

1 **Article title:**

2 ***The interaction between language and consciousness***

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4 **Author names:**

5 Charlène Aubinet,^{1,2,3} MSc PhD, Olivia Gosseries,^{1,2} MSc PhD & Steve Majerus,³ MSc PhD.

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7 **Affiliations:**

8 ¹ Coma Science Group, GIGA-Consciousness, GIGA Institute, University of Liège, Belgium

9 ² NeuroRehab & Consciousness Clinic, Neurology Department, University Hospital of Liège, Belgium

10 ³ Psychology and Neuroscience of Cognition Research Unit, University of Liège, Belgium

11

12 **Corresponding author:**

13 Name: C. AUBINET

14 Mailing address: caubinet@uliege.be

15 Address: CHU de Liège, GIGA Institute (B34, +1), Avenue de l'Hôpital 1, 4000 Liège, Belgium

16 Telephone number: +32 4 284 36 12

17 <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5095-5583>

18 **Abstract:**

19 The degree of interaction between language and consciousness is a theoretically significant yet
20 poorly understood question. In this review, we examine neuroimaging, cognitive, and
21 neuropsychological studies that address this issue by distinguishing between different aspects
22 or dimensions of language and consciousness. The reviewed studies indicate that high-level
23 semantic and sentence integration occur only in higher consciousness state and under
24 conscious processing conditions, while lower-level phonetic, phonological or lexico-semantic
25 processes appear to remain functional even in the absence of consciousness. We also highlight
26 parallel recovery trajectories between aspects of language and states of consciousness, along
27 with experimental and clinical evidence suggesting that language processing may, in some
28 cases, influence consciousness content or even precede the reemergence of a consciousness
29 state. Evidence of associations between language processing and higher-order conscious
30 thought is further described. Finally, we discuss the theoretical implications and methodological
31 challenges involved in studying and interpreting the interaction between language and
32 consciousness, with particular attention to causal direction and to the possibility that observed
33 associations reflect broader disruptions of integration rather than language-specific
34 mechanisms only.

35

36 **Keywords:**

37 Consciousness, language, inner speech, unconscious processing, aphasia, brain injury.

38

39

63 internal representations and, consequently, higher-order awareness of one's own conscious
64 states (Edelman et al., 2011).

65 The difficulty of disentangling the role of language in consciousness stems from the multi-
66 determined nature of language processing itself, which ranges from low-level processing of
67 phonetic and phonological features associated with speech to high-level processing of
68 semantic content and morphosyntactic rules involving integration skills (Kovacs, 2021; Mudrik
69 et al., 2014). A similar comment can, however, also be made for the concept of consciousness
70 (Figure 2), which involves different quantitative levels or states (i.e., 'global state of arousal' such
71 as sleep or coma) (Mashour, 2024) and different qualitative types of content (i.e., specific
72 mental representations or information) and subjective experience (i.e., qualia, like 'the taste of a
73 coffee' or 'the experience of redness') (Block, 1995; Laureys, 2005; Overgaard and Overgaard,
74 2010).

75 The absence of a clear ground truth for consciousness further complicates investigations into
76 how it interacts with language processing, highlighting the need for caution in interpreting
77 results. For instance, higher-order, reflective conscious thought (including self-awareness and
78 metacognition) is considered by *Higher-Order Theories* to be a defining feature of, or at least
79 closely related to, the phenomenon of consciousness (Brown et al., 2019; Lau and Rosenthal,
80 2011; Morin, 2006). Likewise, the *Integrated Information Theory* (Tononi et al., 2016) posits that
81 consciousness depends on a system's capacity to generate integrated information. From this
82 perspective, findings reporting associations between language (particularly at its highest levels
83 requiring semantic integration) and consciousness disruptions may simply reflect broader
84 deficits in integration rather than a language-specific role.

85 [INSERT FIGURE 2 AROUND HERE]

86 We will examine studies that have investigated the interaction between language and
87 consciousness by focusing on the following questions: (1) Which aspects of language remain
88 functional in states of reduced consciousness? (2) Do consciousness and language recover in
89 a parallel or in a dissociated manner after severe brain injury? (3) Which aspects of language
90 imply conscious processing and (4) which influence conscious experience? (5) How does
91 higher-order conscious thought interact with language processing?

92

93 **2. Language processing and consciousness state in sleep and anesthesia**

94 By provoking reversible states of unconsciousness, sleep and anesthesia can both be
95 considered as valuable windows into consciousness (Bonhomme et al., 2019; Huang et al.,
96 2018; Mashour et al., 2020; Tononi et al., 2024). Graded consciousness states are associated
97 with different sleep stages, from light (N1 and N2) to deep (N3; i.e., slow-wave sleep) non-rapid
98 eye movements (non-REM) sleep (Tagliazucchi et al., 2013), as well as to the depth of
99 anesthesia (Mashour, 2024).

100 A number of studies suggest that lexico-semantic processing can occur in light (Andrillon et al.,
101 2016) and even deep sleep (Palma and Titone, 2021; Ruch and Henke, 2020), i.e., in the absence
102 of conscious processing. Some studies have investigated the sleeping brain's capacity to
103 process different aspects of language. In a first electroencephalography (EEG) study, syllables,
104 words, phrases, and sentences were arranged within speech sequences in such a manner that
105 each type of linguistic unit was repeated at distinct frequencies (Makov et al., 2017), allowing
106 for neural tracking of each type. Neural tracking of acoustic units was comparable across
107 wakefulness and sleep. In contrast, neural tracking of higher-level types of information, such as
108 words, phrases and sentences, was only observed during wakefulness. Similar results were

109 recently obtained by Fogel and colleagues (2022) who used an fMRI synchronization-based
110 approach to examine responses to a movie narrative in awake and asleep participants. In
111 wakefulness, the activation of auditory and frontoparietal networks was synchronized with the
112 following of a high-level narrative plot. Same frontoparietal activity as in wakefulness was also
113 observed during REM sleep in one participant, and partially in one other, but such higher-level
114 processing was not observed in light and deep non-REM sleep. Auditory network activation
115 associated with the narrative was observed in all sleep stages, demonstrating preservation of
116 low-level auditory processing, even in deep sleep. In sum, whereas acoustic processing is
117 relatively preserved during sleep, signs of processing of higher-level aspects of language do not
118 appear to be observable in non-REM sleep stages.

