0	2	No	W, F, SF
9	Female	Left	7	-	No	W, SF
9	Male	Left	4	-	No	W, SF
10	Male	Left	4	-	No	W, SF
11	Female	Left	0	10	Yes	W, F, SF
13	Female	Right	1	-	No	W, F, SF
15	Male	Right	2	-	No	W, SF
15	Female	Right	9	-	No	W, F, SF
15	Male	Left	5	-	No	W, F, SF
16	Male	Left	4	-	Yes	W, F, SF
16	Male	Left	14	-	No	W, SF
17	Male	Left	4	7	No	W, F, SF
17	Female	Left	4	-	No	W, F, SF
18	Male	Left	6	-	No	W, F, SF
22	Female	Right	4	-	No	W, F, SF
23	Male	Right	0	-	No	W, F, SF
28	Male	Left	1	18-19	Yes	W, F, SF
31	Male	Left	4	16	No	W, F, SF
34	Male	Right	11	27-28	No	W, F, SF
38	Male	Left	1	-	Yes	W, F, SF

609 *While two participants underwent initial surgery during childhood, the full hemispherectomy/hemispherotomy was not
610 completed until adulthood (at 18-19 and 27-28 years). Excluding these participants in the analyses did not affect the
611 primary interpretation of the results.
612
The experimental procedures were reviewed and approved by the CMU Institutional

Review Board. Informed consent was acquired from all adult participants. Child participants

gave informed assent, where possible, and their guardians provided informed consent.

Stimuli

Words

Pairs of four-letter gray words were presented in Arial font against a black background.

The words in each pair differed by a single letter (for example, "tack" vs. "tank"). The second

letter differed in approximately half of word pairs, and the third letter differed in the approximate

remaining half, and words were chosen to be age-appropriate for young readers. For hemifield

presentations (from Dundas et al. (2013)), stimuli were shown at an estimated distance of 50 cm

from the observer. These stimuli were approximately 1 cm tall by 3 cm wide, and thus the

estimated respective subtended visual angles were 2 x 3°, respectively. For central

presentations, stimuli were shown at an estimated distance of 60 cm. These stimuli were

approximately 2 cm tall by 4 cm wide, with estimated respective subtended visual angles of 2 x

4°.

Faces

Grayscale neutral-expressive, forward-facing face stimuli from the Face Place Database

(Righi et al., 2012) were also presented against a black background. Stimuli were edited to

remove hair. For sessions with hemifield presentations (from Dundas et al. (2013)), stimuli were

shown at an estimated distance of 50 cm from the observer. These stimuli were approximately 4

cm tall by 3 cm wide, with estimated respective subtended visual angles of 5 x 3°. For central

presentations, stimuli were shown at an estimated distance of 60 cm. These stimuli were

approximately 3 cm tall by 4 cm wide, with estimated respective subtended visual angles of 3 x

4°.

Gabor Patches

Two Gabor patches (that is, sinusoidal gratings with a Gaussian envelope) were

generated with MATLAB (MathWorks), one with a (high) SF of 6 cpd and another with a (low)

SF of 1.5 cpd. Each patch's contrast level was 0.3. Patches were presented against a black

background in either the vertical or horizontal orientation per trial (randomly, approximately half

of trials for each orientation). In sessions from Ossowski and Behrmann (2015), stimuli were

shown at an estimated distance of 40 cm from the observer. Stimuli were approximately 4 cm

tall by 3 cm wide, with estimated respective subtended visual angles of 6 x 4°. For all remaining

data collected for the sole purpose of the current investigation, stimuli were shown at an

estimated distance of 60 cm. These stimuli were approximately 6 cm tall by 4 cm wide, with

estimated respective subtended visual angles of 6 x 4°.

