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# Preschoolers' brains rely on semantic cues prior to the mastery of syntax during sentence comprehension

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#### ABSTRACT

Sentence comprehension requires the integration of both syntactic and semantic information, the acquisition of 18 which seems to have different trajectories in the developing brain. Using functional magnetic resonance imaging, 19 we examined the neural correlates underlying syntactic and semantic processing during auditory sentence com- 20 prehension as well as its development in preschool children by manipulating case marking and animacy hierar- 21 chy cues, respectively. A functional segregation was observed within Broca's area in the left inferior frontal gyrus 22 for adults, where the pars opercularis was involved in syntactic processing and the pars triangularis in semantic 23 processing. By contrast, five-year-old children sensitive to animacy hierarchy cues showed diffuse activation for 24 semantic processing in the left inferior frontal and posterior temporal cortices. While no main effect of case mark- 25 ing was found in the left fronto-temporal language network, children with better syntactic skills showed greater 26 neural responses for syntactically complex sentences, most prominently in the posterior superior temporal cortex. The current study provides both behavioral and neural evidence that five-year-old children compared to 28 adults rely more on semantic information than on syntactic cues during sentence comprehension, but with the 29 development of syntactic abilities, their brain activation in the left fronto-temporal network increases for syntactic processing. 31

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#### 37 Introduction

An essential aspect of sentence comprehension is to understand the 38 relations between words in a string, such as the agent-patient relation 39 which determines who is doing what to whom. Humans make use of 40several cues carried by the components to determine which participant 41 in a sentence is the actor of an action expressed by the verb, thereby 42 43 helping with interpretation. Take an English sentence "she plays the *piano*" for example. One could use several cues in the sentence to iden-44 tify she as the agent to play and the piano as the patient to be played, 4546such as (1) animacy hierarchy—an animate noun she is more likely to 47 act upon an inanimate noun the piano; (2) "subject-verb-object" word order-the noun before the verb (i.e., she) is the subject, and the 48 noun after the verb (i.e., the piano) is the object; (3) case marking-the 49 50first noun she is a subject pronoun but not an object pronoun (i.e., her). While it seems to be an automatic process for adults to interpret 51 sentences by assigning different weights to the available cues 5253(MacWhinney et al., 1984), sentence comprehension is nonetheless a challenging task for the developing cognitive system (Bates et al., 1984). 54

According to the competition model, the age of acquisition of a sentential cue is determined by its cue validity, which is jointly influenced by cue availability and cue reliability in the target language (Bates and

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http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2015.10.036 1053-8119/© 2015 Published by Elsevier Inc. MacWhinney, 1982; Bates et al., 1984). Mastery of these cues only oc- 58 curs gradually over time during language development (Bates et al., 59 1984; Chan et al., 2009; Dittmar et al., 2008). For the German language, 60 previous behavioral studies have demonstrated that German-speaking 61 children show primacy in the acquisition of animacy cues, followed by 62 word order, and do not rely on case marking over other cues until the 63 age of seven or later (Chan et al., 2009; Dittmar et al., 2008; Lindner, 64 2003). The late acquisition of syntactic case marking may be attributed 65 to its low validity in German particularly due to lower availability of un- 66 ambiguous case marking (Mahlstedt, 2007). Other studies have also 67 suggested that semantic information directly influences syntactic anal- 68 ysis in children's sentence processing (Deutsch et al., 1999; Friederici, 69 1983). Hence, semantic cues seem to play a more important role 70 for children compared to adults during sentence comprehension 71 (MacWhinney et al., 1984). 72

Apparently, sentence comprehension is achieved by integrating the 73 syntactic and semantic information provided. Evidence from functional 74 neuroimaging studies with adults has shown that while syntactic and 75 semantic processing both involve a left-lateralized fronto-temporal net- 76 work, each function seems to be supported by segregated regions in the 77 brain (Friederici et al., 2000; Newman et al., 2003, 2010; Ni et al., 2000). 78 While the pars opercularis of the left inferior frontal gyrus (IFG), that is, 79 Brodmann Area (BA) 44, and the left posterior superior temporal gyrus/ 80 sulcus (posterior STG/STS) have been reported to show increased acti- 81 vation for processing more complex syntactic sentences compared to 82