119 Another fMRI study showed similar results by presenting the same movie narrative during deep
120 anesthesia (Naci et al., 2018). In the non-sedated control condition, significant brain activity
121 was observed in both primary and association auditory cortices, as well as in the frontoparietal
122 cortex, while it was limited mainly to the auditory cortex in deep anesthesia. These results
123 suggest that narrative processing was preserved in the sensory areas, but almost entirely
124 abolished in the frontoparietal regions considered to be associated with integrated, conscious
125 processing. In line with this, Krom and colleagues (2020) investigated anesthesia-induced loss
126 of consciousness using intracranial EEG responses to auditory stimuli including words. They
127 showed that neuronal spiking was largely attenuated in frontoparietal regions upon loss of
128 consciousness, and that auditory processing was restricted to the primary auditory cortex
129 during anesthesia.

130 The studies reviewed here indicate an absence of integrated processing of verbal information at
131 semantic and morphosyntactic levels in deep sleep and anesthesia, when consciousness state

132 is strongly reduced or absent. However, sleep and anesthesia do not only alter consciousness,
133 but they exert a broader impact on cognitive processing and behavior, making it difficult to
134 specifically interpret the results in terms of interrelations between language processing and
135 consciousness state only.

136

137 **3. Language and consciousness state after coma**

138 We will now examine the pathways of recovery of consciousness and language processing in
139 patients suffering from severe acquired brain injury. Whereas comatose patients are fully
140 unawake with no conscious behaviors, patients in a vegetative state (i.e., unresponsive
141 wakefulness syndrome; UWS) have regained wakefulness but remain unresponsive at the
142 bedside, while patients in a minimally conscious state (MCS) show progressive recovery of
143 conscious behaviors (Giacino et al., 2002; Laureys et al., 2010). Importantly, a
144 subcategorization of the MCS has been proposed based on the absence (MCS-) or presence
145 (MCS+) of language-related signs of consciousness such as command following or word
146 production (Bruno et al., 2011; Thibaut et al., 2019), while the recovery of reliable
147 communication (and object use) skills indicates emergence from the MCS (Giacino et al., 2004).
148 Neural responses to verbal commands are also increasingly examined in patients with disorders
149 of consciousness, having led to new labels like the cognitive-motor dissociation (Bodien et al.,
150 2024; Claassen et al., 2024; Eggebike et al., 2022) or covert cortical processing (Edlow et al.,
151 2021; Young et al., 2024). In these conditions, explicit (i.e., cortically-driven responses to verbal
152 commands) or implicit (i.e., cortically-driven responses to language stimuli) processing of verbal
153 information can be detected despite the absence of command following at bedside (Aubinet et
154 al., 2022).

155 The recovery of voluntary language abilities after coma appears to be in line, or shortly preceded,
156 by the progressive recovery of consciousness. Accordingly, studies in patients with disorders of
157 consciousness have revealed that the proportion of patients reacting to language stimuli
158 increases from low (i.e., UWS) to high states of consciousness (i.e., MCS and emergence from
159 the MCS) (Aubinet et al., 2022). Moreover, Gui and colleagues (2020) showed that EEG-derived
160 neural signals of language processing, including both speech-tracking responses and temporal
161 dynamics of global brain states, go in hand with the type of behavioral diagnosis of impaired
162 consciousness state. As language stimuli become more complex (i.e., from words to entire
163 sentences), associated neural signals become more reliable in differentiating UWS from MCS
164 patients (Gui et al., 2020). Phrase- and sentence-level responses decrease in MCS (relative to
165 healthy controls) but fully disappear in UWS, suggesting no preservation of higher-level linguistic
166 processing once consciousness is fully lost. Altogether, these results suggest an association
167 between the complexity of language processing and consciousness state: the more complex
168 the linguistic stimuli to which the patients respond, the higher their consciousness state (Figure
169 3). However, these results do not inform us about the causal nature and direction of these
170 associations.

171 [INSERT FIGURE 3 AROUND HERE]

172 Regarding the question of causality, it has been shown that residual language-related responses
173 after coma can predict the patients' recovery of consciousness (Claassen et al., 2019; Egbebike
174 et al., 2022; Formisano et al., 2019; Gui et al., 2020; Llorens et al., 2024; Sokoliuk et al., 2021;
175 Steppacher et al., 2020). For example, Sokoliuk and colleagues (2021) recorded EEG brain
176 activity in acute patients who failed to obey commands. They were presented streams of
177 isochronous monosyllabic words that could be parsed into meaningful phrases and sentences.

178 The results showed a significant correlation between functional outcomes at 3- and 6-months
179 and the strength of the patients' acute neural tracking of phrases and sentences as quantified by
180 inter-trial phase coherence. According to these data, not only does language - or the processes
181 it requires - reappear in line with consciousness state in post-comatose patients, but the
182 recovery of language and related processes may anticipate, and even predict, the reemergence
183 of a consciousness state.

184

185 **4. Cognitive research on conscious and unconscious language processing**

186 In this section, we will examine cognitive behavioral studies in awake human participants that
187 have examined the type of linguistic units that can be processed in conscious vs. unconscious
188 experimental setups. These studies address the subjective experience of linguistic content,
189 thereby exploring the interaction between language and the qualitative aspects of
190 consciousness.

191 **4.1. Unconscious language processing**

192 *4.1.1. Word-level processing*

193 Some cognitive studies using behavioral paradigms, often coupled with EEG, have provided
194 evidence for unconscious semantic processing at the word level (Mudrik and Deouell, 2022).
195 Negative evoked-related potentials (ERPs) at 400 ms (i.e., N400 effect) associated with
196 semantic processing have been observed in EEG studies even for not consciously experienced
197 target words in an attentional blink paradigm (Giesbrecht et al., 2007; Luck et al., 1996). This
198 paradigm classically involves presentation of a rapid stream of visual stimuli, in which the

199 detection of an initial target prevents the detection of subsequent targets occurring up to 400-
200 600 ms later (Weller et al., 2019).