<u>Procedures</u>

Word and Face Recognition Tasks

Participants viewed stimuli presented on a laptop with either E-Prime (Psychology

Software Tools; as in Dundas et al. (2013) and Ossowski and Behrmann (2015)) or the

Psychophysics Toolbox (Brainard, 1997) in MATLAB (MathWorks; participants from the current

investigation; see Fig. 1). A randomly jittered 1500 to 2500 ms interval separated trials, during

which a fixation cross was displayed. Per trial, participants viewed one stimulus (either a word

or a face) for 750 ms at central fixation (long enough for younger children to encode it). After a

150 ms interval during which a fixation cross was displayed, they then saw a second stimulus

(of the same stimulus category: words or faces) for 150 ms (an interval too brief to reasonably

saccade, thus ensuring stimulus presentation to one hemifield for one-hemisphere controls).

Participants were asked to report, with a key press, whether the two stimuli were the same or

different. Pairings of keys with response types were approximately counterbalanced across

participants. All participants were instructed to maintain fixation centrally at all times.

Participants acclimated to the tasks by participating in a set of practice trials prior to the tasks.

Feedback and encouragement were provided where appropriate.

Participants from Dundas et al. (2013; the one-hemisphere controls) completed six

blocks of the task, with 32 trials per block. Half the blocks presented only word stimuli, while the

remaining half presented only face stimuli (data from only the face blocks were available for one

participant). The second stimulus in a matching pair was presented in participants' hemifields (at

an eccentricity of approximately 5° from fixation). Additional participants (patients and central

controls) whose data were collected solely for the current investigation completed one to two

blocks of the task, with 96 trials per block, with both stimuli presented centrally. In select cases

where a participant did not complete a block (due to participant declining in the majority of such

cases or technical failure), fewer than 96 trials were recorded. In total, 25 patients (17 with left

resections and 8 with right resections) participated in the word recognition task, and 19 patients

(12 with left resections and 7 with right resections) participated in the face recognition task.

Moreover, a total of 94 controls participated in the word recognition task, 65 of whom viewed

stimuli in the hemifields, and 29 of whom viewed stimuli at central fixation. A total of 92 controls

participated in the face recognition task, 66 of whom viewed stimuli in the hemifields, and 26 of

whom viewed stimuli at central fixation.

There was notably more one-hemisphere control data available than central control data.

To verify that the conclusions were independent of sample size, a random sample from the one-

hemisphere control data was selected that matched the sample size of the central control group.

Performing the analyses with this reduced control sample along with the patient sample, there

was still a significant hemisphere used x stimulus category interaction ($t_{(118)}$ = 2.31, p = 0.02, d =

0.21, BF = 6.59) and no significant main effect of group ($t_{(119)}$ = 0.48, p = 0.63, d = 0.04, BF =

$1.70*10^4$). These results are consistent with those from the analyses on the full one-hemisphere

control sample.

SF Identification Task

Using the same software described above, participants viewed Gabor patches one at a

time for 20 ms each, with a randomly jittered 1500 to 2500 ms intertrial interval (see Fig. 3).

Participants were asked to report, with a key press, whether the stripes/lines of a patch were

narrow (that is, with HSF) or wide (with LSF), independent of orientation. Pairings of keys with

response types were approximately counterbalanced across participants. As before, participants

were instructed to maintain central fixation at all times, and exposure duration was sufficiently

brief that an eye movement was not possible. Participants acclimated to the tasks by

participating in several practice trials prior to the experimental trials. Feedback and

encouragement were provided where appropriate.

Participants from Ossowski and Behrmann (2015; all one-hemisphere controls)

completed two blocks of the task, with 96 trials per block. Stimuli were presented to the one-

hemisphere control group in participants' hemifields (at an eccentricity of approximately 5° from

fixation). The patients, one-hemisphere controls, and central controls whose data were collected

for the sole purpose of the current investigation completed one to two blocks of the task, with 96

trials per block. In select cases, fewer than 96 trials were recorded (due to participant declining

in the majority of such cases or technical failure). In total, 26 patients (17 with left resections and

9 with right resections) participated in this task. Moreover, a total of 58 controls participated in

this task, 27 of whom viewed stimuli in the hemifields, and 31 of whom viewed stimuli at central

fixation.