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less complex sentences (Constable et al., 2004; Friederici, 2011; 83 84 Friederici et al., 2009; Grewe et al., 2007; Kinno et al., 2008; Mack et al., 2013; Makuuchi et al., 2009; Meltzer et al., 2010; Santi and 85 86 Grodzinsky, 2010), sentential semantic processing has been shown to be subserved by pars triangularis (BA 45) and pars orbitalis (BA 47) of 87 the left IFG as well as the left posterior STS (Binder et al., 2009; 88 Bruffaerts et al., 2013; Grewe et al., 2007; Mestres-Missé et al., 2008; 89 Newman et al., 2010; Rodd et al., 2005). These neuroimaging findings 90 91 from adults provide a valuable neurocognitive model of language 92 against which the development of semantic and syntactic processing 93in children can be discussed.

Yet the neural network underlying sentence processing in young 9495children has only been sparsely investigated. Existing studies suggest 96 that functional segregation in the fronto-temporal regions in children is not as crisp as in adults. Using transitive sentences containing either 97 syntactic or semantic violations, Brauer and Friederici (2007) demon-98 strated that while adults showed function-specific activation in the 99 left STG and the frontal operculum for syntactic as compared with se-100 mantic processing, five- to six-year-old children recruited largely over-101 lapped activation in the left STG and bilateral IFG. Skeide et al. (2014) 102used correct sentences in a sentence-picture matching task with ma-103 nipulations of syntactic complexity and semantic plausibility, and dem-104 105 onstrated that three- to four-year-old children showed no main effect, but only interaction effects between syntax and semantics in the mid 106 and posterior portion of STG. In addition to interaction effects, six- to 107seven-year-old children also started to show main effects of syntax 108 and semantics in the mid to posterior STG/STS, but children at the 109110 ages of nine to ten had a segregated main effect of syntax in the left IFG and a main effect of semantics in the anterior STG/STS. This study 111 provides strong neural evidence that children do not process syntax in-112 dependently from semantics in sentence interpretation until the age of 113 114 ten.

115Moreover, there are a number of studies that report cortical activa-116 tion for syntactic processing to be associated with children's behavioral performance. In children aged between seven and fifteen years, it was 117 found that the activation in the left IFG in response to syntactic process-118 ing increased with above average proficiency of syntactic skills indepen-119 120 dent of age (Nuñez et al., 2011). In another study with children between four and six years of age, it was shown that even in these young chil-121 dren, a subgroup with better syntactic knowledge already showed en-122hanced activation in the left BA 44 for non-canonical object-first 123 124 sentences compared to canonical subject-first sentences (Knoll et al., 2012). These studies indicate that the neural representation underlying 125language processing is dependent on the development and maturation 126 127of the brain, which in turn is correlated with children's linguistic skills. A direct correlation between the brain's functional development of four 128129language-related regions as well as the structural maturation between these and the syntactic processing skills between the ages of three to 130ten years has recently been demonstrated by Skeide et al. (2015). 131

The current study used functional magnetic resonance imaging 132(fMRI) to specify the neural correlates underlying processing of syntac-133134tic canonicity and of semantic animacy, as well as the interaction 135between these, during auditory sentence comprehension in the developing and mature brain. In a sentence listening paradigm, we manipu-136lated case marking as the syntactic cue and animacy hierarchy as the 137138semantic cue. Five-year-old children were selected to compare with 139adults as children at this age are already sensitive to the animacy hierarchy but have only started to learn case marking cues. This allows us to 140 examine whether children with different levels of syntactic knowledge, 141 independent of age, may show different patterns of neural activation for 142syntactic processing and how this interacts with animacy information. 143Adults were chosen as the control group as their neural responses 144 would serve as a reference model for sentence comprehension under 145the task manipulation. Moreover, in the current study, analyses tested 146 for whole brain effects as well as for anatomically defined a priori 147 148 regions-of-interest (ROIs) in the perisylvian areas that have been identified relevant for processing sentence comprehension in previous 149 studies as described above, namely the pars opercularis and pars 150 triangularis in the left IFG, the left posterior STS, and the left posterior 151 STG (Bahlmann et al., 2007; Ben-Shachar et al., 2003; Binder et al., 152 2009; Bornkessel et al., 2005; Bruffaerts et al., 2013; Constable et al., 153 2004; Friederici, 2011; Friederici et al., 2009; Grewe et al., 2007; Kinno 154 et al., 2008; Makuuchi et al., 2009; Mestres-Missé et al., 2008; Moro 155 et al., 2001; Musso et al., 2003; Newman et al., 2010; Obleser et al., 156 2007; Rodd et al., 2005; Röder et al., 2002; Saur et al., 2008; Tyler 157 et al., 2005). 158

