Unraveling the Neural Mechanisms of Language Processing: Electroencephalography Technology and Analysis Methods

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Abstract: The application of electroencephalography (EEG) technology in language research has significantly broadened our understanding of the functional. temporal, and anatomical dimensions of language processing. This paper provides a comprehensive overview of the primary methods employed to analyze EEG data in the context of neurolinguistics, including Event-Related Potentials (ERPs) Component analysis, **Time-Frequency (TF)** analysis, Topographic analysis, and Connectivity analysis. ERPs offer insights into the timing and sequence of neural events associated with language tasks, while TF analysis sheds light on how different frequency bands are involved in various aspects of language comprehension and production. Topographic analysis maps the spatial distributions of neural activity, and Connectivity analysis explores the between different interactions brain regions during language processing. By leveraging these analytical techniques, researchers can unravel the complex neural mechanisms that facilitate language comprehension production. and Furthermore, this paper critically examines the advantages of EEG, such as its high temporal resolution and non-invasiveness, along with its limitations, including spatial resolution constraints and susceptibility to artifacts. Through this analysis, we aim to highlight the pivotal role of EEG in advancing our understanding of the neural underpinnings of language and discuss future directions for enhancing the methodology and application of EEG in language research.

Keywords: Language Processing; Neural Mechanisms; Electroencephalography; ERPs Component Analysis; TF Analysis;

Topographic Analysis; Connectivity Analysis

1. Introduction

Language serves as a crucial component of communication and cognition, human significantly influencing our daily and social interactions. Unraveling the neural mechanisms underlying language processing is essential for a deeper understanding of how produced, language is perceived, and comprehended. Electroencephalography (EEG) is a non-invasive technique used to record electrical activity in the brain through scalp electrodes. It is known for its exceptional temporal resolution of less than a millisecond, making it highly suitable for the real-time assessment of neurocognitive language processing. The application of EEG in language research is extensive, covering phonological, lexical, syntactic, and semantic processing studies. This paper aims to present a comprehensive overview of the predominant EEG analysis methods applied in language studies, including event-related potentials (ERPs) component analysis, time-frequency topographic analysis, analysis, and connectivity analysis. These methods yield invaluable insights into the neural foundations of language processing, shedding light on the cognitive mechanisms involved in speech perception, language comprehension, and language production. Furthermore, this paper will discuss the advantages and limitations of using EEG in language research, underscoring the potential for future advancements in understanding language processing.

2. ERPs Component Analysis

ERPs have contributed to our understanding of how we extract meaning from language as they unfold in real-time. Since the first papers on ERPs and language in the 1980s, ERPs have proven to be immensely valuable in advancing our understanding of language processing. ERP components such as the N1, N400, P200, P600, Left Anterior Negativity (LAN), Mismatch Negativity (MMN) and Phonological Mismatch Negativity (PMN) represent some of the most broadly analyzed and well-understood ERPs components in language research.

2.1 N1 Component

The N1 component, which typically peaks around 150 and 200 ms after the onset of a stimulus, is named based on the component's polarity and timing. The "N" denotes that the component has a negative polarity compared to a standard mastoid reference, while the numeral "1" signifies that this is the initial negative component observed. Since the N1 component is widespread across the entire scalp and is evoked by all visual stimuli, it is frequently referred to as the visual N1. The visual N1 component is widespread across the entire scalp, with a stronger presence in the frontal regions compared to the posterior regions [1]. The earliest N1 component can be obtained frontally at around 100-150 ms [2]. Selective attention modifies the amplitude of the N1 component, making it a valuable index for investigating attention-related phenomena. The N1 attention effect generally signifies a discriminative process that occurs when attended stimuli are processed [3]. However, this has been not well established yet. For attended-location stimuli, the amplitude of the visual N1 component is more significant than for unattended-location stimuli. This could be further described in details. First, the N1 attention effect indicates an increased processing of stimuli in the attended region [4]. Furthermore, it is exclusively observed when individuals successfully perform a discriminating task at the attended location [1]. According to Vogel and Luck, the N1 component reflects a visual discriminative process at attended locations, rather than a simple response [5].