201 Rivalry-based paradigms such as the flash suppression paradigm (where a visual stimulus is
202 rendered unconscious by another stimulus presented in a 'flash' to the other eye) (Nakamura
203 and Kawabata, 2018; Wilke et al., 2003) or the binocular rivalry paradigm (where two different
204 stimuli are separately presented to each retina and conscious experience fluctuates between
205 them) have led to more nuanced behavioral results. Chien and colleagues (2023) recently
206 analyzed priming effects based on different levels of semantic associations: (1) direct
207 associations with semantically congruent (e.g., *Glacier-Chill*) or incongruent (e.g., *Freeze-Fire*)
208 prime-target word pairs; (2) cross-form associations including prime words semantically
209 congruent or incongruent with target pictures; (3) metaphoric associations, where prime words
210 were metaphorically congruent (e.g., *Freeze-Heartless*) or incongruent (e.g., *Freeze-Sanguine*)
211 with target words referring to personality traits. Participants were asked to categorize the
212 meaning of the target words as referring to coldness or warmth dimensions. When the primes
213 were rendered invisible using the continuous flash suppression paradigm, no semantic priming
214 effect (i.e., no shorter response times for congruent compared to incongruent trials) was found
215 for the cross-form and metaphoric associations. To be processed, these higher-level semantic
216 associations would thus need to be consciously processed. Priming for direct associations was,
217 however, observed, suggesting that lower-level categorical semantic processing can occur in
218 the absence of conscious perception.

219 Similar results have been observed with liminal-prime paradigms, where perceptual awareness
220 of the prime is measured on every trial, for example using a scale ranging from 0 ('I saw nothing
221 at all') to 3 ('I saw the prime clearly'). Using this method in a digit categorization task (i.e., 'X is

222 higher or lower than five'), a study examined the role of conscious perception for the occurrence
223 of priming effects involving either semantic associations (using digit symbols as primes and
224 congruent or incongruent digit words as targets) or perceptual associations (using digit symbols
225 both as primes and targets) (Avneon and Lamy, 2019). Results showed perceptual priming
226 effects independently of the conscious perception of the primes, whereas the semantic priming
227 effect was smaller for stimuli with a low perceptual awareness rating. Comparable results were
228 observed in categorization tasks involving animal names or ambiguous written stimuli (e.g., a
229 symbol interpretable as either "B" or "13"), highlighting that unconscious semantic processing
230 is task-dependent and restricted to categorical contexts rather than extending to broader
231 semantic integration (Biderman et al., 2020; Micher and Lamy, 2023).

232 In sum, these different studies suggest that low-level, direct semantic associations can be
233 processed for unconsciously perceived stimuli. However, the semantic processing effects will
234 be less marked than for consciously perceived stimuli. Furthermore, conscious perception
235 appears to be necessary for higher-level semantic processing of information. In other words, the
236 more consciously we perceive a stimulus, the more deeply it can be processed semantically.

237 *4.1.2. Sentence-level processing*

238 Several theories of consciousness argue that sentence processing would require
239 consciousness, because sentence processing involves the use of working memory and
240 controlled inferential operations, particularly for more complex sentences (Rabagliati et al.,
241 2018). In a behavioral priming study, Berkovitch and Dehaene (2019) investigated the processing
242 of different syntactic features using subliminal masking paradigms. Based on the participants'
243 response times across five experiments, subliminal priming could be induced by grammatical

244 category and number as well as by syntactic context, highlighting unconscious processing of
245 some of the syntactic features that characterize sentences.

246 Other studies have also used EEG measures to investigate semantic and sentence integration
247 in subliminal masking paradigms (Mongelli et al., 2019; Nakamura et al., 2018; van Gaal et al.,
248 2014). In one study, two masked words (a modifier, *not* or *very*, and an adjective, *good* or *bad*)
249 were followed by a visible target noun (*peace* or *murder*) (van Gaal et al., 2014). Participants
250 judged the valence of the target noun in contextually consistent (*very bad-murder*) or
251 inconsistent (*not bad-murder*) three-word combinations. EEG recordings indicated that
252 grammatical negation could occur partially unconsciously, as evidenced by similar occipito-
253 parietal N400 effects for both conscious and unconscious inconsistent sequences. This
254 suggests that unconscious negation can automatically reverse the meaning of an unconscious
255 adjective. However, a more recent study using a word(s)-picture matching task failed to identify
256 an N400 effect for the unconscious processing of short sentences (e.g., *Man pushes woman* as
257 a prime) (Mongelli et al., 2019). Additionally, in another study where entire sentences were
258 rendered invisible through repeated masking of successive words (i.e., six-word sequences
259 including a noun phrase, three adverbs, and a visible target verb), unconscious trials showed a
260 reduced N400 magnitude and extent, which appeared only for the integration of closed subject-
261 verb structures (Nakamura et al., 2018). These results align with Mudrik and Deouell (2022),
262 stating that evidence for the unconscious integration of more than two individual elements (i.e.,
263 either words or other non-linguistic objects) remains scarce. They suggest that high-level
264 sentence processing may not be possible for unconsciously perceived information.

265 To summarize, the results of this section reviewing behavioral cognitive studies in awake
266 participants seem to converge with the neuroimaging studies of the previous section in sedated

267 or sleeping participants: whereas unconscious processing of auditory and low-level semantic
268 information appears to be possible, higher-level integration of semantic information such as in
269 a sentence context requires conscious processing of the information. These data imply a role
270 for conscious processing in higher-level aspects of receptive language, or in the broader
271 integrative processes that underlie such language operations, supporting claims by Mudrik and
272 colleagues (2014) on information integration (see section 6.3). In the next section, we consider
273 the reverse relationship by examining the potential influence of language processing on
274 consciousness content.

275 **4.2. Influence of language processing on the content of consciousness**

276 The content of consciousness refers to mental representations associated to specific
277 subjective experience that can be decomposed into *connectedness* (i.e., connection and
278 responsiveness to the environment) and *internal awareness* (Martial et al., 2020; Figure 2). We
279 subjectively experience language events produced by others (e.g., an experience of
280 connectedness) but we may also experience internal language-related conscious content in the
281 form of inner speech (Fernyhough and Borghi, 2023). Connectedness content may be
282 experimentally approached by classical conscious perception paradigms for visual (Eiserbeck
283 et al., 2022; Klink, et al., 2013; Sklar et al., 2021), auditory (Eklund et al., 2021, 2019), tactile
284 (Grund et al., 2021; Schröder et al., 2021) or language stimuli (Avneon and Lamy, 2019; Chien
285 et al., 2023) as listed in Table 1. Various methodological approaches have also been proposed
286 to investigate internal awareness content, including questionnaires, experience sampling (i.e.,
287 assessment of mind-wandering at random time points), dual-task designs (with a secondary
288 task preventing inner speech) as well as neuroimaging techniques (Alderson-Day and
289 Fernyhough, 2015).