<u>Data Analysis</u>

Statistical analyses were conducted in R version 3.5.2 (R Core Team, 2018; using

default parameters unless otherwise specified) and MATLAB R2018b and R2019b

(MathWorks). Descriptive statistics for reporting of demographic data were computed with the R

package psych (Revelle, 2019). Linear mixed effects models were fit with the R packages lme4

(Bates et al., 2019, p. 4) and lmerTest (Kuznetsova et al., 2019), and p-values (rounded to two

decimal places, as were t statistics) were estimated using the Satterthwaite's degrees of

freedom (rounded to the nearest integer in the Results) method. Fixed effects were estimated

such as to optimize a log-likelihood function. All other models were fit using the glm function in

R (R Core Team, 2018). If an interaction effect was significant, the individual lower-order

interactions and/or main effects composing the interaction for that model were not

reported/interpreted. Cohen's d effect sizes for statistics were calculated with the R package

effectsize (Ben-Shachar et al., 2020), with the assumption that the statistic in question was

derived from comparisons of dependent means. BFs were computed as *e* raised to half of the

difference of the Bayesian information criterion (BIC) of the alternative model (including all

effects of interest) and BIC of the null model (excluding the effect being tested), as described by

Wagenmakers (2007). Pearson correlation coefficients and associated statistics were calculated

using the cor.test function in R (R Core Team, 2018). For analysis of individual patients' deficits,

p-values were computed using open-source statistical software provided by Crawford et al.

(2011). Patients were classified as having a deficit if their *p*-value was below the Bonferroni

corrected α criterion. d' was computed as the difference of the inverse of the standard normal

cumulative distribution function of the hit rate and that of the false alarm rate. In instances where

the hit rate was 100%, (*n*-1)/*n* was substituted as the hit rate in the d' calculation, where *n* is the

number of trials. Plots were generated in R with ggplot2 (Wickham et al., 2019), ggpubr

(Kassambara, 2020), ggnewscale (Campitelli, 2020), and corrplot (Wei et al., 2017). Experiment

and analysis code, as well as associated raw data, are available on KiltHub (CMU; digital object

identifier: 10.1184/R1/12743276).

If a participant did not perform either the word or face task (see Table 3), their accuracy

for the missing stimulus category was assigned to be the median of all accuracies for the given

group, hemisphere used, and stimulus category. If a participant's accuracy was below 50%, that

participant's accuracy was replaced with winsorization, such that the accuracy of that participant

was computed as the minimum accuracy above 50% of all accuracies for the given group,

hemisphere used, and stimulus category (low end of the distribution to avoid inflating the group

result). Furthermore, on the SF task, if one accuracy value for a given SF was below 50%

(averaged across hemifields for one-hemisphere controls), then the participant was presumed to

have been primarily pressing one button: accuracy for both stimulus categories was winsorized

to the minimum accuracy above 50% of all accuracies for the given group, hemisphere used,

and stimulus category. All inferential tests were performed on winsorized data; Crawford

statistics were calculated on the raw data.

Acknowledgments

This research was supported by the Award Numbers R01EY027018 from the National Eye

Institute (NEI) to MB and T32GM081760 from the National Institute of General Medical

Sciences (NIGMS) to MCG. LE was supported by a grant from the Carnegie Mellon University

undergraduate office. The content is solely the responsibility of the authors and does not

necessarily represent the official views of the NEI, NIGMS, or National Institutes of Health. The

authors are grateful to the Brain Recovery Project: Childhood Epilepsy Surgery Foundation,

especially its founder and Chief Executive Officer Monika Jones, JD, for facilitating patient data

collection and to Tekla Hilton and Avi Munro for facilitating control data collection at Community