#### Materials and methods

Participants

Fifty-six children at the age range of 5;1 to 5;11 were initially re- 161 cruited. A number of children had to be excluded from the study for 162 the following reasons: two children showed incidental findings; eleven 163 did not finish the fMRI task; three were ambidextrous or left-handed 164 (scores ≤ 20 in the modified version of Edinburgh Handedness Invento- 165 ry (Oldfield, 1971)); three had large movement during fMRI scanning 166 exceeding 3 mm at any translation axis and/or 3° at any rotation. Conse- 167 quently, data from thirty-seven children were preprocessed and ana- 168 lyzed. A group of sixteen adults served as a control group. After 169 individual-level analyses, activation maps contrasting all individual sen- 170 tence conditions versus the silence condition (rest) were examined as a 171 basic activation check, which were expected to show activation in the 172 bilateral auditory cortices as the sentences were auditorily presented. 173 Seven children and one adult were excluded from group-level analyses 174 as they did not show any activation in the auditory cortices for this base- 175 line contrast even at the threshold of p < 0.05 (uncorrected). As a result, 176 the final group-level analyses consisted of thirty children (ten boys, age 177 range 5;1–5;11, M = 5;6, SD = 0;3.45; handedness scores range 40–178 100, M = 78.1, SD = 17.8) and fifteen adults (eight males; age range 179 21–32, M = 25.5, SD = 3.27; handedness scores range 36.8–100, 180 M = 83.0, SD = 16.9). All participants were native German speakers, 181 and had no history of medical, psychiatric or neurological disorders. 182 Written informed consent was obtained from all adult participants 183 and the parents of the children. Children gave verbal assent prior to par-184 ticipation. The study was approved by the Institutional Review Board of 185 the University of Leipzig. 186

#### Task design and materials

In German language, case marking in the article of the noun phrase 188 indicates the subject (nominative case) and the object (here: accusative 189 case). While canonical sentences are subject-first, German as a 190 free word order language also possesses non-canonical object-first 191 sentences. Stimulus materials consisted of 150 five-word German 192 sentences composed of two noun phrases (NPs) and one verb 193 (V) following a NP-V-NP structure. Only grammatically masculine 194 nouns were used, for which case marking variation of the nominative 195 and accusative forms is unambiguous. The sentences varied in two fac- 196 tors: syntactic case marking and semantic animacy hierarchy. Case 197 marking variation was used to introduce canonical subject-first and 198 non-canonical object-first sentences that differed by syntactic structure 199 but not by semantic content. Animacy hierarchy of the nominatives and 200 the accusatives in the NPs was defined with three levels as neutral hier- 201 archy (animate agent and animate patient, AA), prototypical hierarchy 202 (animate agent and inanimate patient, AI), and non-prototypical hierar- 203 chy (inanimate agent and animate patient, IA). The manipulation of case 204 marking and animacy hierarchy factors resulted in a  $2 \times 3$  within-  $_{205}$ subjects designed experiment composed of six conditions: C-AA, C-AI, 206 C-IA, NC-AA, NC-AI, and NC-IA (see Table 1 for examples of sentences). 207 Each condition consisted of 25 sentences, and each sentence lasted for 208 3.29 s on average (SD = 0.02 s). For both children and adults, the 209

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