2.2 P2/P200 Component

The anterior positive peak occurring at around 200 ms is referred to as P2 or P200. Here we use P2 as a preference. At anterior and central scalp sites, there is a distinct P2 wave that occurs after the N1 wave. The P2 component can be interpreted in various ways, including

its reflection of sensory processing within the N1-P2 complex and its susceptibility to attentional influences. The P2 component has also been linked to the recognition and interpretation of visual features in tasks involving selective attention, with rare stimuli evoking more attentional changes than common stimuli. Put simply, the amplitude of the P2 component is elevated in response to stimuli that exhibit characteristics of the target. and this effect is further amplified when such targets are infrequent. Enhancements in the P2 amplitude have been observed in response to repeated visual stimuli within the context of studies focused on implicit priming and explicit memory, particularly when these studies employ short retention intervals [6]. The P2 component signifies the processes related to lexical. orthographic, and phonological aspects of language comprehension.

2.3 N400 Component

The N400 component is a negative-going waveform that typically peaks around 400 milliseconds after the presentation of a stimulus. The N400 component is believed to reflect semantic processing in the brain, specifically evoked in response to semantically incongruent or unexpected but syntactically correct word, making it a reliable neural index indicative of the cognitive processes involved in lexical retrieval and semantic integration.

Regarding the distribution on the scalp, the N400 amplitude is typically highest over electrode sites located in the central and parietal regions. There is a slightly greater amplitude over the right hemisphere compared to the left hemisphere.

The N400 component is a valid index of the difficulties associated with integrating stored conceptual information with a word. contingent on the memory representation of the word and the contextual hints that precede it [7]. According to this account, the N400 component's amplitude is reduced when words can be easily integrated into the broader semantic context. The N400 component is modality independent, being elicitable through linguistic stimuli across various forms, including written, spoken, or signed languages. This phenomenon underscores the broad applicability of the N400 in exploring the neural underpinnings of language processing, irrespective of the communication modality.

2.4 P600/ SPS and E/LAN

ERPs have been instrumental in elucidating the neural correlates associated with morpho-syntactic processing. Specifically, components such as the Early Left Anterior Negativity (E/LAN) and the P600/Syntactic Positive Shift (SPS) have been identified as critical markers. These components signify distinct phases of cognitive processing involved in the comprehension and analysis of syntactic structures, thereby offering profound insights into the underlying mechanisms of language processing in the human brain.

Observations indicate that the Early LAN (ELAN) effect emerges within the 100-300 ms timeframe following stimulus onset, whereas the Later LAN effect is observed in the 300-500 ms interval, distinguishing it from the N400, though it shares similarities. The elicitation of the ELAN is most consistent under conditions involving word category violations, with a particular emphasis on auditory studies. The Later LAN effect is mainly triggered by morphosyntactic violations, specifically those concerning number, case, gender, and tense [8].

The P600 component, also known as SPS, is a late centro-parietal positive wave, observed 500 to 1000 ms after a word's onset, with a peak around 600 ms. This component is associated with the cognitive processes involved in reevaluating and attempting to rectify anomalies detected in a sentence, occurring at a later stage of sentence processing. Osterhout and Holcomb initially identified the P600 component, noting its significance in linguistic analysis [9]. Subsequent research by Osterhout et al. further revealed that ungrammatical sentence continuations prompt a more pronounced P600 response compared to grammatical but less preferred continuations [10]. Moreover, studies by Kaan et al. expanded the understanding of the P600 component, demonstrating its elicitation not only by grammatical anomalies but also by sentences while grammatically correct and that, preferred, are more challenging to process than simpler control sentences [11]. This body of research collectively underscores the crucial role of the P600 component in the cognitive mechanisms that underpin language comprehension, particularly in the identification and resolution of syntactic discrepancies.

2.5 Mismatch Negativity (MMN) and Phonological Mismatch Negativity (PMN)

The mismatch negativity (MMN) is a frontal negative-going ERPs component that appears 100–250 ms post the onset of an odd stimulus and represents change detection. It has been described in various modalities and has most frequently been studied in auditory and visionary modalities. In auditory studies, the MMN is typically elicited applying the "oddball" paradigm, where a sequence of sounds primarily consists of a standard sound (e.g., 80% /ba/) interspersed with less frequent occurrences of a deviant sound (e.g., 20% /pa/) [12].

The MMN component serves as a valuable tool in linguistic research, particularly for investigating pre-attentive processing of phoneme boundaries and its adaptations in bilingual individuals [13]. Additionally, it proves instrumental in studies concerning early language acquisition among neonates and infants.