Day School. The authors are also grateful for the use of the stimuli from the Face Place

database: stimulus images courtesy of Michael J. Tarr, Center for the Neural Basis of Cognition

and Department of Psychology, Carnegie Mellon University, http://www.tarrrlab.org/. Funding

provided by NSF award 0339122. The authors also acknowledge Dr. Eva Dundas and

Alexandra Ossowski for their previously collected stimuli and data; Dr. Marge Maallo for her

shared experiment code and input on the study design; Dr. Maallo and Raina Vin for their

assistance in data collection for the current study; Drs. Carl Olson, David Plaut, and Tarr for

their feedback on the study design and data interpretation; Alexander Layden for his input on

statistical analyses; and Nicholas Blauch and Drs. Vladislav Ayzenberg, Tina Liu, Maallo, Plaut,

and Tarr for their feedback on drafts of this manuscript. Finally, the authors thank the

participants and their families for their cooperation.

Competing Interests

The authors acknowledge no competing interests.

References

Albonico A, Barton J. 2019. Progress in perceptual research: the case of prosopagnosia.
F1000Res **8**. doi:10.12688/f1000research.18492.1
Albonico A, Barton JJS. 2017. Face perception in pure alexia: Complementary contributions of
the left fusiform gyrus to facial identity and facial speech processing. *Cortex* **96**:59–72.
doi:10.1016/j.cortex.2017.08.029
Appelbaum LG, Liotti M, Perez R, Fox S, Woldorff MG. 2009. The temporal dynamics of implicit
processing of non-letter, letter, and word-forms in the human visual cortex. *Front Hum*
Neurosci **3**. doi:10.3389/neuro.09.056.2009
Asperud J, Kühn CD, Gerlach C, Delfi TS, Starrfelt R. 2019. Word recognition and face
recognition following posterior cerebral artery stroke: Overlapping networks and
selective contributions. *Visual Cognition* **27**:52–65. doi:10.1080/13506285.2019.1599481
Barttfeld P, Abboud S, Lagercrantz H, Adén U, Padilla N, Edwards AD, Cohen L, Sigman M,
Dehaene S, Dehaene-Lambertz G. 2018. A lateral-to-mesial organization of human
ventral visual cortex at birth. *Brain Struct Funct* **223**:3107–3119. doi:10.1007/s00429-
018-1676-3
Bates D, Maechler M, Bolker B, Walker S, Christensen RHB, Singmann H, Dai B, Scheipl F,
Grothendieck G, Green P, Fox J. 2019. lme4: Linear Mixed-Effects Models using "Eigen"
and S4.
Behrmann M, Black SE, Bub D. 1990. The evolution of pure alexia: A longitudinal study of
recovery. *Brain and Language* **39**:405–427. doi:10.1016/0093-934X(90)90148-A
Behrmann M, Plaut DC. 2020. Hemispheric Organization for Visual Object Recognition: A
Theoretical Account and Empirical Evidence. *Perception* **49**:373–404.
doi:10.1177/0301006619899049
Behrmann M, Plaut DC. 2015. A vision of graded hemispheric specialization. *Ann N Y Acad Sci*
1359:30–46. doi:10.1111/nyas.12833
Behrmann M, Plaut DC. 2014. Bilateral Hemispheric Processing of Words and Faces: Evidence
from Word Impairments in Prosopagnosia and Face Impairments in Pure Alexia. *Cereb*
Cortex **24**:1102–1118. doi:10.1093/cercor/bhs390
Behrmann M, Plaut DC. 2013. Distributed circuits, not circumscribed centers, mediate visual
recognition. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences* **17**:210–219. doi:10.1016/j.tics.2013.03.007
Ben-Shachar MS, Makowski D, Lüdecke D, Kelley K, Stanley D. 2020. effectsize: Indices of
Effect Size and Standardized Parameters.
Bourne VJ. 2006. The divided visual field paradigm: Methodological considerations. *Laterality*
11:373–393. doi:10.1080/13576500600633982
Brainard DH. 1997. The Psychophysics Toolbox. *Spatial Vision* **10**:433–436.
doi:10.1163/156856897X00357
Brederoo SG, Van der Haegen L, Brysbaert M, Nieuwenstein MR, Cornelissen FW, Lorist MM.
2020. Towards a unified understanding of lateralized vision: A large-scale study
investigating principles governing patterns of lateralization using a heterogeneous
sample. *Cortex*. doi:10.1016/j.cortex.2020.08.029
Campitelli E. 2020. eliocamp/ggnewscale.
Cohen L, Martinaud O, Lemer C, Lehéricy S, Samson Y, Obadia M, Slachevsky A, Dehaene S.
2003. Visual Word Recognition in the Left and Right Hemispheres: Anatomical and
Functional Correlates of Peripheral Alexias. *Cereb Cortex* **13**:1313–1333.
doi:10.1093/cercor/bhg079
Crawford JR, Garthwaite PH. 2012. Single-case research in neuropsychology: A comparison of
five forms of t-test for comparing a case to controls. *Cortex* **48**:1009–1016.
doi:10.1016/j.cortex.2011.06.021