290

[INSERT TABLE 1 AROUND HERE]

291 A number of these studies have demonstrated that language processing at the lexico-semantic
292 level may impact the content of conscious perception or connectedness. Research by Lupyan
293 and colleagues (Lupyan et al., 2020; Lupyan and Ward, 2013) has provided compelling evidence
294 for the influence of language on perception, particularly in the domains of visual recognition,
295 discrimination, and detection. In one study, they explored whether verbal labels affect the
296 detection of visually suppressed objects (Lupyan and Ward, 2013). Using continuous flash
297 suppression, they showed that valid labels enhanced detection accuracy and response speed,
298 whereas invalid labels had the opposite effect. Moreover, Fugate and colleagues (2020) used a
299 control (i.e., 'public', 'belief') or an emotion word (i.e., 'sad', 'angry', 'happy', 'calm') as a semantic
300 prime, followed by two (congruent vs. incongruent) emotional faces presented under binocular
301 rivalry to participants, who were instructed to continually indicate the left- or right-oriented
302 gradient they saw. The authors showed that emotion word priming led to reports of perceiving
303 the word-congruent emotional face for a longer duration, relative to control word priming. In
304 other terms, the presentation of these words changed the time during which emotional faces
305 were maintained in visual awareness. These findings suggest that verbal content may modulate
306 early steps of conscious visual perception (Fugate et al., 2020; Pinto et al., 2015). The influence
307 of semantic activation on conscious awareness of visual objects has also been examined using
308 the attentional blink paradigm (Weller et al., 2019). In that study, targets presented during the
309 inattentive phase could nevertheless be detected more easily when they were objects with
310 learnt semantic content relative to objects with no such content.

311 Secondly, some studies have focused on the contribution of inner speech to the internal
312 awareness component of consciousness (Martial et al., 2020). For example, Bastian and

313 colleagues (2017) investigated the number of spontaneous reports of mind-wandering during a
314 verbal working memory task, by manipulating the ease at which inner speech could be
315 mobilized. Inner speech was either reduced using an articulatory suppression task (i.e.,
316 continuously repeating ‘a-b-c’ aloud) or enhanced using the presentation of written verbal
317 material, based on the assumption that silent reading automatically involves inner speech. They
318 concluded that the blocking or facilitation of inner speech respectively decreased or increased
319 the awareness of mind-wandering. One can however argue that both tasks had also a direct
320 impact on mind-wandering itself, and not only its awareness, as repeated articulation may also
321 reduce monitoring of mind-wandering while the presentation of written material may provide
322 cues generating thoughts and associated mind-wandering. However, more research is needed
323 for clarifying the possible influence of inner speech on conscious content. Although inner
324 speech is commonly seen as a key feature of one’s subjective experience (Ferryhough and
325 Borghi, 2023), the occurrence of inner speech varies strongly within and between individuals
326 (Heavey and Hurlburt, 2008; Nedergaard and Lupyan, 2023). The term ‘anendophasia’ was
327 recently proposed to refer to the lack of the experience of inner speech, which would have
328 behavioral consequences on performance in some language-related cognitive tasks (i.e., verbal
329 working memory task and rhyme judgments) (Nedergaard and Lupyan, 2023). Future studies
330 should determine whether the absence of subjective experience of language could more
331 particularly affect consciousness content referring to other modalities in people with
332 anendophasia.

333 Overall, language processing seems to influence the content of consciousness, as most
334 specifically evidenced by the influence of lexico-semantic activation on visual awareness. In the
335 next section, we specifically address higher-order conscious thought in its interaction with
336 language and the impact of language impairment.

337

338 **5. Higher-order conscious thought and language**

339 The scientific literature includes studies reporting on the existence of relationships between
340 language abilities and higher-order cognitive skills that are commonly associated with the
341 phenomenon of consciousness, including self-awareness or metacognition. Evidence from
342 aphasia particularly illuminates the association between language and higher-order conscious
343 thought. Although individuals with aphasia generally retain global consciousness (Fedorenko
344 and Varley, 2016), specific conscious processes, particularly self-awareness and
345 metacognition, can be altered. Anosognosia, affecting approximately 20-25% of patients with
346 left hemisphere damage, is perhaps the most significant example (Skipper, 2022).

347 This cognitive impairment can be subdivided into lack of intellectual awareness (general
348 knowledge that a specific cognitive function is impaired in oneself), lack of emergent awareness
349 (knowledge that an error is being made) and lack of anticipatory awareness (foreknowledge that
350 a mistake might be made) (van der Stelt et al., 2021). Regarding intellectual awareness, van der
351 Stelt and colleagues (2021) examined subjective experiences of anomia (via patient interview
352 and a continuous rating scale) and confronted it with formal language testing. Post-stroke
353 aphasic patients who gave unreliable or inaccurate estimates and ratings of their naming ability
354 showed greater impairment on semantic tasks such as single word comprehension or category
355 judgment, demonstrating both impaired internal awareness and semantic skills. In another
356 study, measures of metacognition (i.e., emergent awareness or online self-correction of naming
357 errors during a language task) were associated with comprehension but not production deficits
358 (Dean et al., 2016). These results suggest a relationship between acquired language disorders
359 and impaired higher-order conscious thought. At the same time, these aspects related to

360 consciousness may influence language performance as evidenced by studies showing that
361 metacognitive training can enhance functional language recovery (Bampa et al., 2021; Wadams
362 et al., 2022).

363 Furthermore, some studies have focused on inner speech in aphasia (Fama et al., 2019;
364 Langland-Hassan et al., 2017; Tichborne et al., 2023). Analyzing autobiographical accounts
365 written by people with aphasia, it was found that those who described impaired inner speech
366 identified this aspect as ‘the key feature of their aphasia, affecting cognition and sense of self,
367 as well as language production, engagement in rehabilitation and conceptualization of recovery’
368 (Tichborne et al., 2023). Moreover, Langland-Hassan and colleagues (2017) observed that inner
369 speech deficits (inferred by means of a silent rhyming task) were associated with impaired
370 metacognitive assessments of performance in categorization tasks in patients with aphasia
371 (Langland-Hassan et al., 2017). During a silent naming task, other patients were asked to report
372 whether they could say the name of items inside their heads. This self-reported inner speech
373 was related to their performance on tasks requiring phonological retrieval of the same items
374 (Fama et al., 2019). Patients with unreliable reporting of inner speech were also more severely
375 impaired regarding both language processing and internal awareness (i.e., error recognition).