The Phonological Mismatch Negativity (PMN) is an ERPs component that is particular to the auditory modality. It is triggered when the phonological characteristics of a spoken word are not primed or do not align with the expected input. The PMN typically peaks between 250 and 350 milliseconds after onset, exhibiting a frontal or fronto-central distribution, and has been detected in words and non-words that necessitate phonological processing.

The PMN reflects the process of word recognition during the selection stage, where both sensory and contextual information are applied. Unlike the N400, which is heavily reliant on memory, contextual information, and integration processes, the PMN is more closely associated with acoustic-phonetic processing and early selection mechanisms.

3. Time-Frequency Analysis

EEG captures bioelectric signals characterized by rhythmic patterns across various frequency ranges. Spontaneous brain activity reflects a mixture of oscillations, which is typically analyzed in the time, frequency, or time-frequency domain.

Changes in the power and coherence of oscillatory neural responses have been found during language comprehension in four distinct frequency bands: theta (4-7 Hz), alpha (8-12 Hz), lower beta (13-18 Hz), and gamma (above 30 Hz). When it comes to language comprehension, oscillatory activities are related retrieving lexical mostlv to information and performing unification procedures.

Evidence reveals distinct brain synchronization patterns associated with the language network's processes of lexical retrieval and semantic-syntactic integration. Specifically, lexical information extraction from the mental lexicon process synchronizes with neural dynamics in the theta and alpha frequency bands while the process of integrating semantic and syntactic information synchronizes neural activity in the beta and gamma frequency bands [14].

4. Topographic Analysis

A vital advantage of the topographic analysis lies in the independence of the reference. Global Field Power (GFP) quantifies the variation in the strength of the scalp's electric field. This is determined by calculating the standard deviation across all electrodes, thereby representing the average potential strength captured by the electrode array. On the other hand, Global Map Dissimilarity (GMD) evaluates the differences in the configurations of two electric fields. independent of their power. GMD is computed as the square root of the mean of the squared differences in potentials across all electrodes [15].

Jost et al. employed topographic analysis to study the translation process, aiming to spatial-temporal brain investigate how dynamics vary during translation compared to a control within-language word-generation task [16]. Their GFP and GMD analyses revealed that translation tasks elicited more pronounced early preparatory and attentional processes compared to within-language word-generation tasks. Moreover, it was observed that forward translation (FT) more extensively activated brain regions associated with attention, arousal, and awareness at later stages of processing.

5. Connectivity Analysis

Connectivity analysis enables the investigation of interactions between different brain regions during mental activity and offers both a theoretical framework and a practical methodology for elucidating the nature and functioning mechanisms of distributed cortical networks during particular cognitive processes [17].

Functional networks in the brain can be through distinct elucidated three yet complementary perspectives: structural connectivity, effective connectivity and functional connectivity [18]. Structural connectivity can be used to describe anatomical fibre tracts identify to neurodegeneration. Functional connectivity is commonly used in exploratory language discover correlations and research to significant differences in semantic processing across conditions. Effective connectivity describes the temporal coherence between different areas involved in the performance of a language task and is a key tool for assessing dynamic connectome changes in bilinguals [17].

In their groundbreaking study, García et al. employed functional connectivity analyses to investigate the cognitive processes underlying By contrasting the neural translation. responses during second language (L2) reading with back translation (BT) and first language (L1) reading with forward translation (FT), the researchers identified distinctive neural connectivity patterns. Specifically, they observed enhanced interaction within the right temporo-occipital network during BT, as evidenced by beta frequency patterns. Conversely, FT was characterized by increased connectivity within fronto-temporal networks. bilateral as depicted in Figure 1[18].

These findings imply that FT engages more general cognitive systems compared to BT. Additionally, connectivity analyses revealed significant differences in intra- and inter-lobe activity between BT and FT. Specifically, BT is characterized by a more extensive distribution of inter-regional connections that are not as densely concentrated, spanning frontal, temporal, and parietal regions. Conversely, FT is marked by more robust information exchange among the anterior

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temporal, frontal, and prefrontal regions [18]. These divergent connectivity patterns reflect the varying executive control demands of different translation directions.



Figure 1. EEG Connectivity Patterns in FT and BT

6. Advantages and Limitations of Applying EEG in Language Research

EEG reflects the neurophysiological changes in the brain during the cognitive process and are the real-time brain waves caused by stimulation events. Its advantage lies mainly in its non-invasiveness and extremely high resolution, which time can reach а microsecond level in time accuracy. Besides, there are several reasons why EEG is an exceptional technique for studying the neurocognitive mechanism of the language process.