Crawford JR, Garthwaite PH, Ryan K. 2011. Comparing a single case to a control sample:
Testing for neuropsychological deficits and dissociations in the presence of covariates.
Cortex **47**:1166–1178. doi:10.1016/j.cortex.2011.02.017
Crawford JR, Howell DC. 1998. Comparing an Individual's Test Score Against Norms Derived
from Small Samples. *The Clinical Neuropsychologist* **12**:482–486.
doi:10.1076/clin.12.4.482.7241
Damasio AR, Damasio H. 1983. The anatomic basis of pure alexia. *Neurology* **33**:1573–1583.
doi:10.1212/wnl.33.12.1573
de Bode S, Chanturidze M, Mathern GW, Dubinsky S. 2015. Literacy after cerebral
hemispherectomy: Can the isolated right hemisphere read? *Epilepsy Behav* **45**:248–253.
doi:10.1016/j.yebeh.2015.01.007
De Renzi E. 1986. Prosopagnosia in two patients with CT scan evidence of damage confined to
the right hemisphere. *Neuropsychologia* **24**:385–389. doi:10.1016/0028-3932(86)90023-
0
Dehaene S, Le Clec'H G, Poline J-B, Le Bihan D, Cohen L. 2002. The visual word form area: a
prelexical representation of visual words in the fusiform gyrus. *Neuroreport* **13**:321–325.
doi:10.1097/00001756-200203040-00015
Dehaene S, Pegado F, Braga LW, Ventura P, Filho GN, Jobert A, Dehaene-Lambertz G,
Kolinsky R, Morais J, Cohen L. 2010. How Learning to Read Changes the Cortical
Networks for Vision and Language. *Science* **330**:1359–1364.
doi:10.1126/science.1194140
Dehaene-Lambertz G, Monzalvo K, Dehaene S. 2018. The emergence of the visual word form:
Longitudinal evolution of category-specific ventral visual areas during reading
acquisition. *PLOS Biology* **16**:e2004103. doi:10.1371/journal.pbio.2004103
dos Santos NA, Andrade SM, Fernandez Calvo B. 2013. Detection of spatial frequency in brain-
damaged patients: influence of hemispheric asymmetries and hemineglect. *Front Hum*
Neurosci **7**. doi:10.3389/fnhum.2013.00092
Dundas EM, Plaut DC, Behrmann M. 2014. An ERP investigation of the co-development of
hemispheric lateralization of face and word recognition. *Neuropsychologia* **61**:315–323.
doi:10.1016/j.neuropsychologia.2014.05.006
Dundas EM, Plaut DC, Behrmann M. 2013. The joint development of hemispheric lateralization
for words and faces. *J Exp Psychol Gen* **142**:348–358. doi:10.1037/a0029503
Gauthier I, Behrmann M, Tarr MJ. 1999. Can face recognition really be dissociated from object
recognition? *J Cogn Neurosci* **11**:349–370.
Gerlach C, Marstrand L, Starrfelt R, Gade A. 2014. No strong evidence for lateralisation of word
reading and face recognition deficits following posterior brain injury. *Journal of Cognitive*
Psychology **26**:550–558. doi:10.1080/20445911.2014.928713
Grill-Spector K, Malach R. 2004. The human visual cortex. *Annu Rev Neurosci* **27**:649–677.
doi:10.1146/annurev.neuro.27.070203.144220
Grill-Spector K, Weiner KS. 2014. The functional architecture of the ventral temporal cortex and
its role in categorization. *Nature Reviews Neuroscience* **15**:536–548.
doi:10.1038/nrn3747
Hasson U, Levy I, Behrmann M, Hendler T, Malach R. 2002. Eccentricity Bias as an Organizing
Principle for Human High-Order Object Areas. *Neuron* **34**:479–490. doi:10.1016/S0896-
6273(02)00662-1
Heitzer AM, Raghubar K, Ris MD, Minard CG, Gragert MN, Stancel HH, Orobio J, Xue J,
Whitehead W, Okcu MF, Chintagumpala M, Kahalley LS. 2019. Neuropsychological
functioning following surgery for pediatric low-grade glioma: a prospective longitudinal
study. *Journal of Neurosurgery: Pediatrics* **25**:251–259. doi:10.3171/2019.9.PEDS19357