376 Going one step further, studies using self-report questionnaires in healthy adults have finally
377 suggested that self-awareness measures (including self-focused attention and self-
378 acceptance) mediate the relationship between inner speech and self-regulation (Morin, 2018;
379 Racy and Morin, 2024). Overall, these findings align with Skipper’s hypothesis that language, and
380 particularly inner speech, may generate and sustain self-awareness (Skipper, 2022).

381

382

383 **6. Integrative and critical discussion**

384 In this final section, we aim to summarize and critically evaluate the reviewed findings, discuss
385 their theoretical implications, and highlight the methodological challenges involved in examining
386 the interaction between language and consciousness.

387 **6.1. Quantitative aspects of consciousness**

388 The studies we reviewed on language processing during sleep and anesthesia suggest that low-
389 level acoustic and lexico-semantic processing is possible without consciousness. On the other
390 hand, higher-level integration of semantic information appears to be absent or to elicit limited
391 brain activation when participants are sedated or asleep (Fogel et al., 2022; Krom et al., 2020;
392 Naci et al., 2018). Similarly, brain responses in UWS patients primarily reflect low-level auditory
393 processing, whereas, in higher states of consciousness (i.e., from MCS- and MCS+ to
394 emergence), brain responses increasingly indicate more complex semantic integration (Gui et
395 al., 2020; Naci et al., 2018).

396 Most of these findings, however, rely on methodologies that may not accurately distinguish
397 between the different low-level and high-level aspects that define language processing. A
398 number of recent EEG studies on language processing and consciousness involve neural
399 tracking paradigms of speech stimuli (e.g., Gui et al., 2020; Makov et al., 2017; Sokoliuk et al.,
400 2021), which, however, do not allow to clearly separate sentence-level and acoustic aspects
401 given that these aspects are correlated in natural speech contexts (Gillis et al., 2022). As a
402 consequence, neural tracking of semantic processing may actually be confounded with
403 acoustic processing (Köseme et al., 2023). In addition, fMRI studies tend to show language-
404 related engagement of distinct cortical areas as a function of consciousness state, but we can
405 only speculate about the specific aspects of language that are involved here, via reverse

406 inference based on previous studies on the neurobiology of language. Likewise, the
407 frontoparietal activity foci observed in these studies in response to language stimuli may reflect
408 attentional or executive control processes elicited by the narratives rather than high-level
409 semantic integration. Future studies need to examine in a more direct and accurate manner
410 which aspects of language processing remain functional when consciousness is reduced in
411 healthy controls, by contrasting brain responses to carefully selected language stimuli.

412 Studies on disorders of consciousness highlight important clinical implications. Although they
413 tend to confirm that recovery from language deficits and consciousness impairment follows
414 parallel trajectories (Aubinet et al., 2022), a special case is the situation of neural tracking of
415 higher-level aspects of language processing in patients behaviorally diagnosed as unconscious
416 (i.e., high-level covert cortical processing). For example, an increased N400 peak amplitude - in
417 response to incongruous sentence endings, indicating preserved semantic anomaly detection -
418 has been observed in some unresponsive patients, although with delayed responses (Balconi et
419 al., 2013; Balconi and Arangio, 2015). Similar results have been obtained using an fMRI-based
420 paradigm, in which patients with a behavioral diagnosis of UWS exhibited differential brain
421 responses to factually correct versus incorrect sentences (Kotchoubey et al., 2013). These
422 cases may indicate that, unlike our conclusions so far, the presence of high-level language
423 integration is possible in the absence of consciousness. Yet, we cannot exclude the possibility
424 that these specific patients, while diagnosed as being in a state associated with
425 unconsciousness, were actually conscious. Indeed, there is a well-documented, elevated risk
426 of behavioral misdiagnosis (Schnakers et al., 2009; van Erp et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2020;
427 Wannez et al., 2017) and a high likelihood of covert consciousness (Aubinet et al., 2025a;
428 Bodien et al., 2024; Claassen et al., 2024) in this population.

429 **6.2. Qualitative aspects of consciousness**

430 Cognitive studies examining conscious and unconscious content in awake participants seem to
431 converge with research contrasting consciousness states based on sleep and anesthesia. At the
432 word level, elementary semantic associations of unconsciously perceived stimuli are possible,
433 but conscious perception appears to be required for higher-level semantic integration including
434 the processing of metaphoric associations (Chien et al., 2023). We also observed low evidence
435 for the possibility of semantic integration in phrase and sentence contexts when verbal stimuli
436 do not reach visual awareness (Mongelli et al., 2019; Mudrik and Deouell, 2022; Nakamura et
437 al., 2018; Rabagliati et al., 2018). Although these studies use visual paradigms, similar results
438 are expected across different sensory modalities. A recent study suggests that auditory and
439 visual perception rely on similar cortical and subcortical networks, indicating shared
440 mechanisms of conscious perception (Christison-Lagay et al., 2025).

441 Nevertheless, we need to remain cautious about these results as many studies in this field are
442 associated with low statistical power and with uncertainty regarding the optimal prime duration
443 for stimuli to be perceived as conscious or not (Rabagliati et al., 2018; Stein et al., 2024).
444 Moreover, participants in these paradigms are generally asked to perform a specific task (e.g.,
445 categorical judgment) involving motor or verbal explicit responses and cognitive control. The
446 ecological validity of such responses was recently questioned (e.g., motor responses require
447 learning task-specific response associations), and alternative measures such as spontaneous
448 eye movement responses should be considered in future research (Mudrik et al., 2024).

449 **6.3. Causality and theoretical implications**

450 Studying the interaction between language and consciousness is particularly challenging due to
451 the lack of a consensus on the definition of consciousness. Consciousness is a multifaceted

452 concept that encompasses subjective experiences only accessible from a first-person
453 perspective (Seth and Bayne, 2022; Walter, 2021). We here chose to consider language aspects
454 in interaction with both quantitative and qualitative aspects of consciousness because most
455 theorists agree on such a two-dimensional conception of consciousness (Bayne et al., 2016;
456 Overgaard and Overgaard, 2010; Seth and Bayne, 2022). When considering causal
457 relationships, consciousness multidimensionality is, however, inadequately captured by simple
458 notions of necessity and sufficiency, with multiple factors acting as partial contributors rather
459 than direct causes (Skipper, 2022).