Firstly, EEG has a high temporal resolution and can capture cognitive processes within the time frame in which cognition occurs. The EEG is characterized by an excellent temporal resolution in milliseconds and therefore give important insides to the temporal dynamics of brain processes. Consequently, EEG stands out as an exceptional tool for pinpointing the exact temporal dynamics of cognitive and emotional processing that underlie behavioral responses. EEG enables researchers to capture continuous data streams with a temporal resolution of a few milliseconds and is thus an appealing characteristic for academics interested in tracking continuous online language processing.

Secondly, EEG records the brain's electrical activity directly and identifies changes in milliseconds. EEG's ability to provide real-time. temporal resolution high measurements even without behavioral responses makes it an invaluable tool for exploring the instantaneous brain dynamics underpin linguistic that processes. Consequently, electroencephalography (EEG) provides a window into the temporal

dynamics of language processing, shedding light on the intricate processes underlying language comprehension and production.

Thirdly, EEG is subconscious and could be observed without any behavior task, which is essential in language studies with patients with language difficulty as they may not understand or conduct those behavioral tasks. Besides, thanks to its completely non-invasive interface, EEG technique is suitable for subjects of any age, even babies.

Fourthly, EEG technique is inexpensive, lightweight, and portable. The EEG equipment and its requirements for the environment are comparatively simple. They do not involve exposure to high-intensity magnetic fields or radioligands compared to fMRI, MEG or PET techniques.

Each technique, however, has distinct advantages and disadvantages. Similarly, applying any technology to language research has many benefits and drawbacks, and the EEG techniques are is exception.

Firstly, EEG measurement is performed on only the surface of the brain. EEG could not detect neural activity below the upper brain layers. Thus, scalp-recorded EEG data cannot be directly related to their generating sources.

Secondly, preparing a participant for EEG experiment might take a long time because all electrodes must be placed precisely around the head. Light abrasion of the dead skin cells on the scalp is required in the preparation stage to reduce impedance. This stage is often time-consuming and might cause discomfort to participants. Conductive gel or paste is usually used to maintain good conductivity. The preparation time for EEG recordings varies due to the specific device, the compatibility with the participant's skull, and their scalp and hair condition. In addition, a good stimulus-to-noise ratio for collecting EEG and ERP data necessitates multiple trials. which could result in subject exhaustion.

Thirdly, EEG's sensitivity to muscle tension and eye movements significantly impacts the accuracy of neural response measurements to stimuli. During ERPs experiments, it is crucial for participants to maintain stillness and refrain from blinking during specific intervals, aiming to reduce artifact presence in the ERPs signals. Such restrictions, however, may compromise the participants' focus on the stimuli and question the ecological validity of the findings. In efforts to circumvent these limitations, sentences in ERPs reading tasks are not presented in their full textual form but rather through the rapid serial visual presentation (RSVP) method, where words or phrases are displayed sequentially at the screen. This presentation mode, markedly divergent from conventional reading, could potentially place additional cognitive demands on the reader.

Finally, though EEG boasts high temporal resolution, the location of neural activity remains obscured by its scalp recordings. By calculation, it could only hypothesize what areas are activated by a particular response. Recently, combined EEG recording and fMRI scans have been used to obtain high temporaland spatial-resolution data. However, technical difficulties are associated with simultaneous data recording.

7. Conclusion

EEG's high temporal resolution and non-invasive nature make it an indispensable tool in neurolinguistic research, offering unparalleled insights into the real-time dynamics of brain activity during linguistic tasks. In this paper, we have explored the application of EEG technology and various analysis methods to unravel the neural mechanisms underlying language processing. Moving forward, continued advancements in EEG technology and analysis methods will

further enhance our understanding of the intricate processes involved in language processing within the brain. Moreover, by combining EEG with other neuroimaging techniques and computational models, we can continue to push the boundaries of our understanding of language and cognition.

In conclusion, EEG technology and its associated analytical approaches are pivotal in advancing our knowledge of language processing. By leveraging these tools, we can continue to unravel the intricate neural mechanisms that enable us to communicate and understand language, paving the way for future breakthroughs in both theoretical and applied neurolinguistics.

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