Hellige JB, Laeng B, Michimata C. 2010. Processing asymmetries in the visual systemThe Two
Halves of the Brain: Information Processing in the Cerebral Hemispheres. Cambridge,
MA, US: MIT Press. pp. 379–415. doi:10.7551/mitpress/9780262014137.003.0279
Hildesheim FE, Debus I, Kessler R, Thome I, Zimmermann KM, Steinsträter O, Sommer J,
Kamp-Becker I, Stark R, Jansen A. 2020. The Trajectory of Hemispheric Lateralization in
the Core System of Face Processing: A Cross-Sectional Functional Magnetic
Resonance Imaging Pilot Study. *Front Psychol* **11**. doi:10.3389/fpsyg.2020.507199
Hsiao JH, Lam SM. 2013. The Modulation of Visual and Task Characteristics of a Writing
System on Hemispheric Lateralization in Visual Word Recognition—A Computational
Exploration. *Cognitive Science* **37**:861–890. doi:10.1111/cogs.12033
Kassambara A. 2020. ggpubr: "ggplot2" Based Publication Ready Plots.
Kauffmann L, Ramanoël S, Peyrin C. 2014. The neural bases of spatial frequency processing
during scene perception. *Front Integr Neurosci* **8**. doi:10.3389/fnint.2014.00037
Kim J, Park E-K, Shim K-W, Kim DS. 2018. Hemispherotomy and Functional Hemispherectomy:
Indications and Outcomes. *J Epilepsy Res* **8**:1–5. doi:10.14581/jer.18001
Kitterle FL, Hellige JB, Christman S. 1992. Visual hemispheric asymmetries depend on which
spatial frequencies are task relevant. *Brain and Cognition* **20**:308–314.
doi:10.1016/0278-2626(92)90023-F
Kitterle FL, Selig LM. 1991. Visual field effects in the discrimination of sine-wave gratings.
Perception & Psychophysics **50**:15–18. doi:10.3758/BF03212201
Konen CS, Behrmann M, Nishimura M, Kastner S. 2011. The Functional Neuroanatomy of
Object Agnosia: A Case Study. *Neuron* **71**:49–60. doi:10.1016/j.neuron.2011.05.030
Kuznetsova A, Brockhoff PB, Christensen RHB. 2019. lmerTest: Tests in Linear Mixed Effects
Models.
Landis T, Cummings JL, Christen L, Bogen JE, Imhof HG. 1986. Are unilateral right posterior
cerebral lesions sufficient to cause prosopagnosia? Clinical and radiological findings in
six additional patients. *Cortex* **22**:243–252. doi:10.1016/s0010-9452(86)80048-x
Lee MD, Wagenmakers E-J. 2013. Bayesian Cognitive Modeling: A Practical Course.
Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. doi:10.1017/CBO9781139087759
Liu TT, Behrmann M. 2017. Functional outcomes following lesions in visual cortex: Implications
for plasticity of high-level vision. *Neuropsychologia*, Special Issue: Concepts, Actions
and Objects: Functional and Neural Perspectives **105**:197–214.
doi:10.1016/j.neuropsychologia.2017.06.030
Liu TT, Freud E, Patterson C, Behrmann M. 2019. Perceptual function and category-selective
neural organization in children with resections of visual cortex. *J Neurosci* 3160–18.
doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.3160-18.2019
Liu TT, Nestor A, Vida MD, Pyles JA, Patterson C, Yang Y, Yang FN, Freud E, Behrmann M.
2018. Successful Reorganization of Category-Selective Visual Cortex following Occipito-
temporal Lobectomy in Childhood. *Cell Reports* **24**:1113-1122.e6.
doi:10.1016/j.celrep.2018.06.099
Maallo AMS, Granovetter MC, Freud E, Kastner S, Pinsk MA, Patterson C, Behrmann M. 2020.
All hands on deck: Large-scale (re)sculpting of cortical circuits in post-resection children.
bioRxiv 2020.07.01.183400. doi:10.1101/2020.07.01.183400
Matsuo T, Kawasaki K, Kawai K, Majima K, Masuda H, Murakami H, Kunii N, Kamitani Y,
Kameyama S, Saito N, Hasegawa I. 2015. Alternating Zones Selective to Faces and
Written Words in the Human Ventral Occipitotemporal Cortex. *Cereb Cortex* **25**:1265–
1277. doi:10.1093/cercor/bht319
Maurer U, Rossion B, McCandliss BD. 2008. Category Specificity in Early Perception: Face and
Word N170 Responses Differ in Both Lateralization and Habituation Properties. *Front*
Hum Neurosci **2**. doi:10.3389/neuro.09.018.2008