460 As previously stated, leading theories of consciousness, such as the *Global Neuronal*
461 *Workspace Theory* (Dehaene et al., 2011; Mashour et al., 2020) or the *Integrated Information*
462 *Theory* (Albantakis et al., 2023; Tononi et al., 2016), primarily mention language as a tool for
463 reporting conscious thoughts (Budson et al., 2022; Graziano et al., 2020; Gross, 2018; Hermann
464 et al., 2022; Mashour et al., 2020; Naccache, 2018; Seth and Bayne, 2022). We here argue that
465 language and consciousness may be interdependent, enriching each other to support
466 communication (Fedotov and Baidyuk, 2023). On the one hand, we emphasize a certain
467 parallelism between their recovery trajectories and the idea that conscious processing is
468 required for higher levels of language integration (or the processes supporting such integration).
469 Inversely, we show that (at least) some language aspects can influence our conscious
470 experience, as lexico-semantic processing of information can impact the level and duration of
471 awareness of the same information in visual perceptual tasks (Fugate et al., 2020; Weller et al.,
472 2019). Moreover, the restoration of language and related processes may precede and serve as
473 a predictor of the reemergence of a consciousness state after coma (e.g., Formisano et al.,
474 2019; Sokoliuk et al., 2021). These findings may consequently speak for a potential contribution
475 of language processing to both qualitative and quantitative aspects of consciousness.

476 Nevertheless, two other explanations must be ruled out to confirm such a bilateral
477 interdependence between language and consciousness.

478 The first one is that language may play a role in shaping higher-order, reflective conscious
479 cognition, exclusively. Indeed, aphasia and deficits in inner speech are associated with impaired
480 self-awareness and metacognition, while interventions targeting metacognition can enhance
481 language recovery (Skipper, 2022; Fama et al., 2019; Bampa et al., 2021). Studies in healthy
482 adults also indicate that self-awareness mediates the link between inner speech and self-
483 regulation (Morin, 2018; Racy and Morin, 2024). Together, these findings support the existence
484 of a bidirectional relationship between linguistic and such higher-order cognitive capacities,
485 which aligns with the HOLISTIC model (Skipper, 2022). This is also consistent with the view that
486 most animals could possess primary consciousness (i.e., in a first-order sense), but only a few
487 would be capable of higher-order conscious thought and complex reasoning, for which language
488 is necessary (Miguens, 2022). Future perspectives therefore include robust empirical studies
489 focusing on the interaction between the aspects of language processing and consciousness
490 components requiring or not requiring high-level cognition.

491 The second alternative hypothesis is that conscious processing may not be required for (or be
492 influenced by) high-level linguistic processing per se, but rather for the integrative mechanisms
493 that underlie such aspects of language. Language processing may be viewed as part of a broader
494 perceptual and cognitive process of 'integration' (i.e., the generation of a non-perceptual,
495 abstract representation through the association of distinct signals into a unified one) (Mudrik et
496 al., 2014). According to the 'windows of integration hypothesis' (Hirschhorn et al., 2021), the
497 necessity of conscious processing in integrating two or more representations into a novel one
498 depends on the size of the integration window, which can be defined not only semantically, but

499 also temporally or spatially. The proposed association between language and consciousness
500 may thus be accounted for by more general integrative mechanisms that are not specific to
501 language. In other words, higher semantic and morphosyntactic levels of language may be
502 related to higher state of consciousness and the conscious processing of verbal content,
503 primarily due to the involvement of larger windows of integration rather than their specific
504 linguistic nature. In this case, the presumed interdependence between high-level language
505 processing and consciousness would be mediated by integrative skills. Nevertheless, phonetic
506 processing of language stimuli requires substantial contextual integration of the multiple, noisy,
507 and complex sensory features that allow our brain to distinguish, for example, voiced from
508 unvoiced consonants or to differentiate speech from non-speech sounds. As shown in this
509 review, individuals in states of altered consciousness or in unconscious conditions exhibit
510 differentiated brain responses to these lower-level linguistic features, despite the high
511 integrative demands involved. Therefore, our conclusions regarding preserved versus non-
512 preserved language processes as a function of consciousness state cannot be reduced to
513 integrated information processing alone. Further research should aim to isolate the language-
514 specific contribution to integration in comparison to other forms of information integration and
515 take into account this complexity for moving towards more integrative and comprehensive
516 theoretical frameworks of consciousness.

517 ***6.4. Methodological circularity in consciousness assessment***

518 Assessing our subjective experience importantly depends on our ability to explicitly report it, a
519 process that typically involves language. This remains a key issue in many of the studies
520 reviewed here.

521 In sleep and anesthesia studies, recovery from unconsciousness is defined by the earliest
522 instance at which subjects behaviorally respond to verbal commands (e.g., Mashour et al.,
523 2021). The same method is used to probe for both overt and covert consciousness states in
524 post-comatose patients with severe acquired brain injury (Bayne et al., 2016). When opening
525 their eyes, these patients are typically asked to squeeze the hand, open the mouth or move a
526 limb, and considered as being conscious as soon as they can adequately and reproducibly
527 respond to verbal commands. Regarding behavioral cognitive studies, many of the tasks used to
528 assess connectedness and internal awareness (as in Table 1) also involve language-based self-
529 report of one's own conscious perception of stimuli or experiences (Block, 2019; Naccache,
530 2018). Language processing is consequently intrinsically implicated in tasks assessing
531 consciousness, which induces a problem of circularity when trying to interpret the results in
532 terms of either consciousness or language processing abilities (Aubinet et al., 2025b).

533 Some authors have proposed new strategies to mitigate these biases. For example, recent
534 neuroimaging studies incorporating awareness tasks have compared brain activity in both
535 'report' and 'no-report' conditions (Block, 2019). Using this paradigm, occipitotemporal and
536 parietal cortex activity remained stable across both conditions in visual awareness tasks,
537 whereas significant frontal cortex activity was observed only when participants reported their
538 visual conscious experiences (Hatamimajoumerd et al., 2022). Such tasks may offer a better
539 direction for identifying the neural mechanisms underlying perceptual awareness. In addition,
540 various methods not relying on language processing have emerged, notably in the field of
541 disorders of consciousness, including stimulus-free resting state paradigms or tasks based on
542 tactile, olfactory or non-linguistic auditory stimuli (Arzi et al., 2020; Bekinschtein et al., 2009;
543 Kazazian et al., 2025). Also, complexity-related measures of neural processing (i.e.,
544 perturbational complexity index) are considered as reliable markers of consciousness state

545 across many different conditions, such as sleep, anesthesia and disorders of consciousness
546 (Casali et al., 2013; Casarotto et al., 2016; Sarasso et al., 2021), without needing any behavioral
547 response by the patient. Building on these approaches, recent work has underscored the urgent
548 need to develop validated consciousness tests applicable to a broad range of systems and
549 populations, including patients with severe brain injury (Bayne et al., 2024). To this end, the
550 authors propose a bootstrapping approach, beginning validation with neurotypical individuals in
551 globally unresponsive states and gradually extending to more challenging groups.