Moletto A, Bagnasco I, Dassi P, Vigliano P. 2018. Long term neurocognitive improvement after "late" right hemispherectomy: case report and review of the literature. *Childs Nerv Syst* **34**:1599–1603. doi:10.1007/s00381-018-3775-0

Musel B, Bordier C, Dojat M, Pichat C, Chokron S, Le Bas J-F, Peyrin C. 2013. Retinotopic and lateralized processing of spatial frequencies in human visual cortex during scene categorization. *J Cogn Neurosci* **25**:1315–1331. doi:10.1162/jocn_a_00397

Nordt M, Gomez J, Natu V, Rezai AA, Finzi D, Kular H, Grill-Spector K. 2020. Cortical recycling in high-level visual cortex during childhood development. *bioRxiv* 2020.07.18.209783. doi:10.1101/2020.07.18.209783

Ossowski A, Behrmann M. 2015. Left hemisphere specialization for word reading potentially causes, rather than results from, a left lateralized bias for high spatial frequency visual information. *Cortex*, The whole is greater than the sum of the parts **72**:27–39. doi:10.1016/j.cortex.2014.12.013

Peyrin C, Baciu M, Segebarth C, Marendaz C. 2004. Cerebral regions and hemispheric specialization for processing spatial frequencies during natural scene recognition. An event-related fMRI study. *NeuroImage* **23**:698–707. doi:10.1016/j.neuroimage.2004.06.020

Peyrin C, Chauvin A, Chokron S, Marendaz C. 2003. Hemispheric specialization for spatial frequency processing in the analysis of natural scenes. *Brain Cogn* **53**:278–282. doi:10.1016/s0278-2626(03)00126-x

Psychology Software Tools, Inc. [E-Prime 3.0]. (2016). Retrieved from https://www.pstnet.com.