552 **6.5. Conclusion**

553 Even if language is undoubtedly not the sole determinant of consciousness, this review
554 highlights the existence of bidirectional interactions while also identifying several theoretical
555 and methodological challenges in studying and interpreting them. Future research should more
556 precisely define the specific aspects of language and dimensions of consciousness that interact
557 and, crucially, investigate the potential causality of these interactions.

558

559 **Glossary**

560

561 Inner speech: subjective experience of language in the absence of articulation, also called
562 covert language, silent speech or self-talk

563 Primary consciousness: aware processing of the environment, related to basic perceptual,
564 sensory, emotional content, also observed in non-human species

565 Higher-order consciousness: form of extended or reflective consciousness that encompasses
566 self-awareness and meta-awareness, allowing the individual to reflect on their own mental
567 states

568 Consciousness state: global state of arousal referring to quantitative aspects of consciousness

569 Consciousness content: specific information or representations present in consciousness at a
570 given moment and referring to qualitative aspects of consciousness

571 Self-awareness: conscious experience of self-related content including having mental
572 representations of the self or becoming the object of one's own attention

573 Metacognition: reflective capacity that allows individuals to assess the accuracy or reliability
574 of their own cognitive states

575 Connectedness: connection to the external world allowing the experience of external stimuli
576 and responsiveness to these stimuli

577 Internal awareness: all thoughts not generated by external stimuli

578 Cognitive-motor dissociation: detection of response to commands or explicit language
579 processing in absence of language-related behavioral signs of consciousness

580 Covert cortical processing: detection of association cortex responses to language or implicit
581 language processing in absence of language-related behavioral signs of consciousness

582

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587

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589 **Competing interest**

590 The authors declare no competing interest.

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Tables

Table 1. Examples of tasks used to assess the content of connectedness and internal awareness.					
Connectedness				Internal awareness	
Visual perception	Auditory perception	Tactile perception	Language perception	Self-consciousness	Inner speech
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Detection of behavioral responses to visual stimuli (recognition, pursuit, and fixation) - Flash suppression, binocular rivalry, and attentional blink tasks 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Detection of behavioral responses to auditory stimuli - Auditory event-related potentials (ERPs) - Tone detection tasks 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Detection of behavioral responses to tactile or painful stimuli - Somato-sensory/ tactile detection tasks 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Detection of behavioral or covert responses to verbal commands - Language discrimination/ priming tasks - ERPs (N400) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Responses to self-referential stimuli (e.g., own name, own face) - Default-mode network activation - Self-consciousness questionnaires (e.g., Scheier and Carver, 1985; Mehling et al., 2018) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Observation of the development of private speech - Language network activation - Experience sampling, dual-task designs, silent rhyming or naming tasks

Figures

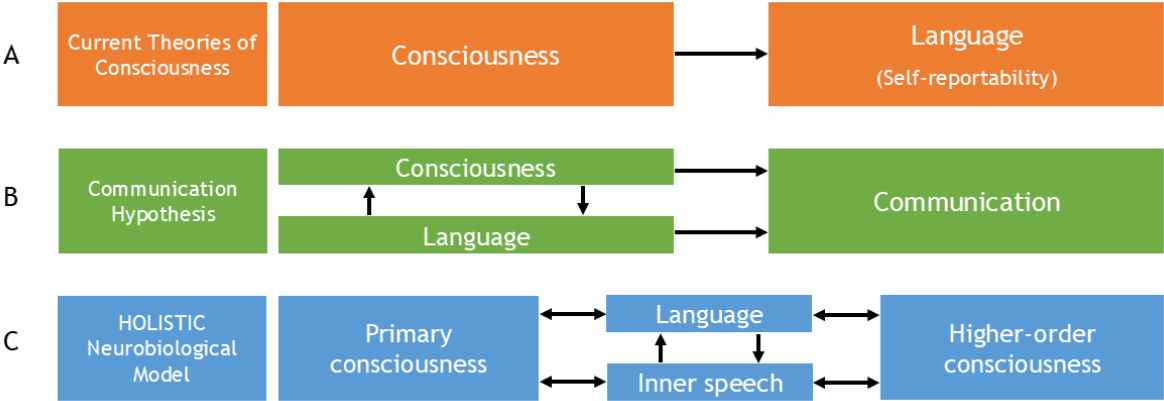


Figure 1. Functional interactions between language, consciousness and communication. Whereas leading theories of consciousness (e.g., Graziano et al., 2020; Gross, 2018; Hermann et al., 2022; Mashour et al., 2020; Naccache, 2018) primarily view language as a means of reporting conscious experience, thus considering it a post-conscious process (A), recent theoretical perspectives suggest a closer association between human language and consciousness. Some propose that the communicative function of language serves as the foundation of consciousness (Fedotov and Baidyuk, 2023; Miguens, 2022) (B), while others argue that language and inner speech support the emergence of higher-order consciousness (i.e., self-awareness) in contrast to primary consciousness (Skipper, 2022) (C).

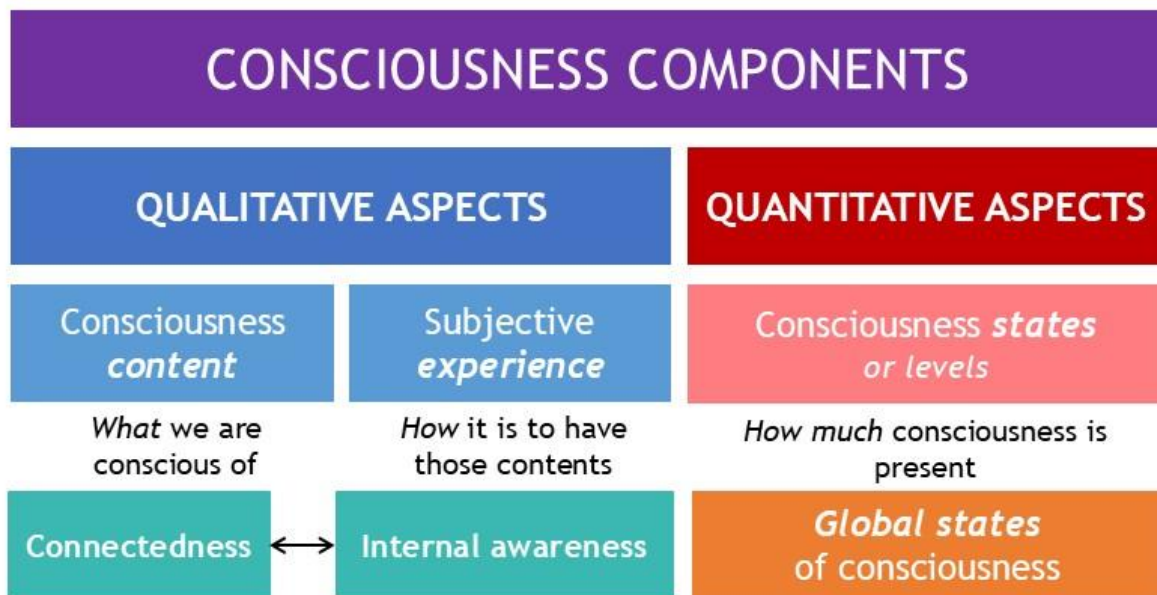


Figure 2. Consciousness components based on qualitative and quantitative aspects. Consciousness is commonly described as a bidimensional phenomenon, encompassing both its content and states (Laureys, 2005). The content of consciousness is the specific information, or representations present in the mind at a given moment, distinct from subjective experience, which is characterized by what it feels like to have this content. The term ‘content of consciousness’ also encompasses other distinctions found in the literature, such as connectedness versus internal awareness content (Martial et al., 2020). In contrast, the states or levels of consciousness refer to global states of arousal, including sleep stages, drug-induced states or post-comatose disorders of consciousness.

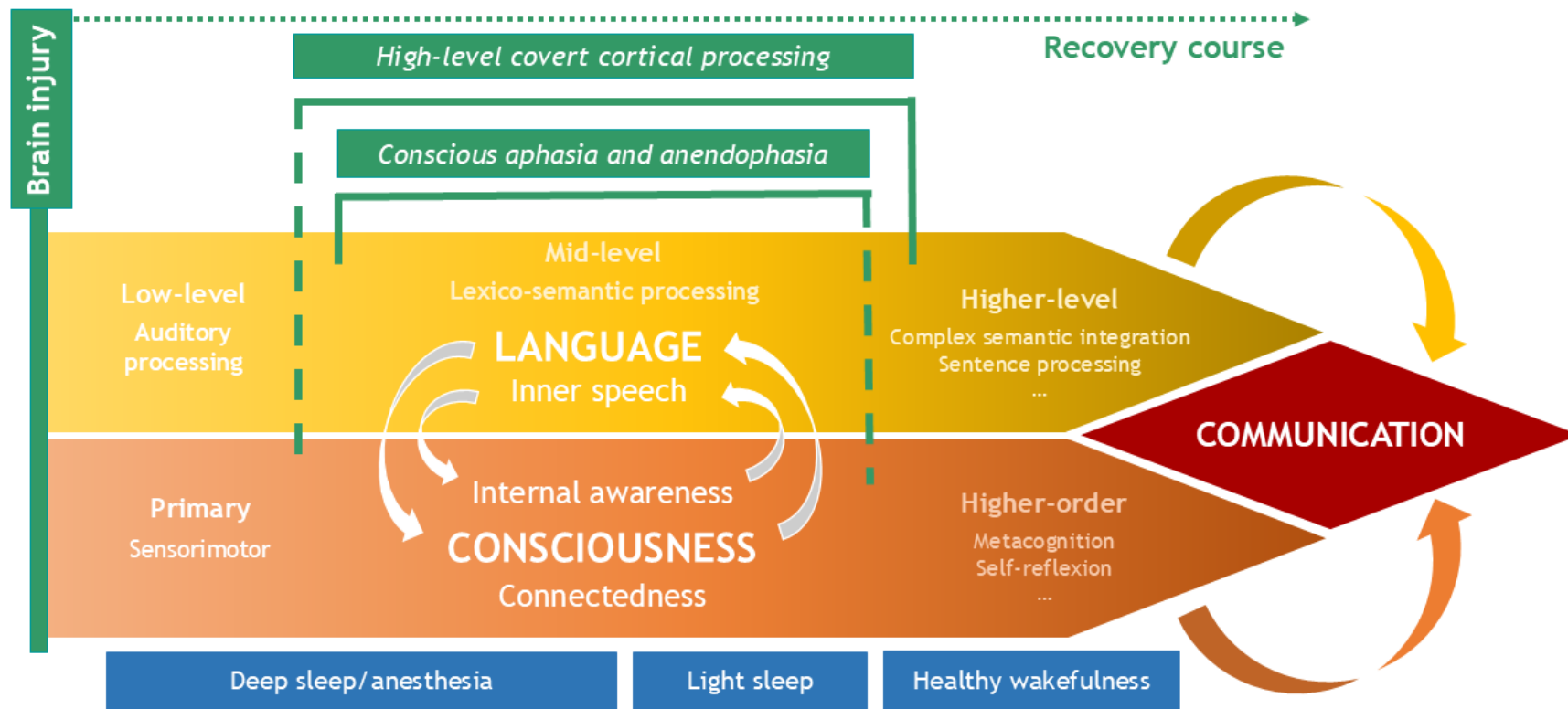


Figure 3. Evolution and interactions between language and consciousness functions. Recent evidence supports the existence of bidirectional functional interactions between language and consciousness systems. Notably, there are strong associations between neural recovery trajectories of language and consciousness state. Clinical and cognitive research also highlights apparent dissociations between these functions, such as conscious aphasia, anendophasia, and high-level covert cortical processing. Most studies suggest that greater complexity in language integration corresponds to higher states of consciousness. Additionally, language and inner speech may play a crucial role in supporting the emergence of higher-order conscious thought. Ultimately, both functions influence communicative abilities.