Puce A, Allison T, Asgari M, Gore JC, McCarthy G. 1996. Differential Sensitivity of Human Visual Cortex to Faces, Letterstrings, and Textures: A Functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging Study. *J Neurosci* **16**:5205–5215. doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.16-16-05205.1996

Pulsifer MB, Brandt J, Salorio CF, Vining EPG, Carson BS, Freeman JM. 2004. The cognitive outcome of hemispherectomy in 71 children. *Epilepsia* **45**:243–254. doi:10.1111/j.0013-9580.2004.15303.x

R Core Team (2018). R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. URL https://www.R-project.org/.

Revelle W. 2019. psych: Procedures for Psychological, Psychometric, and Personality Research.

Righi G, Peissig JJ, Tarr MJ. 2012. Recognizing disguised faces. *Visual Cognition* **20**:143–169. doi:10.1080/13506285.2012.654624

Roberts DJ, Lambon Ralph MA, Kim E, Tainturier M-J, Beeson PM, Rapcsak SZ, Woollams AM. 2015. Processing deficits for familiar and novel faces in patients with left posterior fusiform lesions. *Cortex*, The whole is greater than the sum of the parts **72**:79–96. doi:10.1016/j.cortex.2015.02.003

Roberts DJ, Woollams AM, Kim E, Beeson PM, Rapcsak SZ, Lambon Ralph MA. 2013. Efficient Visual Object and Word Recognition Relies on High Spatial Frequency Coding in the Left Posterior Fusiform Gyrus: Evidence from a Case-Series of Patients with Ventral Occipito-Temporal Cortex Damage. *Cereb Cortex* **23**:2568–2580. doi:10.1093/cercor/bhs224

Robotham RJ, Starrfelt R. 2017. Face and Word Recognition Can Be Selectively Affected by Brain Injury or Developmental Disorders. *Front Psychol* **8**. doi:10.3389/fpsyg.2017.01547

Rossion B, Joyce CA, Cottrell GW, Tarr MJ. 2003. Early lateralization and orientation tuning for face, word, and object processing in the visual cortex. *NeuroImage* **20**:1609–1624. doi:10.1016/j.neuroimage.2003.07.010

Sawilowsky S. 2009. New Effect Size Rules of Thumb. *Journal of Modern Applied Statistical Methods* **8**. doi:10.22237/jmasm/1257035100

Scherf KS, Behrmann M, Humphreys K, Luna B. 2007. Visual category-selectivity for faces,
places and objects emerges along different developmental trajectories. *Developmental*
Science **10**:F15–F30. doi:10.1111/j.1467-7687.2007.00595.x
Sergent J, Hellige JB. 1986. Role of input factors in visual-field asymmetries. *Brain and*
Cognition **5**:174–199. doi:10.1016/0278-2626(86)90054-0
van Empelen R, Jennekens-Schinkel A, Buskens E, Helders PJM, van Nieuwenhuizen O. 2004.
Functional consequences of hemispherectomy. *Brain* **127**:2071–2079.
doi:10.1093/brain/awh224
Wagenmakers E-J. 2007. A practical solution to the pervasive problems ofp values.
Psychonomic Bulletin & Review **14**:779–804. doi:10.3758/BF03194105
Wei T, Simko V, Levy M, Xie Y, Jin Y, Zemla J. 2017. corrplot: Visualization of a Correlation
Matrix.
Wickham H, Chang W, Henry L, Pedersen TL, Takahashi K, Wilke C, Woo K, RStudio. 2019.
ggplot2: Create Elegant Data Visualisations Using the Grammar of Graphics.
Woodhead ZVJ, Wise RJS, Sereno M, Leech R. 2011. Dissociation of Sensitivity to Spatial
Frequency in Word and Face Preferential Areas of the Fusiform Gyrus. *Cereb Cortex*
21:2307–2312. doi:10.1093/cercor/bhr008
990